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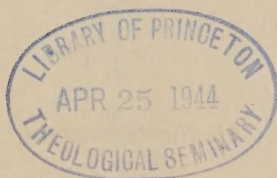
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CHINA HANDBOOK

1937—1943

*A Comprehensive Survey of Major Developments
in China in Six Years of War*

Compiled by
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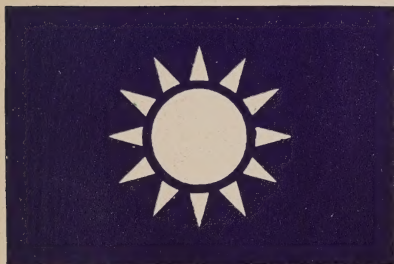
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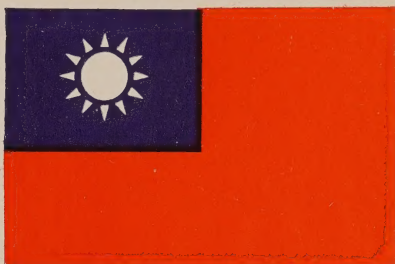
林森



Chinese National Standards



Flag of Kuomintang



Flag of the Republic

The history of the Chinese national flag—the **White - Sun - in - Blue - Sky-over-Red-Ground** dates back to 1906 when this emblem was decided upon as the Chinese national standard by Dr. Sun Yat-sen at the *Tung Meng Hui* assembly held in Tokyo. When the Republic of China was founded in 1912, however, the five-barred (red-yellow-blue-white-black) flag was adopted by the Government, while the design created by Dr. Sun and his revolutionary comrades was made the naval flag of China.

Following the successful completion of the Northern Punitive Expedition the **White - Sun - in - Blue - Sky-over-Red-Ground** was officially adopted as the national flag on October 8th, 1928 (the 17th year of the Republic of China).

The flag of the Kuomintang, which is the **White-Sun-in-Blue-Sky**, originated in Canton—birthplace of Chinese

Revolution,—in 1895. It now occupies the upper-left quarter of the Chinese national flag to signify Party-rule.

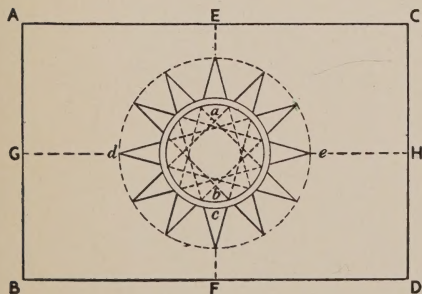
The 12 points of the **White-Sun** in the party emblem represent the 12 two-hour periods of the day. They also symbolize the forever-progressive and enterprising spirit.

The colors of blue, white and red represent collectively the *Three People's Principles*. The color symbolization is as follows:

Blue—Equality, “By the People,” Justice, and “Democracy”

White—Fraternity, “For the People,” Frankness, and “Livelihood”.

Red—Liberty, “Of the People,” Sacrifice, and “Nationalism”.



$$AB:AC=2:3$$

$$ab:EF=3:8, \quad bc=\frac{1}{18}ab$$

$$de:GH=2:4$$

$$\text{Angle of each point}-30^{\circ}$$

PREFACE TO THE AMERICAN EDITION

CHINA HANDBOOK 1937-1943 is the first undertaking of its kind by the Chinese Ministry of Information. The premier edition came off the press in India early in July, 1943, and was flown to Chungking in time to make its appearance on the sixth anniversary of China's War of Resistance. Nor was any time lost in bringing this new and much-needed reference work to the United States. It appears here in an American edition under the imprint of the Macmillan Company.

There have been a few developments since the compilation of CHINA HANDBOOK in Chungking, including the death of President Lin Sen whose calligraphy graces its title-page. These and other revisions and additions have been made so as to bring the American edition up-to-date as far as possible. Material has also been added to Chapter IX—The Sino-Japanese Hostilities and Chapter XXIII—Chronology of Major Events to cover events in the war up to the middle of 1943.

CHINA HANDBOOK has been planned as a periodical publication, though not necessarily an annual. Until the appearance of the next volume, therefore, all who are concerned with China will find this a convenient and valuable repository of information.

THE EDITOR

New York, September 1, 1943.

PREFACE

THE CHINA HANDBOOK is a comprehensive survey of the major developments in China since the outbreak of Sino-Japanese hostilities in July, 1937. It is intended to serve as an up-to-date reference book on wartime China.

In the selection of material for this publication, the editors have had recourse to official and other reliable sources. All facts and figures have been checked with due care in order to ensure accuracy and completeness as far as possible.

The HANDBOOK is divided into twenty-five chapters. Apart from Chapters I, XXII, XXIII, XXIV, XXV, which would have ordinarily been grouped under APPENDICES, material in each of the other twenty chapters is in the main chronologically arranged so as to enable the reader to follow the sequence of developments. At the outset of each chapter, sufficient historical background is given. Greater space, however, is devoted to description of events during the war years under review, with relevant documents and data attached.

The editors make no claim to exhaustiveness of information presented in this book. So much has happened since July, 1937, that it is impossible for any historian to make even a complete inventory of all known developments. Besides, war makes it necessary for any government to withhold until later publication such facts and figures as might be of use to the enemy. This is why information concerning China's military strength, industrial production, budgetary figures and the like is deliberately omitted.

Acknowledgement is due to all government offices, public organizations and individuals who have conscientiously cooperated with the editors by either furnishing useful material or suggesting thoughtful revisions, which have facilitated the publication of the HANDBOOK.

THE EDITOR

July, 1943.

NATIONAL HOLIDAYS, ANNIVERSARIES AND MEMORIAL DAYS

January	1	Formal Founding of the Republic of China (1912)*
	28	Sino-Japanese War (Shanghai-Woosung Area) Anniversary (1932)
February	5	Farmers' Day
	19	New Life Movement Anniversary
March	8	International Women's Day
	12	National Spiritual Mobilization Anniversary, Arbor Day, Dr. Sun Yat-sen's Death Anniversary (1925)
March	29	Martyrs' Day*
April	4	Children's Day
	5	Music Day
May	1	International Labor Day
	4	Youth Day
	5	Establishment of the Revolutionary Government (1921), Poet's Day
June	3	Opium Suppression Day
	6	Engineers' Day
July	1	Establishment of the National Government
		International Cooperative Day (1st Saturday)
	7	War Anniversary (1937)
August	13	Outbreak of War in Shanghai (1937)
	14	Air Force Day
	27	Confucius' Birthday* (Teachers' Day)
September	1	Journalists' Day
		Physical Culture Day
	18	Mukden Outrage Anniversary (1931)
October	10	National Day*
November	12	Dr. Sun Yat-sen's Birthday*
	21	Air Defense Day
December	25	National Renaissance Day

* National Holidays.

CHIEH CHI (Chinese Festival Observances)

<i>Hsiao Han</i> (Slight Cold)	Jan.	6
<i>Ta Han</i> (Great Cold)	Jan.	21
<i>Li Chun</i> (Spring Commences)	Feb.	4
<i>Yu Shui</i> (Spring Showers)	Feb.	19
<i>Ching Che</i> (Excited Insects)	Mar.	6
<i>Chun Fen</i> (Spring Equinox)	Mar.	21
<i>Ching Ming</i> (Pure Brightness)	April	5
<i>Ku Yu</i> (Corn Rain)	April	21
<i>Li Hsia</i> (Summer Commences)	May	6
<i>Hsiao Man</i> (Small Fullness)	May	22
<i>Mang Chung</i> (Sprouting Seeds)	June	6
<i>Hsia Chih</i> (Summer Solstice)	June	22
<i>Hsiao Shu</i> (Slight Heat)	July	8
<i>Ta Shu</i> (Great Heat)	July	24
<i>Li Chiu</i> (Autumn Commences)	Aug.	8
<i>Chu Shu</i> (End of Summer)	Aug.	24
<i>Pai Lu</i> (White Dew)	Sept.	8
<i>Chiu Fen</i> (Autumn Equinox)	Sept.	24
<i>Han Lu</i> (Cold Dew)	Oct.	9
<i>Shuang Chiang</i> (Frost's Descent)	Oct.	24
<i>Li Tung</i> (Winter Commences)	Nov.	8
<i>Hsiao Hsueh</i> (Slight Snow)	Nov.	23
<i>Ta Hsueh</i> (Great Snow)	Dec.	8
<i>Tung Chih</i> (Winter Solstice)	Dec.	23

ECLIPSES

<i>Solar Total Eclipse</i>	Feb.	5
<i>Lunar Partial Eclipse</i> (not visible in China)	Feb.	20
<i>Solar Penumbral Eclipse</i> (not visible in China)	Aug.	1
<i>Lunar Partial Eclipse</i>	Aug.	16

PERPETUAL CALENDAR

The figures in the following columns give the date of the first Sunday in the month under which they appear.

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec
1943	3	7	7	4	2	6	4	1	5	3	7	5
1944	2	6	5	2	7	4	2	6	3	1	5	3
1945	7	4	4	1	6	3	1	5	2	7	4	2
1946	6	3	3	7	5	2	7	4	1	6	3	1
1947	5	2	2	6	4	1	6	3	7	5	2	7
1948	4	1	7	4	2	6	4	1	5	3	7	5
1949	2	6	6	3	1	5	3	7	4	2	6	4
1950	1	5	5	2	7	4	2	6	3	1	5	3
1951	7	4	4	1	6	3	1	5	2	7	4	2

Example:—To find out the day of the week on July 7, 1944. July 2 is Sunday; therefore, July 7 will be Friday.

TIME CHART

CHUNGKING TIME				8.00 a.m.	4.00 p.m.
CORRESPONDS TO					
Aden	4.00 a.m.	Noon
Argentina	9.00 p.m.	5.00 a.m.
Australia, West	9.00 a.m.	5.00 p.m.
Australia, South	10.30 a.m.	6.30 p.m.
Australia, Other Parts	11.00 a.m.	7.00 p.m.
Austria	2.00 a.m.	10.00 a.m.
Belgium	1.00 a.m.	9.00 a.m.
Brazil	10.00 p.m.	6.00 a.m.
Canada, Eastern Zone	8.00 p.m.	4.00 a.m.
Canada, Pacific Zone	5.00 p.m.	1.00 a.m.
Colombia, Republic of	8.00 p.m.	4.00 a.m.
Cuba	8.00 p.m.	4.00 a.m.
Czecho-Slovakia	2.00 a.m.	10.00 a.m.
Denmark	2.00 a.m.	10.00 a.m.
France	1.00 a.m.	9.00 a.m.
French Indo-China	8.00 a.m.	4.00 p.m.
Germany	2.00 a.m.	10.00 a.m.
Great Britain	1.00 a.m.	9.00 a.m.
Greece	3.00 a.m.	11.00 a.m.
Holland	1.20 a.m.	9.20 a.m.
Honolulu	2.30 p.m.	10.30 p.m.
Hungary	2.00 a.m.	10.00 a.m.
India	6.30 a.m.	2.30 p.m.
Italy	2.00 a.m.	10.00 a.m.
Japan	10.00 a.m.	6.00 p.m.
Jugoslavia	2.00 a.m.	10.00 a.m.
Luxemburg	1.00 a.m.	9.00 a.m.
Mexico	7.00 p.m.	3.00 a.m.
Netherlads India	8.30 a.m.	4.30 p.m.
New Zealand	12.30 p.m.	8.30 p.m.
Norway	2.00 a.m.	10.00 a.m.
Philippines	9.00 a.m.	5.00 p.m.
Poland	2.00 a.m.	10.00 a.m.
Portugal	1.00 a.m.	9.00 a.m.
South Africa	3.00 a.m.	11.00 a.m.
Spain	1.00 a.m.	9.00 a.m.
Straits Settlements	8.20 a.m.	4.20 p.m.
Sweden	2.00 a.m.	10.00 a.m.
Switzerland	2.00 a.m.	10.00 a.m.
Thailand	8.00 a.m.	4.00 p.m.
Turkey	3.00 a.m.	11.00 a.m.
U.S.A., Eastern Zone	8.00 p.m.	4.00 a.m.
U.S.A., Central Zone	7.00 p.m.	3.00 a.m.
U.S.A., Mountain Zone	6.00 p.m.	2.00 a.m.
U.S.A., Pacific Zone	5.00 p.m.	1.00 a.m.
U.S.S.R., Moscow	4.00 a.m.	Noon
U.S.S.R., Vladivostok (Local Time)	11.00 a.m.	7.00 p.m.
U.S.S.R., Vladivostok (Telegraph Time)	4.00 a.m.	Noon

CONVERSION TABLES

For Weights and Measures ~~Between~~ Chinese and Foreign Systems

LINEAL MEASUREMENT

Meter	Shih Chih	English Foot
1	3	3.2808
0.3000	1	1.0936
0.3048	0.9144	1

LINEAL MEASUREMENT

Kilometer	Shih Li	Mile
1	2	0.6214
0.5000	1	0.3107
1.6093	3.2187	1

AREA

Area	Shih Mow	Acre
1	0.1500	0.0247
6.6000	1	0.1647
40.4685	6.0703	1

Kilogram	Pound
1	2.204622
5	11.023112
10	22.046223
15	33.069335
20	44.092447
25	55.115559
30	66.138670
35	77.161782
40	88.184894
45	99.208005
50	110.231117
55	121.254229
60	132.277340
65	143.300452
70	154.323563
75	165.346676
80	176.369787
85	187.392899
90	198.416011
95	209.439122

CAPACITY

Litre and Shih Sheng	English Gallon	American Gallon (liquid measure)	American Gallon (dry measure)
1	0.2200	0.2642	0.2270
4.5460	1	1.2009	1.0321
3.7853	0.8327	1	0.8594
4.4048	0.9689	1.1636	1

WEIGHTS

Kilogram	Shih Chin (New Catty)	Pound
1	2	2.2046
0.5000	1	1.1023
0.4536	0.9072	1

WEIGHTS

Tonne	Picul	English Ton (long ton)	American Ton (short ton)
1	20	0.9842	1.1023
0.0500	1	0.0492	0.0551
1.0160	20.3209	1	1.1200
0.9072	18.1437	0.8929	1

Pound	Kilogram
1	0.453592
5	2.267962
10	4.535924
15	6.803886
20	9.071849
25	11.339811
30	13.607778
35	15.875735
40	18.143697
45	20.411659
50	22.679621
55	24.947584
60	27.215546
65	29.483508
70	31.751470
75	34.019432
80	36.287394
85	38.555356
90	40.823318
95	43.091281

EQUIVALENTS OF DIFFERENT KINDS OF WEIGHTS

Tonne	Quintal	Kilogram	Picul New Scale	Catty New Scale	Pound Old Scale	Catty Old Scale	Picul Old Scale	Long Ton
$\frac{1}{1}$	10.0	1000.0	20.0	2000.0	2204.62	1653.465	16.53465	0.9842059
0.1	$\frac{1}{1}$	100.0	2.0	200.0	220.462	165.3465	1.653465	0.09842059
0.001	0.01	$\frac{1}{1}$	0.02	2.0	2.20462	1.653465	0.01653465	0.0009842059
0.05	0.5	50.0	$\frac{1}{1}$	100.0	110.231	82.6735	0.826735	0.0492103
0.0005	0.005	0.5	0.01	$\frac{1}{1}$	1.10231	0.826735	0.00826735	0.000492103
0.00045359	0.0045359	0.45359	0.00907186	0.907186	$\frac{1}{1}$	0.75	0.0075	0.0004464285
0.00060479	0.0060479	0.60479	0.0120958	1.20958	1.33333	$\frac{1}{1}$	0.01	0.00059524
1.0160475	10.160475	1016.0475	20.321	2032.1	2240.0	1680.0	16.80	$\frac{1}{1}$
0.060479	0.60479	60.479	1.20958	120.958	133.333	100.0	$\frac{1}{1}$	0.059524

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CHAPTER I

GENERAL INFORMATION

AREA

The territory of the Republic of China extends from latitude 53° 52' 30" N. (Sajan Mountains) to 15° 16' N. (Triton Island of the Paracel Group to south of Hainan Island) and from longitude 73° 31' E. (the eastern fringe of the Pamirs) to 135° 2' 30" E. (the confluence of the Amur and Ussuri Rivers).

The Ministry of Interior's 1938 report gives the area of China at 11,562,184 square kilometers distributed as follows:

<i>Province</i>	<i>Square Kilometers</i>
Kiangsu ...	108,926
Chekiang ...	104,037
Anhwei ...	140,687
Kiangsi ...	173,089
Hupei ...	186,363
Hunan ...	205,591
Szechwan ...	370,750
Sikang ...	432,158
Shantung ...	146,073
Shansi ...	156,420
Honan ...	162,390
Hopei ...	140,258
Shensi ...	187,409
Fukien ...	118,738
Kwangtung ...	221,307
Kwangsi ...	218,923
Yunnan ...	403,680
Kweichow ...	179,478
Kansu ...	391,506
Chinghai ...	697,194
Ningsia ...	274,910
Sinkiang ...	1,828,418
Suiyuan ...	347,529
Chahar ...	278,937
Jehol ...	192,430
Liaoning ...	321,823
Kirin ...	283,380
Heilungkiang...	449,623

Special Municipalities

	<i>Square Kilometers</i>
Nanking ...	466
Shanghai ...	893
Peiping ...	707
Tsingtao ...	749
Siking ...	15
Tientsin ...	55
Weihaiwei ...	663

Special Areas

Mongolia ...	1,621,201
Tibet ...	1,215,788
TOTAL ...	11,562,184

(Szechwan's original area was 431,309 square kilometers and Sikang 371,599. In 1939, an area of 60,559 square kilometers in western and southwestern Szechwan was transferred to Sikang, thus reducing Szechwan area to 370,750 square kilometers and increasing Sikang area to 432,158 square kilometers.)

The frontier of China marches with Korea, Siberia, Russian Turkestan, Afghanistan, India, Burma, Indo-China, and the Pacific Ocean.

POPULATION

No census of the entire Chinese population has ever been taken and consequently estimates and reports on the total Chinese population have varied to a considerable degree. According to the Ministry of Interior, the population of China is as follows:

<i>Locality</i>	<i>Hsiang (or Chen)</i>	<i>Pao</i>	<i>Chia</i>	<i>Population</i>
Kiangsu ...	8,066 (2)	68,380 (3)	717,786 (2)	36,469,321 (3)
Chekiang ...	3,132	42,971	448,670	21,776,045
Anhwei ...	2,410	26,078	285,652	22,704,538
Kiangsi ...	2,381	23,853	226,564	13,794,159
Hupei ...	2,381	38,386	369,604	24,658,988
Hunan ...	1,605	19,783	251,322	27,186,730
Szechwan (1) ...	4,511	71,952	740,378	46,403,006
Sikang ...	301	2,666	24,889	1,755,542
Shantung (2)	38,099,741
Shansi (4)	11,601,026
Honan (1) ...	5,602	43,403	447,342	31,805,621
Hopei (2)	28,644,437
Shensi ...	1,029	7,317	145,703	9,799,617
Fukien ...	1,449	15,751	170,488	11,990,441
Kwangtung (1) ...	4,980	59,673	589,711	32,338,795
Kwangsi ...	2,324	23,969	238,795	14,254,609
Yunnan (1) ...	3,043	18,126	181,819	10,853,359
Kweichow ...	2,120	15,412	156,449	10,487,367
Kansu ...	829	7,648	79,995	6,255,467
Chinghai ...	235	937	10,018	1,512,823
Ningsia ...	131	642	8,471	735,763
Sinkiang (5)	4,360,020
Suiyuan	2,083,693
Chahar (3)	2,305,957
Jehol (6)	2,184,723
Liaoning (7)	15,253,694
Kirin (8)	7,354,459
Heilungkiang (8)	3,749,367
Nanking (3)	1,019,148
Shanghai (3)	3,726,757
Peiping (3)	1,550,561
Tsingtao	590,374
Tientsin (3)	1,217,616
Weihaiwei (9)	222,247
Mongolia (10)	880,000
Tibet (10)	750,000
Chungking ...	46	447	4,911	417,379
Overseas Chinese	8,546,374
TOTAL ...	46,576	487,394	5,098,567	459,339,764

Note :—All figures for 1940 except

(1) 1939

(2) 1936

(3) 1935

(4) 1934

(5) 1933

(6) 1931

(7) 1930

(8) 1929

(9) 1937

(10) Estimated

The nation has about 26,000,000 non-Chinese speaking peoples mostly in the northeastern, northwestern, and southwestern provinces. A rapid process of

cultural assimilation as a result of inter-marriage and the development of education and communication has brought about a new Chinese nation in the making.

COASTAL CONFIGURATION

The coast-line of China, 8,630 kilometers, extends from the mouth of the Yalu River in Liaoning to Tungging in southwestern Kwangtung, embracing Liaoning, Hopei, Shantung, Kiangsu, Chekiang, Fukien and Kwangtung. The northern part (north of Hangchow Bay) is alluvial in nature, except the Liaotung and Shantung Peninsulas; the southern is mainly granitic. Along the two northern peninsulas and the southern coast are innumerable islands, harbors and inlets. Shoals fringe the northern coast and navigation depends on channels made by rivers.

A chain of volcanic islands (Kuriles, Japan, Loochoos, Formosa, Philippines) separate the China seas from the Western Pacific. The China seas are:

The Yellow Sea (including the Gulfs of Chihli and Liaoning),

The East China Sea (from the estuary of the Yangtze River to the Formosa Strait),

The South China Sea (south of the Formosa Strait).

The depth of the China seas is more or less uniform. The deepest, around Hainan Island, is 260 meters whereas that of the Gulf of Chihli is 102 meters.

TOPOGRAPHY

Within the boundaries of China are arrayed numerous physiographic features which include almost every known type of topographic expression. Mountains occupy 30 per cent of the national area, plateaus 34 per cent, hilly regions 9 per cent, basins 16 per cent, and alluvial plains 10 per cent.

Chinese mountain systems, according to the old school geographers, may be said to start from the Pamir Plateau. With a general tendency of running from west to east, they may be grouped into five principal chains. These chains are:

The Altai Range which forms the boundary mountains between China and the U. S. S. R.,

The Tienshan Range across the northern part of Sinkiang,

The Kunlun Range which is again divided into several branches spreading out to Chinese provinces.

The Trans-Himalaya Range,

The Himalaya Range.

Geologically, the northern Chinese mountains were mostly formed by faulting and the southern mountains by folding. The Altai Range is a klippe extending from north-west-west to south-east-east. Step faults on the south of the range formed the Sungaria Basin. Folding formed the Tienshan Range which developed into a number of parallel chains including the Bogdo Ola Range and the Kuruk-Tag Range.

The Kunlun Range is also mainly formed by folding, spreading out to the Chinlin in Shensi and Yingshan in Suiyuan. The range is subdivided into the Altin Kagh Range including the Chilienshan (the Richthofen, Tolai, Alexander III, Tahsueh, Humboldt Mountains) which turns to the north and then east as the Alanshan and Khara Narin Ula and Yingshan Mountains; the Takus Daban including the Tchiman-Tag, the Sud Tsaidam, the Colombus Kette Mountains. South of the Tsaidam Basin is the Burch-Budda Mountain which is connected with the Arka-Tag Mountains of the Bayenkala Range in central Chinghai. It extends eastward to the Amnemachen and Sichingshan Ranges which reach out to the Chinlin Range.

Shantung, Liaoning, Heilungkiang, Chahar, Jehol and part of Honan Mountains were productions of faulting. No folding but faulting and warping happened within this district after the Sinian Age. A number of igneous formations were found between Chahar and Suiyuan, around Nanking and on both banks of the Hwai River.

Mountains on the north and south of the Chinlin are geologically younger and were forced into clines by the Chinlin.

The Chinese southern mountains in Tibet, Sikang, Yunnan and the Indo-China Peninsula were formed by folding in the Triassic Age when the Himalayas were formed.

Topographically, China can be divided into 19 natural districts:

Tibetan Plateau.—A mass of folding mountains with an average height of 5,000 meters. To the north is the Kunlun Range, the south the Himalayas and the east the Transverse Mountains in Yunnan and Sikang.

The Sungaria and Tarim Basins.—The Tienshan cuts Sinkiang into two basins with the Sungaria on its north and the Tarim on its south.

The Mongolian Steppe.—It connects the Sinkiang Basins to the west, bordered by the Yingshan on the south, the Hsingan Highland on the east and the Arctic on the north.

The Northeastern Plain.—South of the Hsingan Highland including the Sungari and Liao River Valleys.

The Liaoning and Kirin Hills.—South-east of the Northeastern Plain and east of Harbin and Mukden.

The Shantung Peninsula.—South of the Gulf of Chihli.

The North China Plain.—Includes the area east of the Taihangshan and north of the Hwaiyang Mountains, the lower sections of the Yellow and Hwai Rivers.

The Shansi Plateau.—West of the Taihangshan and east of the Luliangshan, including the Feng River Basin.

The Shensi Basin.—West of the Luliangshan and east of Kansu, including the Hotao (Yellow River bend) and the Wei River Basin.

The Kansu Corridor.—West of the Liupangshan, north of the Chilianshan, south of the Ningsia Desert and connects with the Shensi Basin on the east.

The Lower Yangtze.—The area between the Hwaiyang Mountains and Hangchow Bay.

The Southeastern Hills.—The coastal provinces of Chekiang and Fukien with the Wuyishan as its northern extreme.

The Central Yangtze Basin.—Between the Chinlin and the Nanlin Ranges including Hupeh, Hunan, Kiangsi and southern Anhwei.

The Szechwan Basin.—Bordered on the north by the Tapahshan and Chinlin, the Sikang Mountains on the west, Taliangshan on the southwest and Taloushan on the southeast.

The Kweichow Plateau.—South of the Szechwan Basin, including all of Kweichow Province.

The Southern Coastal Area.—South of the Nanlin Range including all of Kwangtung Province.

The Kwangsi Tableland.—Includes all of Kwangsi Province.

The Southwestern Mountains.—includes Yunnan Province.

The Sikang Mountains.—Includes all of Sikang Province.

The five sacred mountains in China are: Taishan in Shantung, Hwasshan in Shensi, Sungshan in Honan, Hengshan in Shansi and Hengshan in Hunan. The Buddhists have three sacred mountains—Wutaishan in Shansi, Omeishan in Szechwan and Pootoo Island off the Chekiang coast. The Taoists also have a sacred mountain—Lunghushan in Kiangsi.

HYDROGRAPHY

Three large rivers drain the three natural divisions of China—the Yellow River in North China, the Yangtze River in Central China and the West River (Pearl River) in South China.

THE YELLOW RIVER

The Yellow River, known to the Tibetans as "Machu" and Mongols as "Karamuren," derives its name from the heavy yellow silt it carries and is dubbed "China's Sorrow" because of its repeated overflows, floods, and changes in channel. The 4,672-kilometer river drains 531,200 square kilometers of territory, including Chinghai, Kansu, Ningsia, Suiyuan, Shansi, Shensi, Honan, Hopei and Shantung. Its source is from the Khotun-Nor in the 5,000-meter Bayenkala Range above the Kyaring-Nor and Oring-Nor (4,180 meters above sea level). It passes through a number of lakes in its upper course and issues forth in two successive bends, the first around the Amnemachen Mountains and the second around the Sichingshan Range. The river drops to 2,000 meters when it enters Kansu Province.

In Kansu, the Yellow River makes headway with great difficulty, following a circuitous route through the prolongation of the Kunlun Range. It receives in this part of its course the 230-kilometer Huang River from Chinghai and the 231-kilometer Tao River from southern Kansu.

Leaving Kansu, the river flows along the Alanshan Range in Ningsia after being forced by the Ordos Grassland to take a northward bend. Here, the river-bed has an altitude of about 1,000 meters and its water is used to irrigate the fertile Ningsia Valley through numerous canals, some dating back to the second century B.C. Afterwards it is forced to turn eastward by the Yingshan Range in Suiyuan, and then

southward by the Shansi Hills. In this section the river is reinforced by the Wutingho and Yensui, each about 230 kilometers long.

The river then cuts its way through the mountains on the Shensi-Shansi border in torrents and rapids. The Hukow Rapids have a gradual fall of 300 meters and are capable of creating 226,000 horse-power at the lowest estimated flow of 500 cubic meters per second. At Tungkwan, the river is forced to the east by the Chinlin Range. It receives the 692-kilometer Fen River from Shansi and the 864-kilometer Wei River (fed by the 460-milometer Ching River and the 576-kilometer Lo River) from Shensi before dropping from the 400-meter-above-sea-level Tungkwan to the 50-100-meter North China Plain. In western Honan the 404-kilometer Lo River (which is fed by the 346-kilometer Yi River) and the 288-kilometer Sin River are added as the Yellow River rushes eastward to the Yellow Sea.

Below Chengchow, in central Honan, the river changed its course seven times in the present Hopei, Shantung and Kiangsu Provinces, from the 23rd century B.C. to the eve of the present war. The last pre-war change of channel happened in 1854 when the river left its old course in northern Kiangsu and emptied itself into the Gulf of Chihli through northern Shantung. In May, 1938, when a severe engagement was fought between the Chinese and Japanese armies in central Honan, the river dyke at Chungmou gave way under fire, and the greater portion of its water followed the Chialu and Tasha Rivers in eastern Honan and entered the Hwai River, afterwards emptying into the East China Sea in northern Kiangsu.

THE YANGTZE RIVER

The Yangtze River forms the main artery of trade and communications in Central China. The 5,530-kilometer river passes through Chinghai, Sikang, Yunnan, Szechwan, Hunan, Hupeh, Kiangsi, Anhwei, and Kiangsu. It is generally known as the "Takiang" (the Great River) among the Chinese.

The river springs from the Tagh-Ulan Mountain on the Chinghai-Tibet-Sinkiang border, and flows in a southeasterly direction to the south of the Bayenkala mountains, which separates it from the

Yellow River. It is known as the "Ulan-Muran" among the Tibetans. At the town of Sogon-Gomba, the river bed is at an altitude of 5,000 meters. Flowing in a generally southern direction through the Sikang mountains, it is known locally as the "Chingsha" (Gold Sand) River. The 1,325-kilometer Yalung River (fed by the 346-kilometer Anning River) empties into it on the Sikang-Yunnan border. The Yunnan Mountains force the river to turn to the northeast at Chingshakiang and then to the east at Ipin in Szechwan where it receives the 864-kilometer Min River (which is fed by the 231-kilometer Chingyi River and the 691-kilometer Tatu River). It meets the 346-kilometer Tou River at Luhsien and the 1,000-kilometer Chialing River (with tributaries totalling 1,970 kilometers) at Chungking and the 922-kilometer Wu River at Fowling in Szechwan where it is known as the "Chwankiang" (Szechwan River); the 404-kilometer Li River, the 864-kilometer Yuan River (with tributaries totalling 930 kilometers), the 749-kilometer Tze River, the 1,152-kilometer Hsiang River (with tributaries totalling 1,000 kilometers) from Hunan; the 1,210-kilometer Han River (with tributaries totalling 980 kilometers) in Hupeh; and the 864-kilometer Kan River (with tributaries totalling 1,450 kilometers) in Kiangsi. The river is known as the "Changkiang" (Long River) in this section. After Chingkiang in Kiangsu, it is locally known as the "Yangtzekiang," the Yangtze River.

At Batang in Sikang the river-bed is 3,000 meters above sea level. It drops steadily to 350 meters at Ipin. The river is only 90 meters in altitude at Ichang where the Yangtze Gorges end. It is navigable for junks to the border of Szechwan-Sikang-Yunnan and for steamers to Ipin.

THE WEST RIVER

The West River basin is the smallest of the three areas. The 1,958-kilometer river drains 431,600 square kilometers in Yunnan, Kweichow, Kwangsi and Kwangtung. It begins from Hsuanwei in northern Yunnan and flows to the south until it turns northeasterly at Chiehhsiangtu on the Kweichow-Kwangsi border and is known as the "Hung" (Red) River. On leaving the Kweichow border, it takes a southeasterly direction and flows through Kwangsi to Wuchow on the Kwangsi-Kwangtung border. It

is known as the "West River" upon entering Kwangtung Province. At Samshui (Sansui) in central Kwangtung, the river turns south and, throwing off an arm (Canton River) on which stands the port of Canton, enters the South China Sea. It has seven main tributaries, including the 350-kilometer Peipang River on the Kweichow-Kwangsi border; the 520-kilometer Liu River, the 750-kilometer Yu River and the 350-kilometer Kwei River in Kwangsi; the 230-kilometer Ho River, the 350-kilometer North River (which is fed by the 230-kilometer Huang River and the 230-kilometer Sui River) and the 460-kilometer East River in Kwangtung.

The main part of the West River with its tributaries passes through a mountainous region, only the last 150 kilometers falling within the delta area. The river is navigable with steamers up to Wuchow, beyond which junks and steam launches reach Kweichow and interior Kwangsi as well as the upper reaches of the North and East Rivers.

OTHER RIVERS

The Northeastern Group.—The four northeastern provinces have four major rivers. The most important is the Amur River which forms the boundary line between China and the U. S. S. R. along the province of Heilungkiang, Chinese name for the river. It springs from five mountain creeks in the Kentai Mountains in Mongolia, where it is locally known as the Kerulen River. It first follows a generally eastern direction and turns northward after entering the Kulun-Nor on the western Heilungkiang steppe, forming the boundary between the U.S.S.R. and China and turns eastward again after passing Yingmu. Across Lokoho the river takes in the Shilka River. It turns in a generally southern direction at Oupu and receives the 1,152-kilometer Zeya River across Heiho, after which it flows towards the south-east, turning east at Lupei before taking in the 1,728-kilometer Sungari River (with tributaries totalling 3,100 kilometers) at Tungkiang and the 1,325-kilometer Ussuri River (with tributaries totalling 1,850 kilometers) near Fuyuan. It then turns north into Soviet territory before emptying into the Sea of Okhotsk. Of its 4,672-kilometers, 3,744 are within or border on Chinese territory and drains an area of 903,000 square kilometers. The river is navigable for 2,500 kilometers

The Liao River rises from the Peichashan in western Jehol and flows eastward into Liaoning Province. It turns south at Liaoyuan and then flows in a southwesterly direction from Tiehlin before emptying itself into the Gulf of Chihli at Yingkow. It is 1,440 kilometers long and drains 176,000 square kilometers in Jehol and Liaoning.

The 806-kilometer Yalu River and the 460-kilometer Tumen River constitute the natural boundary between China and Korea. Both rivers begin from the Changpaishan Range. The Yalu River flows in a southwesterly direction and empties into the Yellow Sea; the Tumen flows in an easterly direction into the Japan Sea. They drain a total area of 68,000 square kilometers in Liaoning and Kirin.

The Coastal Group.—A number of shorter independent rivers are found in the coastal provinces. Beginning from the north, the first major coastal river is the Luan. The projected Northern Great Port planned by Dr. Sun Yat-sen, Father of the Nation, would be at its mouth. It rises east of Kuyuan in Chahar, skirts the Dolon-Nor and flows in a southeasterly direction for 804 kilometers to the Gulf of Chihli at Luanhsien in Hopei. It drains 49,800 square kilometers in Jehol and Hopei.

The Pei River, on which the northern port of Tientsin stands, drains 182,600 square kilometers in Jehol, Chahar, Shansi, Honan, Shantung and Hopei. Of its five headwaters, the most important is the Hutu River which springs from the Taihangshan Range on the Shansi-Hopei border. The river is 806 kilometers long.

The Hwai River is 1,000 kilometers long and drains 200,000 square kilometers of Honan, Anhwei and Kiangsu territory. It originates from the Tungpaishan in southern Honan and flows eastward into the Hungtseh Lake, from which it follows a new canal, completed on the eve of the war, to the East China Sea.

The Chientang River begins in southern Anhwei and flows eastward to the East China Sea. It is 460 kilometers long and drains 54,800 square kilometers of Anhwei and Chekiang territory. The northern bank of Hangchow Bay, estuary of the river, is the projected site of the Eastern Great Port planned by Dr. Sun.

The Min River springs from the mountains in western Fukien and enters the East China Sea after passing

Foochow. It is 576 kilometers long and drains 73,000 square kilometers of Fukien territory.

The Southwestern Group.—Most southwestern rivers begin from China but empty into the Pacific or the Indian Oceans through foreign countries. The first is the Red River which begins west of Hsiangyun in Yunnan and enters Indo-China at Hokow. It then continues in a southeasterly direction until it flows into Tonkin Bay. The section within China is 1,152 kilometers long and drains 76,400 square kilometers of Yunnan territory.

The Salween River rises on the eastern Tibet mountains and is known locally as the "Chiama Ngu" (its three headwaters are named "Nagchu," "Shagchu" and "Suchu"). It rushes southward from Sikang and Yunnan amidst the Transverse Mountains and through Burma into the Gulf of Martaban. Its Chinese section is 2,016 kilometers long and drains 86,300 square kilometers of Sikang and Yunnan territory.

The Mekong River originates in the southwestern Chinghai Mountains and is known as the "Dzachu." It flows southward in rapid torrents through Sikang and Yunnan to Indo-China and empties into the South China Sea. The Chinese section of the river is 2,000 kilometers long and drains 116,200 square kilometers of Sikang and Yunnan territory.

The Sanpu (Brahmaputra) River starts at the glacier of the Kubi Grangri and flows in an easterly direction through Tibet and western Sikang, turning south before entering India. The Chinese section is 1,843 kilometers long and drains 295,500 square kilometers of Tibetan and Sikang territory.

The Inland River Group.—Inland rivers are found in Sinkiang, Mongolia, Chinghai, Ningsia, Tibet, Chahar, and Suiyuan, the larger ones being in Sinkiang, Ningsia, and Chinghai. The Tarim River leads the list with a length of 2,190 kilometers, draining 398,400 square kilometers in southern Sinkiang. Springing from the southern Sinkiang Mountains, it runs in a foaming torrent till it leaves the mountains a short distance southwest of Yarkand. After reaching the plain below, the current becomes less impetuous. It skirts the north of the Taklamakan Desert, reaches the Kara-Koshum Lake by following an easterly direction, then

empties into the Lop-Nor. The Tarim continually changes its position along with the lakes near its mouth. These variations are due to the low level of the region and to the drifting sands which are heaped up by the east wind.

The Edsingol River is the principal river north of the Chilienshan Range in western Kansu. Being an inland river, it resembles the Tarim River in constantly changing both the course and the volume of its flow. It races from the Chilienshan Mountains in a northerly direction through the Black Gobi to the Sogo-Nor and Gashun-Nor in western Ningsia. This river is known in Chinese history as the Weak River.

The Grand Canal.—The Grand Canal is the oldest and longest canal in existence, extending from Peiping to Hangchow, covering a distance of 2,074 kilometers, draining 159,400 square kilometers in Chekiang, Kiangsu, Shantung and Hopei. It crosses the Yellow and Yangtze Rivers. For many centuries it was the main artery of communication between the north and the south, being the transportation route for the Chinese government's tariff (in the form of rice) and other private commodities. The canal was built in sections and enlarged from time to time. It was commenced in 540 B.C. between the Hwai River and the Yangtze. In A.D. 610 it was extended southwards to Hangchow. During the Yuan Dynasty, by the use of the Wen River in Shantung, it was (by 1320) extended northwards to Peiping.

LAKES

The principal lakes in China are :

Tungting Lake in Hunan. Known as the largest natural reservoir of the Yangtze, it reaches 120 kilometers in length and 90 in width in summer, covering an area of 5,200 square kilometers. It is much smaller in winter.

Poyang Lake in Kiangsi. Approximately 140 kilometers long and 30 kilometers wide in summer, it covers an area of 4,700 square kilometers.

Tai Lake or Great Lake in southern Kiangsu. Its greatest dimensions are approximately 80 kilometers by 65 in summer months.

Hungtseh Lake in northern Kiangsu and Anhwei. It receives the Hwai River and connects with the Grand Canal.

Tien Lake in Yunnan, adjacent to Kunming, is approximately 60 kilometers long and 15 kilometers wide and is at an altitude of 1,890 meters.

Erhhai Lake in western Yunnan. It is smaller than Tien Lake and lies 1,560 meters above sea level.

Koko-Nor in northeastern Chinghai, the largest of the Chinese salt lakes, is fed by 72 rivers. It is 100 kilometers wide and 65 kilometers long, with an area of 4,500 square kilometers and a circumference of 350 kilometers. It is at an altitude of approximately 3,300 meters. The lake gives the province the name Chinghai, meaning the Blue Sea.

Lop-Nor in eastern Sinkiang, on the northern slope of the Altin Kagh Range, was formerly an immense expanse of water but has now shrunk considerably. Because of the drifting sand in that region, the lake moves gradually to the south. It was a salt inland sea in centuries past but has since changed into a fresh water lake, evidently having some underground outlet through the desert. Buried in the sand around it are a number of cities of historical significance.

Minor northeastern lakes include Hulung-Nor and Bor-Nor on the steppe of western Heilungkiang and Hsinkai Lake in eastern Kirin on the border of China and the U.S.S.R.

A number of high altitude inland salt lakes are also found in Mongolia, Sinkiang, Tibet, Chinghai, Ningsia, Suiyuan, Chahar and Jehol.

CLIMATE

There are three major factors which control the climate of China—distribution of land and water, mountain barriers and altitude, and cyclonic storms. The proximity of the Pacific Ocean on the one hand and the Eurasian Continent on the other brought about the unique wind system of Eastern Asia. In winter, high pressure centers over Siberia create what is known as the Siberian anticyclone. In summer, the high-pressure system shifts to the mid-Pacific. This results in monsoonal winds from land to ocean in winter and from ocean to land in summer. Such phenomenon affects the Chinese climate in two ways. First, since wind comes from the arid

interior in winter and the damp, tropical ocean in summer, rainfall all over China has pronounced periodicity, with a maximum in summer and a minimum in winter. Second, since winter winds blow from the cold north and summer winds from the warm south, the seasonal temperature contrast is very pronounced.

Mountain ranges have a twofold effect on climate: they act as barriers to the rain-bearing winds from the south in summer and to the piercing ice-cold winds from the north in winter, and with the increase of altitude the temperature decreases at the approximate rate of 6° C. per 1,000 meters while precipitation increases until a certain level is reached.

In temperate zones the extra-tropical cyclonic storms are oftentimes the sole arbiter of weather changes, and this is true to a certain extent in China. During the period of 1921-1930, there were 841 cyclones in China, averaging 84.1 a year. The average seasonal distribution of the cyclones in the ten years showed 7.3 cyclones in January, 8.1 in February, 9.3 in March, 10.5 in April, 9.9 in May, 7.8 in June, 5.1 in July, 2.5 in August, 3.4 in September, 6.2 in October, 7.4 in November and 6.6 in December. Since summer cyclones carry more moisture, few of them yield an abundance of rainfall. The cyclones travel over China generally from west to east, but turn toward the northeast on reaching the coast. In winter and spring cyclones are most numerous in the Yangtze Valley whereas in July and August the number of storms in North China far exceeds that in Central or South China.

Typhoons also play a prominent part in the climate control of China, especially from July to October. As a rule there are 20 to 30 typhoons in a year and among these only four or five will strike the Chinese coast.

China has a continental climate—extreme heat in summer and extreme cold in winter. The difference in temperature between north and south is much reduced in summer but is greatly accentuated in winter. The difference in temperature between Manchouli in western Heilungkiang and Hongkong in January is 42° C. calculated at 2° C. for every 100 miles in the 2,100-mile crow distance. In July, the difference is less than 10° C.

Taking the period with mean temperatures below 10° C. as winter and above 22° C. as summer, the distribution of four

seasons in China can be seen from the following table :

Distribution of Four Seasons in China
(in unit of months)

<i>Regions.</i>	<i>Winter</i>	<i>Spring</i>	<i>Autumn</i>	<i>Summer</i>
South China ...	0-0	4.0-7.0 of Spring and Autumn		5.0-8.0
Yunnan Plateau ...	2.0-3.0	9.0-10.0	" "	0-0
Upper Yangtze Valley ...	2.5-3.0	2.5-3.0	2.5-3.0	3.5-5.0
Central Yangtze ...	3.5	2.0-2.5	2.0-2.5	4.0-4.5
Lower Yangtze ...	3.5-4.5	2.0-2.5	2.0	3.5-4.0
North China ...	5.0-6.0	2.0-3.0	2.0	2.0-3.0
Northwest China ...	5.5-6.5	2.0-3.0	1.5-2.5	1.0-3.0
Sinkiang ...	5.0-6.0	2.0-3.0	2.0	2.0
Liaoning-Kirin ...	6.0-7.0	2.0-2.5	2.0	1.0-2.5
Heilungkiang ...	8.0	4.0 of Spring and Autumn		0-0

Sea-level atmosphere pressure in China is highest in December or January and lowest in June or July. The mean annual range amounts to 12-18 mm. in South China and the Yangtze Estuary but increases to 19-21 mm. in the Central Yangtze Valley and North China.

Winds in China are predominantly offshore in winter and onshore in summer, forming winter and summer monsoons. The months of March, April, and May in spring, and September in autumn are transitional months. Cyclones passing over Mongolia, the Northeastern Provinces, North China, or the Yangtze Valley may bring about winds from every point of the compass. The shifting of wind directions is limited to the lower strata of the atmosphere. Pilot balloon soundings in Peiping and Nanking have shown that above 3,000 meters westerly winds predominate.

Wind velocity is greatest during the months of March and April. The summer months are usually the calmest, except the lower Yangtze Valley, where wind velocity in July is as great as that of March or April. Generally speaking, wind velocity in China decreases from the coast inland, with places along the Fukien coast lying in the stormiest zone due to the tube effect of the winds in that territory.

As a result of monsoon winds, summer in China is usually damp, and autumn and winter dry. The mean annual relative humidity of the Northeastern Provinces and North China varies between 60-65 per cent, and that of Central and South China between 70-80 per cent. Szechwan has a high humidity whereas Yunnan has a low humidity. In Sinkiang and Tibet, humidity is very low.

Regional variation of cloudiness in China follows closely the variation of humidity. The mean annual cloudiness decreases from seven in South China to four in North China. Sinkiang and the Northeastern Provinces have a mean cloudiness of 3.6. Mount Omei in Szechwan has 8.1. In seasonal distribution, cloudiness varies greatly in different regions. In the Northeastern Provinces, North China, and West China, winter is the season of blue sky, whereas summer brings more clouds. In South China and the Yangtze Valley, winter is the most gloomy period.

Both radiation fogs and advection fogs are found in China, the latter occurring near the coast and the former on the mainland. Fogs are mostly met in winter on the mainland and spring fogs are most dominant in the Yangtze Estuary. In Mongolia and Sinkiang fog is rare but the sky is covered with haze most of the time.

Frost occurs practically everywhere on the Chinese mainland. The regular yearly visitation of frost does not begin until about latitude 28° N. along the coast. Inland the occurrence of frost depends greatly upon the altitude and topography.

If the growing season is assumed to be limited to the period between the mean date of the last frost in spring and the mean date of the first frost in autumn, then the season varies in length from twelve months in South China, eight to nine months in the Yangtze Valley, seven in the Yellow River Basin, six in Hopei and Shansi, five in the Northeastern Provinces, to four in Tibet and Chinghai

As the seasonal fluctuation of pressure systems in Eastern Asia and the Western Pacific determines the monsoonal wind system of China, so does the wind system determine the Chinese rainfall regimes. Onshore winds, pregnant with moisture, bring the wet season, whereas offshore winds usher in the dry period. The main characteristic of rainfall regimes over all of China consists of a maximum in summer and a minimum in winter. There are many irregularities due to cyclones, typhoons, and thunderstorms. Precipitation in China is either orographic or cyclonic, which latter may be due to continental depressions, typhoons, or heat thunderstorms. During the last 60 years of observation in Shanghai, the wettest summers were always the ones with the least southeasterly winds. Southerly monsoons are the moisture-bearing winds in China but the moisture is only released by some mechanism—dynamical, thermal, or orographical—when the monsoons are lifted up by a polar front, intense solar radiation, or a mountain slope.

Maximum rainfall comes mostly in May in northern Kwangtung, in June in the Yangtze Valley and in July in North China.

Precipitation due to continental depressions makes up more than 80 per cent of the total in spring and more than 50 per cent in summer. Typhoon rains decrease in importance from south to north and from coast to inland. The proportion of thunderstorm rains is smaller than that of typhoon rains in summer but greater in spring. In eastern China, orographical rain plays only a secondary role. In western China orographical rain assumes a place of paramount importance. Very often the same air mass which brings heat and drought to Eastern China turns into drenching rain after climbing 2,000 or 3,000 meters upward.

Rainfall is plentiful south of the Yangtze Valley (exceeding 1,000 mm.) and decreases rapidly towards the north and northwest. Besides, North China has an extreme variability in rainfall (more than 30 per cent) from year to year.

Snowfall is not heavy in China as the winter months are dry. It falls rarely in the South but may occur from December to March in the Yangtze Valley, November to April in North China and October to April in the Northeastern Provinces.

MEAN MONTHLY AND MEAN ANNUAL TEMPERATURE IN CENTIGRADE

Place	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year	Period
Kiangsu														
Nanking	2.2	3.7	8.6	14.4	20.3	24.4	27.7	27.5	22.8	17.2	10.6	4.6	15.3	1905-36
Tungshan	...	1.6	7.7	13.7	20.2	25.7	28.2	26.8	22.0	15.7	8.2	2.0	14.2	1926-36
Nantung	1.6	3.0	7.4	13.0	18.7	22.8	26.9	26.9	22.4	17.3	11.2	5.0	14.7	1917-36
Shanghai	3.2	4.1	8.0	13.5	18.7	23.1	27.1	27.0	22.8	17.4	11.3	5.7	15.2	1873-36
Soochow	2.3	4.3	8.9	14.0	19.9	24.5	29.4	28.5	23.3	17.8	11.9	6.3	15.9	1930-36
Wooosung	...	3.9	8.4	13.6	19.1	23.3	27.7	27.7	23.4	18.0	12.4	7.1	15.7	1924-36
Wushih	1.9	3.6	8.1	13.5	19.6	24.3	28.9	28.1	22.8	17.1	11.4	5.7	15.4	1931-36
Steep Island	5.9	5.7	8.7	12.9	17.6	22.0	26.1	27.4	24.5	20.3	15.2	9.7	16.3	1924-36
Shawtishan	...	4.1	4.2	7.4	12.1	17.4	21.9	26.5	23.7	19.2	13.6	7.7	15.4	1924-36
Tungtai	...	2.4	6.7	12.9	18.9	22.7	27.4	27.1	22.3	16.1	9.8	3.8	14.2	1924-36
Chinkiang	0.8	3.8	8.8	14.8	20.8	24.9	28.4	28.2	23.6	17.6	11.5	5.1	15.8	1924-36
Changshu	1.7	3.8	8.2	13.2	19.1	23.6	27.7	27.6	22.9	17.8	11.9	6.0	15.3	1930-36
Gutzlaff	4.4	4.6	7.8	12.4	17.2	21.6	25.8	27.0	23.8	19.4	14.0	8.1	15.5	1924-36
North Saddle	...	5.4	8.3	12.6	17.2	21.6	25.8	26.9	23.6	19.3	14.4	9.1	15.8	1924-36
Chekiang														
Yungkia	7.4	8.2	11.6	16.6	21.3	25.1	29.0	29.1	25.6	20.7	15.9	11.0	18.5	1924-36
Peiyushan	...	6.1	9.0	13.2	18.3	22.4	26.6	27.2	24.3	19.9	15.3	10.1	16.6	1932-36
Hangchow	...	4.0	5.3	9.7	15.3	20.5	24.7	28.0	23.8	17.7	12.1	7.0	16.4	1919-36
Anhui														
Hwaining	...	3.5	4.9	10.1	15.5	22.3	26.2	30.5	24.6	18.9	12.4	5.3	17.0	1932-36
Wuhu	...	2.3	4.3	9.3	15.1	21.2	25.0	28.4	23.8	17.8	11.5	5.2	16.0	1924-36
Kiangsi														
Kiukiang	...	3.3	5.5	10.5	16.3	22.3	26.0	29.7	24.7	18.5	12.4	6.4	17.1	1924-36
Hupeh														
Hankow	...	3.9	5.4	10.5	16.4	22.1	25.9	28.8	24.1	18.5	12.2	6.0	16.9	1906-36
Ichang	...	4.5	6.6	12.0	17.5	22.7	26.2	28.9	24.4	18.9	13.3	7.0	17.6	1924-36
Hunan														
Changsha	...	4.4	6.1	11.3	17.2	23.0	26.3	30.1	25.4	19.3	13.6	7.1	17.8	1924-36
Hengyang	...	3.6	6.9	11.3	16.6	23.1	26.2	29.6	25.6	19.0	13.3	7.5	17.7	1932-36
Changteh	...	2.8	6.2	10.1	15.4	22.0	25.8	29.5	24.4	17.7	11.9	6.3	16.8	1924-36
Yoyang	...	3.3	5.4	10.6	16.3	21.8	25.4	28.7	23.8	17.9	12.2	6.0	16.7	1924-36
Szechwan														
Chungking	...	7.8	9.7	14.2	18.9	22.7	25.1	28.8	24.1	18.9	14.3	10.2	18.7	1924-36
Chengtu	...	4.2	8.8	12.1	17.0	21.6	24.8	26.7	22.4	17.2	12.0	7.6	16.7	1932-36

MEAN MONTHLY AND MEAN ANNUAL TEMPERATURE IN CENTIGRADE—Continued.

Place	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year	Period
Yunnan														
Kunming	9.2	10.9	14.2	17.5	19.3	19.4	20.0	19.9	28.1	15.8	12.7	9.9	15.6	1929-36
Tengchung	8.6	9.7	13.3	16.0	18.2	19.8	20.4	20.3	29.7	17.1	12.7	9.5	15.4	1924-36
Kwangsi														
Tsangwu	12.3	13.3	16.4	21.1	26.0	27.4	28.6	28.6	27.4	23.1	19.2	15.4	21.6	1924-36
Lungchow	14.3	15.3	18.7	23.2	27.8	28.7	29.0	28.9	27.8	23.8	20.6	17.1	22.9	1924-36
Kwangtung														
Canton	13.1	13.9	17.1	21.6	26.2	27.7	28.6	28.8	27.6	23.8	20.0	16.1	22.0	1924-36
Lamocks	13.3	12.5	14.5	18.7	23.4	25.7	26.8	26.9	26.5	23.3	19.9	16.2	20.6	1924-36
Samshui	12.1	13.1	16.4	21.2	25.9	27.6	28.7	28.9	27.4	23.0	19.0	15.1	21.5	1924-36
Breaker Point	14.0	13.5	15.5	19.3	24.1	26.1	26.9	26.9	26.7	23.7	20.2	16.6	21.1	1924-36
Chilang Point	14.4	14.0	16.0	20.0	24.7	26.8	27.7	27.6	27.2	24.3	20.7	17.1	21.7	1924-36
Swatow	13.6	13.6	15.7	19.8	24.6	27.0	28.2	28.4	27.1	23.3	19.5	16.2	21.4	1924-36
Lamko	17.6	17.8	19.5	23.6	27.6	28.9	28.8	28.5	27.4	25.2	22.7	19.8	23.9	1924-36
Kiungshan	17.8	18.6	21.0	25.1	28.4	28.4	28.9	28.6	27.7	25.1	22.8	19.8	24.4	1924-36
Pakhoi	14.0	15.1	18.2	23.1	27.8	28.7	29.0	28.8	28.0	24.5	21.3	17.3	23.0	1924-36
Fukien														
Amoy	13.8	13.2	15.4	19.1	24.1	26.9	29.0	29.1	28.0	24.6	20.5	16.8	21.7	1924-36
Tungyung	9.0	8.6	10.8	14.9	19.8	23.8	26.9	27.2	25.3	21.2	17.2	12.7	18.1	1924-36
Pagoda Anchorage	10.6	10.3	13.1	17.7	22.6	25.8	28.6	28.7	26.1	22.0	17.9	13.8	19.8	1924-36
Chapel Island	12.0	11.3	13.2	17.1	22.2	25.5	27.3	27.5	26.6	22.8	19.1	15.2	20.0	1924-36
Ockseu	11.1	10.3	12.3	16.3	21.2	24.8	27.1	27.4	16.2	22.5	18.7	14.6	19.4	1924-36
Turnabout	10.4	9.6	11.5	15.7	20.6	24.5	27.1	27.2	15.7	21.9	18.1	13.9	18.9	1924-36
Middle Dog	9.7	9.0	11.2	15.5	20.3	24.0	26.6	26.9	25.5	21.5	17.6	13.4	18.4	1924-36
Hopei														
Peiping	-4.6	-1.5	5.0	13.6	20.1	24.4	26.1	24.9	20.1	12.7	3.9	-2.6	11.8	1841-36
Great Northern Port	-4.2	-2.6	3.2	10.8	17.3	22.4	26.6	25.7	22.1	14.4	6.1	-0.2	11.8	1931-35
Tangku	-4.4	-2.0	4.0	12.2	19.0	23.8	26.6	25.9	21.5	14.2	5.2	-2.1	12.0	1924-36
Tsingyuan	-5.7	-1.4	5.6	13.9	20.4	25.8	26.9	25.2	20.2	13.2	4.2	-2.9	12.1	1913-36
Chinwangtao	-6.3	-4.2	1.4	9.3	16.0	20.7	24.4	24.4	19.9	12.7	4.0	-3.5	9.9	1924-35
Shantung														
Tsinan	-1.7	1.5	8.3	15.8	22.6	27.0	28.2	26.4	22.2	16.2	7.6	1.0	14.6	1919-36
Chefoo	-2.0	-0.9	4.0	11.4	17.8	22.4	25.5	25.5	21.6	15.4	8.1	1.2	12.5	1924-36
Howki	-2.4	-1.8	2.2	8.6	14.7	19.3	22.7	23.8	21.3	15.4	7.9	0.8	11.0	1924-36
Tsingtao	-1.4	-0.0	4.2	10.0	15.5	19.8	23.6	25.1	21.3	15.8	8.4	1.3	12.0	1900-36
SE Promontory	-1.3	-0.8	2.9	8.2	13.6	18.2	21.9	24.3	21.3	15.7	9.0	2.0	11.3	1924-36

MEAN MONTHLY AND MEAN ANNUAL PRECIPITATION IN MM.

Place	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year	Period
Kiangsu														
Nanking.	37.9	46.3	61.9	96.9	78.6	156.4	182.6	111.3	83.1	45.2	41.1	36.3	977.6	1905-36
Shanghai	...	49.0	83.3	92.8	92.8	177.1	146.8	143.2	127.8	70.7	50.8	36.6	1129.9	1873-36
Wush	...	37.0	45.9	55.8	98.7	131.6	72.9	99.2	120.2	45.8	46.2	50.7	905.4	1932-36
Changshu	...	35.4	52.2	45.0	94.5	145.7	165.9	110.1	120.2	43.3	49.7	46.6	993.5	1930-36
Chinkiang	...	40.2	44.0	68.7	90.1	165.4	182.6	121.9	95.3	45.6	45.2	31.6	1018.0	1886-36
Woosung	...	38.4	48.6	68.0	83.7	166.5	142.1	123.3	127.5	48.6	52.3	37.8	1015.7	1904-36
Shaweshan	...	39.7	49.4	27.7	76.5	138.9	101.8	102.2	113.7	58.7	47.9	33.9	916.2	1886-36
Soochow	...	47.4	54.4	55.9	69.6	94.7	124.4	121.9	89.6	30.2	40.2	42.3	914.6	1921-36
Tungtai	...	32.2	31.1	44.8	56.3	68.0	157.6	180.0	93.0	44.4	29.6	49.7	910.0	1924-36
Nantung	...	28.2	37.4	50.3	66.7	64.1	174.3	131.3	123.9	25.3	39.8	38.8	930.1	1917-36
Steep Island	...	44.7	54.5	84.2	92.1	145.3	66.2	54.3	83.1	59.8	46.0	32.5	860.8	1886-36
Gutzlaff	...	46.2	57.3	84.8	82.1	140.3	87.7	66.4	109.5	58.8	50.7	39.4	914.0	1886-36
North Saddle	...	35.2	45.2	70.7	83.1	135.0	73.1	63.8	85.9	55.8	49.0	37.9	822.6	1886-36
Tungshan	...	12.3	17.9	20.8	60.0	112.7	127.6	135.0	81.7	25.8	19.3	32.3	693.4	1929-36
Chekiang														
Hangchow	...	72.0	91.6	117.3	133.3	137.1	226.8	134.9	162.2	80.8	71.6	58.9	1480.5	1904-36
Yungkia	...	49.1	89.2	129.3	146.5	187.4	262.2	203.9	254.1	89.7	55.9	43.9	1721.6	1883-36
Peiyushan	...	49.7	82.7	108.3	113.9	125.2	156.1	71.8	103.7	59.5	55.4	55.2	1150.9	1904-36
Anhui														
Hwaiing	...	26.6	73.6	146.9	179.1	126.8	184.9	100.4	79.5	57.0	61.4	69.2	1178.8	1934-36
Wuhu	...	50.6	56.0	95.8	125.2	124.8	200.5	154.2	121.6	70.0	57.4	37.5	1175.4	1880-36
Kiangsi														
Kiukiang	...	60.5	82.2	139.5	176.3	171.7	220.1	142.0	88.6	86.3	64.0	45.6	1398.8	1885-36
Hupei														
Hankow	...	45.0	49.7	92.6	149.9	171.4	231.0	181.3	106.3	74.6	48.6	30.9	1257.3	1880-36
Ichang	...	21.6	30.5	52.0	101.2	125.6	157.0	224.4	179.4	73.7	34.5	17.4	1121.3	1882-36
Hunan														
Changsha	...	46.9	97.2	136.2	154.7	208.5	229.7	116.4	73.6	74.7	72.8	47.8	1371.2	1909-36
Hengyang	...	60.8	130.7	95.9	193.8	214.8	262.2	67.2	108.1	67.3	108.6	67.4	1455.9	1933-36
Changteh	...	33.2	105.2	76.9	218.2	169.2	339.3	163.5	79.5	111.5	97.7	47.9	1502.8	1933-36
Yoyang	...	37.0	75.0	126.5	161.1	192.3	194.6	119.1	82.6	83.8	98.5	43.9	1421.4	1909-36
Szechwan														
Chungking	...	18.0	19.9	37.7	98.2	143.9	183.9	137.9	124.3	110.1	49.2	20.9	1089.2	1891-36
Chengtu	...	14.8	18.7	35.8	58.3	99.6	161.5	273.4	438.0	54.2	19.5	11.9	1352.7	1934-36

HISTORY

The Chinese are the bearers of the most important living culture that can be traced back in an unbroken line to the Stone Age. It is true that the continuity is lacking in many details, but what is known is enough to establish a few general principles. The most ancient home of Chinese culture was the middle Yellow River valley. It was only gradually that the Yangtze and other regions came within the horizon of ancient China.

Physically, the neolithic people of North China were of the same stock as the northern Chinese of to-day and they overlapped into the northeast and the northwest. They also found a kindred physical type in South China. Besides, studies on the "Peking Man" reveal that the neolithic men in North China were descended from a paleolithic stock native to the same region.

Culturally, these proto-Chinese lived mainly on hunting, fishing and a primitive agriculture. The gradual accumulation of social experience brought about significant social changes. The finding of the "painted pottery" and "black pottery" as well as bronze cultures near Anyang in northern Honan proves the possibility and probability of continued Chinese culture from the Stone Age to the Bronze Age, although data is still lacking as to the step-by-step evolution of the proto-Chinese.

The transition from Stone to Bronze Age happened around 2000 B.C. A proto-feudalism came into existence with the appearance of tribes, nobility, ecclesiastics and farming commoners. From the perhaps thousands of tribes, two came to the fore by 1700 B.C., known as the Hsia and Shang. The Hsia, in modern Shansi, was at first the stronger and thus Hsia or Hua Hsia became the collective name for the Chinese race. After one century, Shang became stronger and its chief, Cheng Tang, defeated Hsia and was acknowledged overlord. He established the first loosely organized semi-feudal empire with Honan as his base.

In 1300 B.C., Pan Keng, king of Shang, established his capital at Yin, the modern Anyang in Honan. His empire was more feudal in character and he was known as the Son of Heaven besides being the overlord of the tribes.

About 1100 B.C., a new power, Chou, rose in the west. It overwhelmed the Shang and took over Chinese overlordship in 1027 B.C. The empire was distributed as fiefs among the Chou ruler's brothers, nephews, sons, cousins, as well as a few loyal ministers. It was the first and only full-fledged feudal empire in Chinese history.

Around 900 B.C., the feudal empire of Chou began to show symptoms of decay. The princes had become stronger and by constant warfare, a number of weaker ones were eliminated and the remaining stronger states began to defy the authority of the Son of Heaven. The western barbarians, with the covert instigation if not actual assistance of the princes, defeated the Chou overlord and overran the royal domain in modern Shensi near Sian. Ping Wang (770-720 B.C.) moved his capital to the eastern capital, Loyi, the modern Loyang, and the dynasty was afterwards known as the Tung Chou (East Chou). It brought about the Chun-chiu (Spring and Autumn) era, with the states occupying the center of the arena while the overlord became nothing but a figurehead.

Four states stood out among the last centuries of feudal turmoil. They were the Chi in the east, Tsin in the north, Chin in the west, and Chu in the south. The entire era was marked by the constant struggle among the four, and later Wu in present-day Kiangsu, for the hegemonic title which was conferred from time to time by the Chou overlord. That was, incidentally, his only function of state in that era.

The states were ruled by hereditary nobles and the common people had very little, if any, to do with politics. In Chin and Chu, feudalism had disappeared. Tsin was still feudal in character. It was the first of the four to collapse and broke into three smaller states which ended the Chun-chiu era and ushered in the era of the Contending States.

The Chun-chiu years saw the flower of ancient Chinese philosophy. Philosophers, mostly from the privileged class, diverged into three schools. First, there were those who led in the overthrow of the old order, as represented by Teng Hsi. Second, there were the pessimists who believed the situation was hopeless and decided to save themselves by fleeing the world, as represented by Lao Tze. The third school was represented by Confucius, who worshipped the age

that had passed or was passing and devoted himself to preaching a return to the former days.

The political upheaval resulting from the latter part of the Chun-chiu era brought about a very significant revolution in Chinese political history. The state was no longer feudal in character but centralized body-politic. Nobility had no control over politics and the princes were absolute rulers. All men were nominally equal before the law. Soldierly was no longer a nobility monopoly but a universal service with conscription coming to be the recognized way of enlistment. Hand in hand with war and bloodshed, philosophy attained its golden age in this era. Though abstract thought was not neglected, all philosophers were interested in the pressing problems presented by the current political and social anarchy and offered plans for the unification or pacification of the world. The passive school, as represented by Taoists, Dialecticians, and Yang Chu, was more or less influenced by the Chun-chiu pessimists and advocated personal development and individual salvation. The active school, represented by Confucians, Mencians and Legalists, imitated Confucius in offering cures for the ills of the world.

The era of Contending States ended in 221 B.C., when Chin Shih Huang Ti defeated the remaining six states and established a centralized Chinese Empire. It opened the age of united empire in Chinese history. In fact, unity has been the normal condition and disunity a temporary interlude since Chin. Imperial unity was consolidated by the Chin and Han within the three centuries between 221 B.C. and A.D. 88 and the Chinese political structure and territorial limits took their outline in this stage. The Chinese kinship system, a development of the feudal clan system, also took its permanent form in this stage to dominate the Chinese social system. With the establishment of Confucianism as the state dogma, which teachings on loyalty and filial piety underwrote the safety of the ruling institution and the *status quo* and was thus encouraged by the ruling class, the Chinese social structure was destined to last throughout the years after the Chin and Han Dynasties. The various schools of thought also tended to disappear. Confucianism was made the state cult and Confucius was converted into a somewhat mystical personage. Taoism became a religious practice of charms

and the transmutation of metals. The Ying Yang, another Chun-chiu school of thought, degenerated into a study of five elements, signs of fortune and misfortune, lucky days and unlucky days, and from it grew the thought of Wind and Water.

After the reign of Han Ho Ti (A.D. 89-105) there was an important period of transition. After three centuries of consolidation and unification, the empire began to decline. Barbarians, with lower cultural development but stronger military power, overran the provinces on the northern frontier. Repeated internal insurrections and barbarian invasions shook the empire to its foundations, finally dissolving it into more than half a dozen fragments. After the short period of the Three Kingdoms (A.D. 208-263) the Tsin Dynasty managed again to unify the empire.

A period of spiritual decadence prevailed as Confucianism came to be an ossified system of pedantic erudition and dry ceremonial, with no inspiration for the people or even for the intellectuals. The latter indulged in a decadent form of Taoism, known as Pure Discourse, which served only as an excuse for nihilistic behaviour, denying all the ritual and moral code of Confucianism, drinking to excess, ridiculing and insulting the people of the world in every possible manner. Such a philosophy of reckless decadence could not be understood nor afforded by the common people who found their comfort in a much baser brand of Taoism which in the second century A.D., crystallized into a Taoist church. It was in such age of despair and unrest that Buddhism was introduced, probably at the beginning of the first century A.D. At first obscure and negligible, by the third century Buddhism had become a great dissolving influence for the traditional civilization, just as the barbarians had become a serious menace to the political and racial integrity of the empire.

Beginning from A.D. 300, eight princes of the House of Tsin indulged in a melee of civil war, struggling for power against each other. Taking advantage of the confusion, the Hsiung-nu (Huns) who had occupied the northern steppe and present Shansi for sometime, declared independence in A.D. 304. Other barbarians followed eagerly in their wake and within the next century more than a dozen semi-Chinese, semi-barbarian states were set up in North

China. The House of Tsin crossed the Yangtze and established a new capital at Nanking, henceforth known as the Eastern Tsin Dynasty (317-420)

By the year 376 a barbarian state known as Chin had consolidated the entire north and was considering seriously the invasion of the south and the domination of all China. A historical battle was fought at the Fei River in northern Anhwei in A.D. 383 and the barbarians were defeated. Had they won and crossed the Yangtze at a time when Chinese vitality was at a low ebb, China would have been re-barbarized and Chinese civilization destroyed. This battle laid the foundation for two centuries of stalemate between the northern and southern dynasties during which more contacts were found between the Chinese and barbarians, with the result that Chinese and barbarous elements coalesced into a new Chinese race, and Buddhism gave a new impetus to Chinese culture. Classical China had come to an end, and a Greater China, a China with Tartar blood and Buddhist philosophy, had come into being. The barbarians were not totally different races from the Chinese but, according to Dr. Owen Lattimore, groups from the stock of the same proto-Chinese which took different trends and speed in evolution in their respective environments, resulting in different degrees of "civilization." The extension of the Chinese "horizon," especially after the Han Dynasty, meant only the "reunion" of the Chinese stock.

The six centuries (A.D. 383-960) after the Battle of the Fei River saw the rise and fall of the Northern and Southern Dynasties, the Sui and Tang Dynasties, and the Five Dynasties. At its greatest extent, the House of Li, the ruling family of Tang Dynasty, which rose from present-day Shansi, ruled an area larger than modern China, including the entire Amur territory, Korea, Russian Turkestan and the Indo-China Peninsula. The Tang Emperor had the additional title of Heavenly Khan over the far-flung territories of the Chinese Empire.

Buddhism reached the height of its development during the Northern and Southern Dynasties and in Sui and Tang times. Buddhist missionaries from India and Central Asia and Chinese pilgrims to the west were common sights. Buddhist sutras were translated and Chinese treatises developed. A number of sects were imported or developed

at this time, which more or less determined the form of Buddhism in China for the next millennium. The religion, with additions from Chinese tradition, formed the chief spiritual refuge for the people.

The grandeur of the Sui and Tang Dynasties lasted barely two centuries. The empire declined from the middle of the eighth century and broke to pieces at the beginning of the tenth, when it was succeeded by the so-called Five Dynasties. Buddhism also declined and the traditional Chinese culture in the form of Confucianism began to reassert itself under the championship of Han Yu (A.D. 768-824) who advocated the doing away with all foreign influences and restoring the pure Chinese culture of Confucian days.

China of the Sung Dynasty (A.D. 960-1279) was much smaller than that of Tang. It had no natural boundary because it was militarily not strong enough to reclaim the territories occupied by the Khitans in the north and the Tibetans or Hsia in the west. Struggles between Confucianism and non-Confucianism, especially the Legalists school, and struggles between realism (led by Chu Hsi, 1130-1200) and idealism (led by Lu Chin-yuan, 1139-1192) in the Confucianists school occupied the full attention of its scholars and statesmen, with the result that the none-too-strong Sung Dynasty became even weaker. Gradually the Khitans overran all North China, and for a century and a half after A.D. 1127, the Sung held to the South and was known as the Southern Sung Dynasty. Eventually, the Mongols defeated the Khitans in the north and later overran all of China in A.D. 1279. For the first time all China was overwhelmed by a barbarous state and instead of being the empire, was only part of the Mongol Empire, although the emperor and his headquarters were within Chinese territory.

The Yuan Dynasty was a period of political catastrophe, recovery, and cultural stagnation. Besides extending as far as western Europe and having China only as a part, a huge and important part nevertheless, of the empire, the Yuan rulers were also indifferent to Chinese culture. They not only had no inclination to be absorbed into the Chinese system, but also preferred to see the Chinese adopt Mongol manners and thought. The failure of this effort was

the main reason why the Mongols were overthrown after barely 89 years in China.

China of the Ming Dynasty, which followed the Yuan, recovered a number of strategical frontiers which had been lost by the Sung. Institutionally and culturally, however, the Ming period was a miserable failure. The "eight-legged essay" examination system further bound the thought of Chinese scholars and limited their outlook, resulting in the lack of outstanding statesmen in its history. The only bright page of the Ming history was the colonization of the southwestern provinces of Yunnan, Kwangsi, and Kweichow and the expansion of Chinese to the South Seas. Seaborne trade between China and the South Seas began as early as Tang, if not earlier, and throughout Sung and Yuan the Chinese of the south never lost contact with the southern islands. After the naval expedition by the Ming eunuch Cheng Ho, beginning in A.D. 1406, the coastal Chinese began to migrate in large numbers to join their pioneer kinsmen already settled abroad. This marked a new orientation in Chinese development. Always a continental people, many Chinese after the 15th century became trained seafarers.

The end of Ming saw another barbarian group occupying China and establishing their own empire. The Manchu (Ching) Empire was different from the Mongol Empire in that the Manchus readily submitted themselves to Chinese culture and were soon absorbed by the Chinese. They also persuaded all the racial groups within the nation to adopt Chinese ways of life and a number of outlying districts were put directly under the Imperial Government control.

China in the middle of the 19th century began to feel an increasing impact from the sea, which created a series of new problems other than those arising from the mainland. The first such disastrous contact was the Opium War of 1839-42 between China and Britain when the Manchu Government tried to stop drug traffic on the coast. The resultant Treaty of Nanking was the first of the unequal treaties. It provided for a heavy indemnity, the opening of five ports, the system of extraterritoriality, the cession of Hongkong and "equitable" tariff. Two years later, in 1844, the United States

and France followed British footsteps in securing similar treaties with China. Before long all the western powers were granted similar privileges, thus establishing the "most-favored nation" system. The French treaty further obtained the right of Christian propaganda in the country and the privilege was quickly shared by the other nations.

The desire for still more privileges prompted the powers to encroach further upon China, already weakened and definitely behind the world in armed strength. A minor broil over a small vessel off Canton was excuse for a joint Anglo-French invasion which involved the entire coast from Canton to Tientsin and ultimately brought the European forces into Peking in 1860 when the victorious armies burned the famous Yuan Ming Yuan (Old Summer Palace). The war produced a second series of treaties that opened more ports, opened the Yangtze to international trade, further elaborated the system of consular jurisdiction that had been initiated by the Treaty of Nanking, and drew up a new tariff. Besides, England got a strip of Kowloon opposite Hongkong. Meanwhile, Russia silently secured the Amur region and the seacoast east of the Ussuri River.

The weakness of the Manchu Government further encouraged internal unrest. The most serious of the rebellions was the Taiping Rebellion which, starting from Kwangsi in 1850, secured within three years most of the southern provinces. The Taiping Rebels established themselves in Nanking and one of their expeditionary forces once penetrated as far north as the vicinity of Tientsin. The movement borrowed a number of ideas and slogans from Christianity which gave the struggle a touch of cultural antagonism between native and imported cultures, and was seen by Tseng Kuo-fan (scholar of the Confucian school and later made marquis by the Manchu emperor as a reward for his fight against the Taiping Rebels) as such. Tseng led his Hunan volunteers in the fight of upholding Confucianism against "foreign ideology." He was later reinforced by Li Hung-chang (also made marquis) and his Anhwei volunteers. The entire nation rallied to Tseng's clever propaganda. The Imperial Forces under Tseng's command re-entered Nanking in 1864, and the Manchus were given a new lease of life for another 50 years.

The French took Indo-China in 1882-85 and Great Britain occupied Burma in 1886. A number of concessions and leased territories were extorted from China in the last few years of the 19th century.

Politically still feudal and culturally a part of the Chinese complex, Japan had within one generation transformed itself into an efficient political machine of the European type and joined with alacrity in the international scramble for special privileges in China. The piratical characteristic of her people, which in the middle of the Ming Dynasty had ravaged many a coastal city in Kiangsu and Chekiang, flared up again when the Meiji Restoration gave her modern military strength. She invaded Formosa in 1874, annexed the Loochoos in 1879 and fought China in 1894, trying to oust Chinese influence from Korea. The first Sino-Japanese War resulted in a Japanese victory and the peace treaty concluded in 1895 gave Japan Formosa, a huge indemnity, and a foothold on the continent by forcing China to recognize Korea as an independent country under Japanese tutelage. Korea was formally annexed by Japan in 1910.

After the Chinese defeat in the first Sino-Japanese War, the western powers began to consider seriously the partition of the old and weak empire. The American declaration of "Open Door" policy in 1899 stopped the scramble for spheres of influence and upheld Chinese territorial integrity. In the previous year, a reform was undertaken by the Manchu Emperor Kwangshu who for about 100 days in 1898 issued a number of edicts which envisaged far-reaching changes. But the force of reaction, under the leadership of the Empress Dowager, forced the emperor into virtual retirement and set up a regime of reaction. Finally, in 1900, the reactionary administration sought to defeat the western powers by the employment of the fanatical Boxers, resulting in the Boxer Rebellion. Chinese defeat in this war gave the powers a heavy indemnity, a Legation Quarter in Peking guarded by foreign troops, and an open road between the then capital and the sea with foreign garrisons.

This defeat also sealed the fate of the Manchu Dynasty. The Empress Dowager and her government began to realize their unpopularity and the necessity of somehow meeting the people's revolutionary demands. A half-hearted

attempt was made for constitutional reform, but it was too late. The revolutionists, led by Dr. Sun Yat-sen and others, finally brought about the October 10 (1911) revolution, forcing the last Manchu emperor to abdicate. The Chinese Republic was formally established on New Year's Day, 1912. Despite two abortive attempts to restore monarchism, one by Yuan Shih-kai trying to establish a new dynasty (1915) and the other a plot to restore the Manchus (1917), the Republic was firmly established.

The story of the Republic is the story of the Kuomintang and the story of the Kuomintang before 1925 is that of Dr. Sun Yat-sen, its founder. Born in 1866 in Hsingshan district in Kwangtung, he received his education in the Hawaii College in Honolulu and Queen's College, Hongkong. He was trained to be a doctor but decided to dedicate himself to the task of establishing a republic after China's defeat in 1885 in her war with France. He organized the *Hsin Chung Hui* (Regenerate China Society) in 1892 in Macao. Later he founded three more *Hsin Chung Hui*, one in Honolulu in 1894, one in Hongkong in 1895 and another in the United States in the same year.

Dr. Sun launched his first revolutionary uprising in Canton on September 9, 1895. It failed. Three more unsuccessful attempts were made in 1900, 1902 and 1904, respectively. The failures convinced Dr. Sun of the necessity of organization. He began to contact Chinese secret societies both in China and abroad. In the spring of 1905 Dr. Sun went to Europe and enunciated his *San Min Chu I*, or Three People's Principles, and *Wu Chuan Hsien Fa*, or Quintuple-Power Constitution, in Brussels. The same summer, he lectured on the principles and the necessity of organization for revolutionary purposes when he met revolutionary delegates from various Chinese provinces in Japan. As a result, the *Chung Kuo Tung Men Hui*, or the Revolutionary League of China, was inaugurated in Tokyo in August, 1905, and Dr. Sun elected its Tsung-li, director-general. It had branches in Chinese provinces and overseas Chinese colonies.

Between the organization in 1905 and the successful Wuhan Uprising on October 10, 1911, the *Tung Men Hui* instigated no less than 13 abortive revolts and eight assassination attempts.

The most daring one occurred on March 29, 1911, when the revolutionaries stormed the Viceroy's yamen in Canton. Scores of them died in action and more were caught and later executed. The bodies of 72 of them were later given a mass burial at the Yellow Flower Cliff outside Canton.

When the revolutionaries struck at Wuchang in Hupeh on October 10, their comrades and sympathizers in other provinces rose in response. Uprisings sprang up in Hunan, Shensi, Shansi, Yunnan, Kiangsu, Chekiang, Anhwei, Kweichow, Kwangsi, Kwangtung, Liaoning (Fengtien), Kirin, Heilungkiang, Fukien, Shantung, Honan, Szechwan, Shanghai, and Nanking. Dr. Sun was at Denver, Colorado, when he heard of the revolt in Wuchang. He hurried back to China. Arriving in Nanking, he was elected provisional president of the Republic of China, and assumed office on January 1, 1912. On February 12, the Manchu Emperor abdicated. On February 23, Dr. Sun resigned in favor of Yuan Shih-kai. A provisional constitution of 56 articles was promulgated on March 11, 1912.

The *Tung Men Hui*, previously a secret body, became an open organization upon the establishment of the Republic. Sung Chiao-jen, advocating the broadening of the league's basis to include other political parties, formed the Kuomintang by amalgamating the United Democratic Party, the People's Common Progress Party, the Democratic Progress Party and the People's Public Party. Dr. Sun was elected the president of the new party. He never assumed office, but asked Sung to act on his behalf.

The Kuomintang won the majority of the seats in the Parliament. To counteract its influence, Yuan Shih-kai subsidized the Republican Party, the Democratic Party and the United Party to form a Progressive Party. Following the assassination of Sung Chiao-jen in Shanghai on March 20, 1913 by Yuan's agents, Dr. Sun planned a punitive expedition against Yuan from Kwangtung. This, however, failed. Meanwhile, Yuan abused his powers, defying resolutions of Parliament. Dr. Sun ordered a widespread revolt in Shanghai, Kiangsi, Nanking, Kwangtung, Fukien, Hunan, Anhwei, and Szechwan, but the revolts failed. The Kuomintang was outlawed by Yuan and many members left the country.

After this failure, Dr. Sun decided to overhaul the Kuomintang. On March 6, 1914, in Tokyo, he was elected Tsung-li of the newly organized *Chung Hua Ke Min Tang*, or the Chinese Revolutionary Party. The headquarters were moved from Tokyo to Shanghai after the death of Yuan Shih-kai.

When Yuan Shih-kai plotted to put himself on the throne of a new dynasty in 1915, Dr. Sun directed widespread uprisings in Dairen, Shanghai, Hunan, Chekiang, Yunnan, Kweichow, Kwangsi, Kwangtung, Shantung, and Shensi. The uprisings did not cease until after the death of Yuan Shih-kai, when Li Yuan-hung became president. The latter declared himself in favor of the restoration of the provisional constitution and the reassembly of Parliament, which had been dissolved by Yuan early in 1915.

Resuming the premiership after defeating Chang Hsun's restoration plot in 1917, Tuan Chi-jui used illegitimate methods to bring pressure on Parliament to participate in World War I. Dr. Sun took part of the Chinese navy southward to Canton and established a military government. This government underwent a re-organization in 1918, and Dr. Sun resigned from the presidency.

In 1919, Dr. Sun changed the name of the party from *Chung Hua Ke Min Tang* to *Chung Kuo Kuo Min Tang*. He was again elected president of the Canton Provisional Government in 1921, but was forced to retire by Chen Chiung-ming in 1922. In 1924, Dr. Sun again re-organized the Kuomintang and proceeded to form party nuclei in all public or semi-public bodies and societies. The party established the National Kwangtung University and the Whampoa Military Academy. This conformed with its deliberate policy of instilling its principles in the masses, the students, and in the armed forces in preparation for the subsequent Anti-Northern Expedition.

At the beginning of 1925, there was a change in the Peking Government, which made Dr. Sun hope that the unification of the country was within reach. Ill, he went to North China for the twofold purpose of recovering his health and of calling a national convention with the northern leaders. His health, however, declined rapidly, and he died in Peking on March 12, 1925.

Following Dr. Sun's death, the responsibility of leading the revolution

fell on Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek. Under his leadership the Nationalist forces, officered by cadets of the Whampao Military Academy, set out from Canton on June 9, 1926, to oust the northern warlords and to unify the country. In two years the Anti-Northern Expedition was successfully completed. The National Government formed in Canton in 1925 was moved to Nanking in 1928.

Civil wars among warlords fill the early pages of the history of the Chinese Republic. A cultural revolution began at the universities in Peking during the years of the First Great War and spread all over China. By 1900, western-styled schools of all degrees had been established, and western ideas, especially of science and democracy, were silently but irresistibly penetrating into the country. The new movement advocated the use of the vernacular instead of the literary style of writing, a scientific re-examination of traditional civilization in all its aspects, wholesale and systematic introduction of western philosophy, literature, and culture, and an attempt at a synthesis of things Chinese and western and a new cultural creation.

The National Government, established in Nanking in 1928, is the strongest and most progressive government in the history of the Republic. The government is under the direction of the Kuomintang, and the nation is undergoing a tutelage period preparing for real democracy.

In the first generation of the Republic, the western powers were more or less confined to their established rights part of which, due to the rising demands of the Chinese people, had been retroceded. The only nation which not only clung to her gains but also tried to grab more was Japan. Yuan Shih-kai's monarchical attempt in 1915 was backed up by Japanese loans and armaments. The Twenty-One Demands in 1915 had the intention of making China a Japanese protectorate. The Japanese occupation of Tsingtao during the First Great War gave the Island Empire a foothold in China besides the strip of territory along the South Manchuria Railway which she seized from the Russians after the Russo-Japanese War in 1904-5. Japanese ambitions were unmasked in the notorious Tanaka Memorial published in 1927. The Japanese invasion of Shantung to try to stop the advance of the Nationalist Anti-Northern Expeditionary Force in

1928 was the first concrete step towards the realization of the Japanese continental policy.

Unification of entire China under the National Government and the rapid progress made under the Kuomintang regime prompted Japan to take direct aggressive measures. The "Mukden Incident" on the night of September 18, 1931, marked the first step in Japan's armed aggression when she began her forceful occupation of the three Chinese northeastern provinces. The Shanghai War in early 1932 strengthened Japan's position in Shanghai. The "War of the Great Wall" in early 1933 gave Japan control over the eastern section of the Great Wall, added Jehol to the puppet organization in the northeast, invaded northern Chahar and carved out a demilitarized zone in eastern Hopei under Japanese dominance. By a show of force, Japan forced the Chinese national army and Kuomintang headquarters to evacuate Peiping (Peking), Tientsin, Hopei, and Chahar, while another puppet regime was established by the Japanese in the eastern Hopei demilitarized zone. After 1935, Japan resorted to large scale smuggling to undermine China's financial strength, and drug trafficking to poison the Chinese people. A number of "economic co-operations" were demanded in North China, aiming at alienating this part of the country from the rest of China. A futile attempt was made in the winter of 1936 by puppet Mongol and Japanese units to invade Suiyuan. The Sian Incident in December, 1936, showed Chinese solidarity. Japan realized that it was impossible to deal with China separately and any blow, if effective at all, would have to be delivered to the nation as a whole. The first half of 1937 saw her preparing for a full-dress invasion. And the incident of the Marco Polo Bridge near Peiping the night of July 7, 1937, raised the curtain for the present Sino-Japanese War.

The incident, by which Japan tried to alienate North China from the Republic, was meant to be a "local issue" by the Japanese. But the Chinese believed they had reached the limit of endurance in face of Japanese aggression. On July 17, at Kuling, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek stated as the minimum conditions of negotiation that—

"1. Any kind of settlement must not infringe upon the territorial integrity and sovereign rights of our nation;

2. The status of the Hopei and Chahar Political Council is fixed by the National Government and we should not allow any illegal alterations; 3. We will not agree to the removal by outside pressure of local officials appointed by the National Government such as the chairman of the Hopei and Chahar Political Council; 4. We will not allow any restriction being placed upon the position now held by the 29th Army."

The entire nation rallied to the Generalissimo's stand. On August 4, General Pai Chung-hsi visited Nanking, pledging the support of Kwangsi Province. On September 22, the Chinese Communist Party dissolved the "Soviet Republic" and the Red Army was re-organized as part of the Chinese national army.

Seeing no peaceful settlement, General Sung Cheh-yuan, chairman of the Hopei and Chahar Political Council, ordered on July 25 the 29th Army to fight in self-defense. On the 29th, Peiping fell.

In Shanghai, the Hungjao Military Airfield Incident the night of August 9, 1937, when two Japanese marines were shot while trying to force their way onto the Chinese airfield, brought the war to a national scale. The Battle of Shanghai broke out on August 13. The Chinese fought for three months and finally evacuated Shanghai on November 11, 1937. On November 20, the National Government in a statement declared its removal to Chungking to continue the war of resistance. On December 13, Nanking fell. The Chinese military headquarters, however, was removed to the Wuhan cities, from where it was later removed to Chungking after the evacuation of the Wuhan cities on October 25, 1938.

On August 30, 1937, the Chinese Government sent to the secretary-general for communication to the member states of the League of Nations and the non-member states represented on the Far Eastern Advisory Committee a statement concerning events after the Marco Polo Bridge Incident. On September 12, China addressed another note to the League invoking Articles X, XI, and XVII of the League Covenant. The League Assembly on October 6, 1937, voted that the assembly "expresses its moral support for China and recommends that members of the League should refrain from taking any action which might have the effect of weakening China's power of resistance and thus of

increasing her difficulties in the present conflict and should also consider how far they can individually extend aid to China." The same resolution was passed by the 100th Session of the League Council on February 2, 1938. The 101st Session of the League Council held on May 10, also "earnestly urges members of the League to do their utmost to give effect to the recommendations contained in previous resolutions of the assembly and council in this matter, and take into serious and sympathetic consideration requests they may receive from the Chinese Government in conformity with the said resolutions; and express its sympathy with China in her heroic struggle for the maintenance of her independence and territorial integrity, threatened by the Japanese invasion, and in the suffering which is thereby inflicted on her people."

On September 11, 1938, China formally requested the League to apply Article XVII of the League Covenant. On the 30, the Council adopted a report which reads in part:

"1. The report of the Far Eastern Advisory Committee, adopted by the Assembly on October 6, 1937, states 'that the military operations carried on by Japan against China by land, sea, and air . . . can be justified neither on the basis of existing legal instruments nor on that of the right of self-defense, and that (they are) in contravention of Japan's obligations under the Nine-Power Treaty of February 6, 1922, and under the Pact of Paris of August 7, 1928.'

"2. The Japanese Government, having been invited, under Article XVII, paragraph 1 of the Covenant, to comply with the obligations devolving upon the members of the League for the settlement of their disputes, has declined this invitation.

"3. Although, in conformity with established practice, it is, in principle, for the members of the League to appreciate in each particular case whether the conditions required for the application of Article XVI and Article XVII, paragraph 3, are fulfilled, in the special case now before the Council, the military operations in which Japan is engaged in China have already been found by the Assembly to be illicit, as mentioned above, and the Assembly's finding retain its full force.

"4. In view of Japan's refusal of the invitation extended to the provisions of Article XVI are, under Article XVII, paragraph 3, applicable in present, conditions and the members of the League are entitled not only to act as before on the basis of the said finding, but also to adopt individually the measures provided for in Article XVI.

"5. As regards co-ordinated action in carrying out such measures, it is evident, from the experience of the past, that all elements of co-operation which are necessary, are not yet assured."

Meanwhile, an invitation was extended by the Belgian Government at the request of Great Britain and the United States to signatories and adherents to the Nine-Power Treaty of 1922 for a conference at Brussels according to Article VII of that treaty. All except Japan accepted the invitation. The conference in Brussels began on November 3, 1937.

After mature deliberation, the conference adopted a resolution on

November 24, 1937, stating that the conference is convinced that force itself can provide no just and lasting solution for disputes between nations, and a satisfactory settlement can only be achieved by consultation with powers concerned.

The Japanese war of aggression was not only directed against China but also other powers in the Far East. Japan had repeatedly attacked interests of the third powers in the course of the war, and her aggressive intentions were further exposed when her military forces entered Indo-China on September 22, 1940, after the collapse of France. She was then preparing for war against both the United States and Great Britain. Then came the treacherous attacks on Pearl Harbor and other American and British possessions in the Pacific on December 8, 1941. The next day, China declared war on Japan as well as Germany and Italy. The Sino-Japanese War became a phase of the world-wide conflict between democracy and aggression.

CHRONOLOGY OF CHINESE DYNASTIES.

LEGENDARY

Huang Ti (Yellow Emperor)	2698 B.C.
Shao Hao	... 2598 B.C.
Chuan Hsu	... 2514 B.C.
Ti Ku	... 2436 B.C.
Ti Chih	... 2366 B.C.
Yao	... 2357 B.C.
Shun	... 2255 B.C.

HISTORICAL

Hsia	... 2205—1766 B.C.
Shang	... 1766—1122 B.C.
Chou	... 1122—258 B.C.
Chin	... 256—207 B.C.
Han	... 206 B.C.—A.D. 221

The Three Kingdoms :

Wei	... A.D. 220—265
Shu Han	... A.D. 221—263
Wu	... A.D. 222—280
Tsin	... A.D. 265—313

Chinese South Dynasties :

Eastern Tsin	... A.D. 317—419
Sung	... A.D. 420—477
Chi	... A.D. 479—499
Liang	... A.D. 499—557
Chen	... A.D. 557—589

Barbarian North :

Han	... A.D. 308—319
Yen	... A.D. 336—370
Chao	... A.D. 316—328
Later Chao	... A.D. 329—351
Chin	... A.D. 351—394
North Wei	... A.D. 386—535

Barbarian North :

North Chi	... A.D. 550—581
North Chou	... A.D. 557—589
Sui	... A.D. 589—618
Tang	... A.D. 618—907
Later Liang	... A.D. 907—921
Later Tang	... A.D. 923—934
Later Chin	... A.D. 936—944
Later Han	... A.D. 947—948
Later Chou	... A.D. 951—960
Sung (North Branch)	A.D. 960—1126
Sung (South Branch)	A.D. 1127—1278

TARTAR .

Liao	... A.D. 907—1119
Western Liao (Kerait)	A.D. 1125—1166
Chin (Golden)	... A.D. 1115—1234
Yuan (Mongol)	... A.D. 1206—1368

CHINESE AGAIN

Ming	... A.D. 1368—1644
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MANCHU

Ching	... A.D. 1644—1911
Shun-chih	... A.D. 1644—1662
Kang-shi	... A.D. 1662—1723
Yung-cheng	... A.D. 1723—1736
Chien-lung	... A.D. 1736—1796
Chia-ching	... A.D. 1796—1821
Tao-kuang	... A.D. 1821—1850
Hsien-feng	... A.D. 1850—1861
Tung-chi	... A.D. 1861—1875
Kuang-hsu	... A.D. 1875—1908
Hsuan-tung	... A.D. 1908—1911
	(abdicated)

RELIGION

The Chinese as a people are not very religious. Except a small minority, the greater portion of the people are both eclectic and tolerant in religion. An average Chinese may worship his ancestors, participate in Buddhist rituals, join in Taoist adventures, and follow Christian customs without feeling the slightest incongruity or inconsistency. Therefore, it is nearly impossible to give the figures of *bona fide* believers in any religion in China in spite of claims of the different beliefs.

There has been no established national church in China throughout her history. An emperor might from time to time shower special favors on a particular religion in which he believed, but the effect was usually short-lived. Under the Republic, it has been definitely provided that every person shall have the undisputed freedom of religious belief.

ANCESTOR WORSHIP

The spiritual life of the ancient Chinese, like that of all other ancient peoples, started with the personification into god and worship of all the important phenomena of nature. There were the Gods of Rain, Wind, and Rivers; Lord of Thunder; God or Goddess of Marriage; Spirit of Wayside; God of Kitchen; Divine Archer; and a host of other divinities. Above them was a supreme god, Shang Ti or Tien, who was the Lord of All Gods and Men. Of equal standing with the Shang Ti was Hou Tu, the Lord of Earth. The system was well established before the era of Chou.

The divine and the human were not very clearly differentiated. All of the dead became gods and were duly worshipped by their descendants. Many take this ancestor-worship as a religion. But there has been no code or ethical dogma in ancestor-worshipping. Even the ritual is limited to sacrifices paid periodically during festivals and death and birth anniversaries. Enthusiastic worshippers may pay sacrifices at the beginning and the middle of the month.

The practice started, in the opinion of many sociologists, as an extension of filial piety, but gradually degenerated into a superstitious routine, believing that such worship would bring goodwill and protection from the dead. The fact that remote ancestors are usually left in oblivion, together with the lack of codes and dogmas, prove that ancestor-worship is not a religion but an ethical practice with religious devotion.

CONFUCIANISM

Confucianism is a western name, although Chinese speak of *Kung Chiao*, Confucian Teaching, or *Ju Chiao*, the Teaching of the Learned. Strictly speaking, Confucianism is not a religion as it has no ritual that characterizes a religion. Nobody can derive any spiritual comfort typical of other religious beliefs from the Teaching of the Learned. It is a philosophy, a system of ethics that directs human mode of living. The seasonal sacrifices are customs "borrowed" from ancestor-worship since the erection of temples and the holding of ceremonies in honor of ancestors antedated Confucius.

Confucianism, however, has been and still is, intentionally or unintentionally, the main guiding spirit of the Chinese way of life. The teachings and philosophy of Confucius and his followers are embodied in the Four Books and Five Classics. The Four Books are the Analects, sayings of Confucius collected by his disciples; the Great Learning, a treatise written by his disciple Tsengtze; the Doctrine of the Mean, by his grandson Tzessu; and the works of Mencius, disciple of Tzessu. The Five Classics are the *Yi Ching* or Book of Changes used in divination, the *Shu Ching* or Book of History, the *Shih Ching* or the Collection of Poetry, the *Li Chi* or Book of Rites, and the *Chun Chiu* or Spring and Autumn.

Confucianism has no priesthood. The presence of the head of the state and principal civil officials at sacrifices does not mean they are priests but the heads of a family in ancestor-worship. Respects paid to Confucius are not those paid to a prophet or living god but to a great sage whose teachings promote peace and good order in society and encourage moral living by the individual. His philosophy allows research into other philosophies and religions and practical studies.

On May 31, 1934, the Standing Committee of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang designated August 27, the birthday of Confucius, as a national holiday, and later the day was also designated as Teacher's Day commemorating the greatest teacher in Chinese history.

TAOISM

Taoism began as a philosophy but later developed into a religion. As a philosophy it is traced to Laotze, born

in 604 B.C. near the modern city of Kweiteh in eastern Honan. He was a profound thinker, a political philosopher of keen insight and a great ethical teacher. His doctrine of the right way and "Do Nothing" ruled out the idea of forming a religion and establishing himself as a saint, for this would be contrary to his teachings. Yet, seven centuries after his death, his teachings degenerated into a ritual embodying a polytheistic hodge-podge of witchcraft and demonology. And his treatise, the *Tao Te Ching*, the Book of Way and Virtue, became the bible of Taoists.

The first temple honoring him was erected in A.D. 166. Chang Liang, who played a leading part in the establishment of the Han Dynasty, was declared to have been one of the first patriarchs of the Taoists and his descendant in the eighth generation (A.D. 34), Chang Tao-ling, was proclaimed the first Taoist pope. Since then his descendants have been the head of the sect. In A.D. 423, the emperor conferred upon the pope of that day and his successors the title of Tien Shih or Heavenly Preceptor. In 1016 the pope was granted a large domain in Kiangsi. The White Deer Grotto on the Dragon-Tiger Mountain, where Chang Tao-ling discovered the elixir of immortality and ascended to Heaven after living to be 123 years of age, is still the papal seat.

Priests of Taoism are known as Tao Shih. They have their own temples, rituals and bible. They are allowed to marry. Some are anchorites who through meditation and ascetic practices seek immortality. Others make a living by acting as priests for believers.

BUDDHISM

Buddhism in China, after it was introduced from India during the first century, bears little resemblance to the religion in its purer forms. A number of native legends, traditions, rites and deities have been added to Buddhism to give it a strong Chinese flavor.

Buddhism first came to China in A.D. 61, when Han Ming Ti despatched 18 ambassadors to the Siyu to seek for instruction in Buddhism. After six years, they returned from Khoten with two Buddhist monks, a number of Hinayana Sutras and Buddha statues. The emperor built the first Buddhist temple, the Pai-ma-ssu (White Horse Temple, as the texts were brought to China on a white horse) in Loyang for them. The

temple still stands to-day after repeated repairs. Seventy years later, two other monks brought Mahayana Buddhism to China.

The work of translating the sutras into Chinese was in its prime in the seven hundred years after the Han Dynasty. The most famous ones include Kumara-jiva of the fourth century and Hsuan-chuang and I-ching of the tenth century. By the end of the fifth century, the carving of Buddha statues on rocks became very popular and prevalent in China and influenced to a considerable extent the future development of Chinese fine arts.

Altogether ten schools of Buddhism were established between the 4th and 7th centuries in China, each with its own way of training disciples in its principal sutras. They include the Tze-en or Dharmalakṣaṇa School, the Prajnaparamita or Three Sastras School, the Tien-tai School, the Hsien-shou School, the Pure Land School, the Zen School, the Mantra School, the Satyasiddhi School, the Chu-she School and the Nan-shan School. Of them, the most influential was the Zen School. It is estimated that at present there are in China more than 267,000 Buddhist temples and 738,000 monks and nuns, while the number of laymen and laywomen who have taken the five vows is five times more, and the number of believers is hard to estimate.

In recent years, Chinese Buddhism has assumed an unprecedented activity. The Chinese Buddhist Association is working towards a unification of administrative practices and the national authorities have been paying attention to Buddhist affairs. Chinese Buddhist scholars are moving in two directions—to Tibet and Ceylon. The Tibetan school's philosophy and systematic training and the Ceylon school's strict discipline are sought by Chinese Buddhists to reinforce their movement. In 1936, the Commission on Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs of the Executive Yuan decided to grant scholarships to monks from various provinces to study in Tibet and for Tibetan lamas to study in other parts of China. In 1937 the Tibetan scholar Hsi-jao-chia-tso was invited by the National Government to deliver a series of lectures at five national universities.

Besides sending Buddhist students to Thailand and Ceylon for studying the Southern School, a Chinese Buddhist

Goodwill Mission to the South Seas was organized in November, 1939, with Abbot Tai Hsu as its leader. After visiting centers of Buddhist interest and worship in Burma, Malaya, Ceylon, and India, and exchanging views with local Buddhists for the promotion of a closer fellowship among Buddhists of China and these lands, the party returned to Chungking in May, 1940.

During the war years, Chinese Buddhists have been remarkably active in war relief. Free schools, clinics, and orphanages have been organized in many temples. During the Battle of Shanghai and the bombings of Chungking, monks were most active in serving as stretcher-bearers and in first aid and relief services.

LAMAISM

Lamaism is a form of Buddhism believed chiefly by peoples of Tibet and Mongolia and is a mixture of Buddhism and Shamanistic practices. Up to the seventh century the people of Tibet had a primitive religion consisting chiefly of witchcraft, a form of Shamanism. About the year A.D. 630 Buddhism was introduced by a man named Shrong-tsan-sgam-po. Its mixture with the native Shamanism resulted in the present-day Lamaism. The lamas have 108 sacred scriptures and numerous tracts of lesser importance. These include historical and philosophical treatises and biographies of Buddhist sages. All books are printed with wooden blocks on loose leaves, some in golden letters and silk bound.

Lamaism was formerly dominated by the Dukpas or Red Caps. In the Ming Dynasty, a saint born in Sining named Tsongkapa was dissatisfied with the magic and pagan practices carried out by the lamas, so he effected a reform by forbidding necromancy and marriage among lamas. A schism followed. The result was the formation of the Celupas or Yellow Caps, now predominating. Tsongkapa died in 1478 and his body is preserved in the monastery of Gandin not far from Lhasa.

Lamaism has a paradise, but it is not this place that the Tibetan and Mongol believers so earnestly seek. Their chief hope is to be re-incarnated in a higher state. This re-incarnation is the most important feature of Lamaism. After the death of a Hutukhtu, the Living Buddha, his spirit is said to re-appear in the person of some boy born at that time and thus comes forth re-embodied.

A number of candidates are chosen and are confronted with an array of articles among which one or two were used by the deceased. The one who picks them out without difficulty is his reincarnation and becomes the new Living Buddha. It is by this means that the trinity of the lama saints—the Dalai and Panchan Lamas and the Djebsung Damba Hutukhtu—are chosen. When the Djebsung Damba Hutukhtu was re-incarnated in Mongolia and later went to live at Urga, the influence of the Celupas began to spread to all Mongolia. The last Djebsung damba, who revolted against Chinese rule at the beginning of the Republic, died in 1924, and no re-incarnation took place.

The Dalai Lama is the spiritual head of Tibet and next to him is the Panchan Lama, although Panchan is usually considered worthy of more veneration than the other, as his office is less contaminated by worldly cares. Directly under the Dalai Lama are three great monasteries in and around Lhasa—the Djeppung Monastery with four abbots and 7,700 lamas, the Sera Monastery with three abbots and 5,500 lamas, and the Gandin Monastery with two abbots and 3,300 lamas. Among the three, the Djeppung is the largest but the Gandin is most influential as the chief abbot residing there is next to the Dalai and Panchan Lamas in rank. The present Dalai Lama, the 14th in the line, was found in Chinghai and enthroned in February, 1940. The Panchan Lama died in November, 1937, and no re-incarnation has yet been found.

In Mongolia, Lamaism began to flourish at the time of Kublai Khan who for political reasons took this religion under his protection. Likewise, the Ming and Ching Dynasties utilized it to achieve similar ends and exalted its system of worship.

Of the Living Buddhas, the most important are the Changchia Hutukhtu with his headquarters in Peiping, Galdan Siretu Hutukhtu, Minchur Hutukhtu at Kumbun but attached to the Metropolitan, the Chilung Hutukhtu in Tibet, the Namuka Hutukhtu at Sining, the Achia Hutukhtu at Sining, Lakuo Hutukhtu at Suiyuan, and Tsahantarkhan Hutukhtu at Jehol. Under the Hutukhtus are Jassak Da Lamas and Jassak Lamas (Grand Princes and Princes of the Church), Kan Pu (Abbots), Da Lamas (Priors), Fu Da Lamas (Vice-Priors), Hsien-san Lamas (Higher Grade

Clergy), Tu Mu Chi (Stewards of Lamaseries), Ke Sze Kuei (Preceptors who conduct the choral services), Ke Lung (Priests of the First Order), Pan Ti (Priests of the Second Order) and Sha Pi (Novices).

MOHAMMEDANISM

Followers of Mohammedanism, Islam, in China claim to number 48,000,000, with 30,000,000 in the Northwest. The number is greatly exaggerated considering the fact that the entire Northwest—Sinkiang, Kansu, Chinghai, Ningsia, Suiyuan and Shensi—has only a total population of 22,000,000. A more reasonable estimate is from 10 to 15 million persons with 5,000,000 in the Northwest.

According to Islamic history, Mohammedanism made its advent in China in A.D. 651, when the governments of the Muslim nations began to pay tribute to the Tang Emperor. Saad Abu Wakkas first came to China from the south by sea and founded the Huai Sheng Mosque in Canton, the first one in China. Later Muslims came to China by the overland route through Persia and Afghanistan into Sinkiang and other parts of China. In A.D. 755, the Caliph Abu Grafar sent an expedition of 4,000 Arabian soldiers to China at the request of the Chinese government to help subdue a rebellion and rendered meritorious service in that connection. The men then settled down in China and many present Chinese Muslims are the descendants of these Muslim soldiers and their Chinese wives.

Islam culture has been enjoying close attention in China during the war. In February, 1939, upon the petition of the Chinese Islamic National Salvation Federation, the National Government decided to make the study of Islamic culture a regular feature in the curricula of Chinese universities. Mohammed Ma Kin, Abudorahaman Na Chung and Badroden Hai Wei-liang served as the first lecturers. A number of Chinese students are also studying in Azhar University of Egypt with scholarships granted by King Farouk and subsidies given by the Chinese Ministry of Education.

The federation despatched a Chinese Muslim Near East Goodwill Mission in January, 1938, to visit the Near and Middle East nations. They reached Mecca in time for the Haji in February during which they met 1,000,000 representatives from the Muslim world.

They also visited Egypt, Lebanon, Syria, Iraq, Iran, Turkey, and India, furthering Chinese relations with all the Muslim nations and peoples. Another mission, the Chinese Islamic South Asia Good-Will Mission, went to the South Seas in December, 1939, and visited Malaya, India, Arabia, and Iran. Chinese Muslims, individually and collectively, have contributed much to the war, both in active service as well as in relief work. The most outstanding of the Muslim leaders are General Pai Tsung-hsi, Deputy Chief of Staff, and Generals Ma Hung-kwei and Ma Pu-fang, governors of Ningsia and Chinghai, respectively.

(For Catholicism and Protestantism, see Chapter on Foreign Missions in China)

LANGUAGE

In China are found not only many dialects but also many languages of diverse structures spoken by peoples of different cultures and customs. They are mainly divided into three families—the Indo-Chinese, Austro-Asiatic, and Altai Families, according to Professor Li Fang-kwei.

The Indo-Chinese (Tibeto-Chinese or Sinitic) family languages are spoken in the Chinese provinces (including the Northeastern provinces and Sinkiang) and Tibet, as well as in Indo-China, Burma, and Thailand. One of the characteristics of this family is monosyllabism. The Tibeto-Burman branch of this family still possesses some of the prefixes but the Chinese and Tai group have lost all active use of the prefixes.

The tendency of developing a system of tones is another characteristic of this family. It is not known whether tones existed in the primitive Indo-Chinese speech, and it is doubtful whether tones existed in classical Tibetan, but modern Chinese, Tibetan, Burmese, and the Tai languages all have tones. These tones are further influenced by the nature of the initial consonant and are divided into two main categories: those with an original voiced initial consonant and those with an original voiceless consonant.

Another phonetic tendency in common with this family of languages is the unvoicing of the original voiced initial consonants but this has not been carried out in all dialects. It happens in most Chinese dialects, except the Wu and the Hsiang, in practically all the Tai

languages, and in many Tibeto-Burman languages, so that what was originally a voiced initial is only detected in the nature of the tone.

The family has four main branches of languages—Chinese, Tai, Miao-Yao, and Tibeto-Burman.

The modern Chinese national language has some 400 possible syllables with its ancient initial and final consonants dropped off in the course of thousands of years. Each of the 400 syllables has theoretically four tones. This phonetic simplification caused the existence of many homonyms, but is counterbalanced by a great increase in the use of compounds, so that what was formerly expressed by one syllable must now be expressed in the colloquial by two or more syllables. This Chinese branch is again divided into the following groups:

1. The Northern Mandarin group occupies a large area in North China in the provinces of Hopei, Shansi, Shensi, Kansu, Honan, Shantung, the Three Northeastern Provinces, Jehol, Chahar, Suiyuan, Sinkiang, as well as Hupeh, Anhwei, and Kiangsu in the Yangtze Valley. It is characterized by the unvoicing of the ancient voiced stops, affricates, and spirants, and by the disappearance of the "entering tone." There are consequently only four tones: *ying-ping*, *yang-ping*, *shang*, and *chu*. The Peiping dialect, which is now the national dialect, is the best known of this group. Further divisions of this group are possible.

2. The Eastern Mandarin group is spoken along the lower Yangtze in Anhwei and Kiangsu Provinces. It is differentiated from the northern group by the existence of the "entering tone" as a short tone, but the final consonants *-p*, *-t*, and *-k*, are lost. It represents, therefore, five tones.

3. The Southwestern Mandarin group is a very uniform type of speech in Szechwan, Yunnan, Kweichow, and parts of Hupeh and Kwangsi. It, like the northern group, has no entering tone.

4. The Wu group is spoken south of the Yangtze in Kiangsu, Chekiang, and in the eastern part of Kiangsi. It is characterized by the preservation of the ancient voiced stops as aspirated voiced consonants and by the preservation of the "entering tone" with the loss of final consonants. It often presents six or seven tones.

5. The Kan-Hakka group is spoken mainly in Kiangsi and Kwangtung. It is characterized by the change of the ancient voiced stops into aspirated surds in all four tones (aspirated only in *ping-sheng* in the three Mandarin groups). The "entering tone" is preserved and the finals preserved according to dialects. There are often six or seven tones. The Northern or Kan group has the tendency to pronounce all aspirated surds as voiced in connected speech. The Hakka group preserves the final consonants much better.

6. The Min group has two sub-groups, the northern group in northern Fukien and the southern group in southern Fukien, eastern Kwangtung, Hainan Island, and Leichow Peninsula. It is characterized by the change of the original voiced stops as unaspirated surds, even in *ping-sheng* where the aspirated pronunciation is the prevalent one, by the preservation of the original palatal plosives as dental plosives, and by the preservation of final consonants. It has, as a rule, seven tones. The Hainan dialects present many phonetic peculiarities, possibly under the influence of an aboriginal speech, presumably a Tai language.

7. The Cantonese group is spoken in Kwangtung and Kwangsi. It is characterized by the preservation of final consonants. It presents a system of eight, nine, or more tones. The distinction of long and short vowels is also a special feature.

8. The Hsiang group is spoken principally in Hunan. The ancient voiced stops are kept as truly voiced consonants, but the finals are usually lost. It often presents a system of six or seven tones.

9. Certain isolated groups in southern Anhwei, some parts in Hunan, and in the northeastern part of Kwangsi have distinctive phonological features.

The Tai languages have four tone categories and each is further divided into two according to whether the initial consonant was originally voiced or voiceless, so that the modern Tai languages have eight or more tones. They can be divided into two main divisions:

1. The Chuang group consists of many dialects spoken in a great part of Kwangsi and in the southern part of Kweichow. The language of Shu Li in northern Hainan Island also belongs to this group but the Li dialects in the

center and the south of the Island seem to be quite different from the ordinary Tai language.

2. The Southwestern group consists of some of the best known Tai languages and lies mostly outside of China. It has four sub-divisions—Ahom, once spoken in Assam; Kamti and Shan spoken in Burma and Yunnan; Siamese and Lao spoken in Thailand and Indo-China; Tai Blanc, Nung, Tho spoken in Indo-China and southwestern Kwangsi.

The Miao-Yao branch of the Indo-China family is monosyllabic like the Chinese and is known to possess tones, but the phonologic system and the relation between the Miao and Yao are not sufficiently known. It is spoken by fairly primitive groups of mountaineers and there is no writing of its own besides the occasional use of Chinese characters.

The Miao group is spoken under various tribal names in the southwestern mountain regions of Hunan, a large part of Kweichow, in the northeastern part of Kwangsi, and in the mountains of Yunnan, Indo-China, and Thailand. The Yao group is spoken under various tribal names in northwestern Kwangtung and in the mountains of Yunnan, Kwangsi, Indo-China, and Thailand.

The Tibeto-Burman group is the most representative in the use of prefixes, whether syllabic or asyllabic, alternations of voiced and voiceless consonants, and the use of suffixes. The word order is as a rule subject-object-verb in contrast to the Chinese and Tai type of subject-verb-object. There are four divisions in this group:

1. The Tibetan group is spoken principally in Tibet and Sikang, and extends into Chinghai and the western part of Szechwan. The earliest record of this group dates from the ninth century, the alphabet being derived from the devanagari form of the Hindu alphabet. It has three main dialects—Balti and Ladak of the western group, Lhasa of the central group, and Kham of the eastern group.

2. Kachin of the Bodo-Naga-Kachin group is spoken along the northwestern border of Yunnan.

3. Speakers of some dialects of the Burmese group may be found in western Yunnan.

4. The Lolo group, with its dialects, is spoken in portions of Yunnan, Sikang, Kweichow, and descends to Indo-China and Thailand. It has an independent

syllabic writing. The Moso is spoken in the northwest of Yunnan and extends to Sikang. It possesses two systems of writing, one hieroglyphic and the other syllabic like the Lolo.

The Mon-Khmer group of the Austro-Asiatic family is spoken by groups along the Yunnan-Burmese border. It has no tones, and makes use of prefixes and infixes for the derivation of words. The stem is generally monosyllabic, the word order is subject-verb-object.

The Altai languages are spoken on the Chinese western and northern frontiers. They consist mainly of Turkish, Mongolian, and the Tungus. The relation of the three groups has not been established with certainty, although phonetic structure, syntax, and vocabulary all show great resemblances. The exclusive use of suffixes either derivative or syntactical is one of the characteristics, so that the stem or root always remains at the beginning of a word. Another special feature is the vocalic harmony. The word order is subject-object-verb. Modifying words are placed before the modified.

The Turkish branch of the Altai languages is spoken in China in Sinkiang and the northwestern part of Mongolia. The eastern dialects are characterized by the wide application of the rules of vocalic harmony and by the existence of only surds in initial and final positions and only voiced consonants in medial positions. The central dialects possess voiced initials and have an indifferent *i* in regard to vocalic harmony. The dialects spoken in northern Sinkiang, Kirghiz, belong to the western group. The branch has several forms of writing including the Runiform, Uigur, Brahmi, Tibetan, etc., but most dialects have adopted the Arabic alphabet.

The Mongolian language is centralized in Mongolia and extends to Central Asia, Siberia, Northeastern provinces, and North China provinces. The use of suffixes and vocalic harmony are observable. The language is divided into Khalkha (Outer Mongolia), Buriat (Siberia, northern Mongolia, and western Heilungkiang), Kalmuck (western Mongolia), eastern group in Chahar, Suiyuan, Jehol, Ningsia, and parts of Northeastern provinces. The Mongols adopted the Uigur alphabet in the 13th century as introduced by the Tibetan Living Buddha Baspa and it is still in use with slight modifications.

The Tungus branch is spoken in eastern Siberia and parts of Heilungkiang and Jehol. The Southern group, including Manchu, Gold, Oroch, Dahur, and Solon, is spoken in the provinces of Heilungkiang and Kirin. Manegir and Birar of the Northern group are spoken in Heilungkiang and Siberia. A small group of Manchu speakers are found in Sinkiang, being the descendants of earlier Manchu garrisons. The best known language of this branch is Manchu. The writing was derived in the 16th century from Mongolian with slight modifications.

There are some dead languages of interest to history students in China. One is Tokharian, an Indo-European language which was once spoken in modern Sinkiang. It was written with a kind of Hindu alphabet. Another is Si-hsia, once spoken in modern Kansu. It was written with a kind of character evidently modeled after the Chinese but very complicated. It seems to belong to the Lolo group. The dead language of Khitan is less known but some inscriptions in characters similar to the Si-hsia have been found.

MONGOLIA AND TIBET

Mongolia

The great plateau known as Mongolia occupies about 4,000,000 square kilometers in the heart of the Asiatic continent. It lies about 1,500 meters above sea level and is enclosed on all sides by high mountain ranges, with the Gobi Desert located in the center. It has a continental climate, subject to constantly variable extremes of heat and cold. The low humidity, coupled with a scarcity of rainfall, renders agriculture highly impracticable without the aid of irrigation.

The place is inhabited by tribes who originally carried on a nomadic existence in the valleys of the Kerulen River to the north of the Gobi Desert and who later recurrently assaulted the old civilized states of the Far East, the Near East, and Europe. Under Genghis Khan (1162-1227) the Mongols founded a world empire. After the 14th century, the states of the once glorious empire collapsed and the Mongols resolved into three main groups—the Northern Mongols of Outer Mongolia, the Southern Mongols in Inner Mongolia, and Western Mongols in Sinkiang and Chinghai. The warring race was divided by the Manchus in the 17th century into a

number of tribal leagues and banners in accordance with Manchu custom, thus consolidating the Manchu rule. Definite frontiers were assigned to each of the tribal units ruled by a prince of a particular banner.

The present distribution of the Mongol banners is as follows:

1. Mongol Banners in the Four Northeastern Provinces:

(a) The Barga Mongols number about 50,000, occupying the western part of the Hsingan Highland. They have an administration semi-Mongol, semi-Manchu in nature. There are two Solon Banners of Tungusic forest-nomad in origin but now Mongolized, two new Barga Banners and one old Barga Banner of old Mongol stock, one Olot Banner transferred from Sinkiang in the 18th century, a Buriat Banner from Siberia in the 17th century, and an Oranchon Banner of the reindeer-using Tungusic nomad stock. Besides, there is also a group of Daghors around Hailar who, through their relations with the Manchus, used to play an important part in the administration of Barga.

(b) The Daghor and Yeghe Minggan groups also live in Heilungkiang but lie east of the Hsingan. The Daghors are a people of partly Mongol and partly Tungus origin from the Nonni Valley. The Yeghe Minggan are sometimes called the Mannai or Mangnai Olot. They came from Sinkiang and live on the eastern slope of the Hsingan.

(c) The Jerim League is the first of the six leagues of Inner Mongolia and together with Josoto and Joude form what is generally known as the eastern Mongols. They were the first to join the Manchus in the 17th century. At present, 80 per cent of the Jerim Mongols is agricultural. The league is divided into ten banners, including two Gorlos Banners spreading from Changchun to the Sungari River, one Durbet Banner in Heilungkiang, one Jalait Banner in Heilungkiang, and six Khorchin Banners in Liaoning.

(d) Sibe and Suruk Mongols—The Sibe Mongols were originally Mongol troops raised to garrison the Willow Palisade and organized in an eight-banner cadre on the Manchu system. The Suruk Mongols were in charge of the herds from which sacrificial animals were drawn for use at the Manchu Imperial tombs at Mukden. Their lands, now cultivated, lie near Changwu in Liaoning.

(e) The Josoto League lies in southeast Jehol and is agricultural. The league comprises seven banners, including three Karachin Banners whose princes are descended from one of Genghis Khan's daughters, two Tumet Banners from Suiyuan in early 17th century, one Khalkha Banner from Outer Mongolia in the 17th century, and the Shreto Khuriën in which a Living Buddha is the secular prince.

(f) The Joude League lies in the northern half of Jehol and is partly agricultural. It has thirteen banners, counting from east to west, two Jarod Banners, one North Khorchin Banner, two Bairin Banners, one Keshikten Banner, one Naiman Banner southwest of Kailu, one Khalkha Left Wing Banner, three Aokhan Banners east and northeast of Chihfeng, and two Ongniot Banners west and northwest of Chihfeng.

2. Mongol Banners in Suiyuan and Chahar :

(a) The Chahar Mongols occupy a large territory in northern Chahar and eastern Suiyuan, partly cultivated. There are eight "military" and four "herdsman" banners. The "herdsman" banners were originally in charge of horses, cows, sheep, and camels for the use of the Manchu emperor. Of the military banners, four—All-Blue, Bordered White, All-White, Bordered Yellow—lie east to west in Chahar, and four—All-Yellow, All-Red, Bordered Red, Bordered Blue—lie east to west in Suiyuan. There are also two Taibis Banners which served as herdsmen for the Empress Dowager.

(b) The Silingol League's ten banners form a long, narrow strip north of the Chahar Mongols in northern Chahar. They are, from east to west, two Ujumchin Banners, two Hochi Banners, two Abaga Banners, and two Sunid Banners.

(c) The Kweihua Tumet Banner occupies the modern twin cities of Suiyuan and Kweihua, Suiyuan capital. It has six *Somon* with 10,000 people, most of whom have forgotten the Mongol language.

(d) The Ulanhab League in northern Suiyuan is the best grazing land for camels of the Suiyuan-Sinkiang caravan road. The six banners include, from east to west, one Durbet Khukhet Banner, one Khalkha Right Wing Banner, one Mo-Minggan Banner, and three Ulat Banners.

(e) The Ikhchao League occupies the Ordos Grassland in southern Suiyuan and has seven banners in two wings : East Wing, one North, one Center, one South Banner, and West Wing, one North, one Center, one South, and one End South Banner.

3. Mongol Banners in Ningsia (Western Mongols) :

(a) The Alanshan Mongols form one banner, the tribal name of which is Hoshot, with their lands lying west of Alanshan Range.

(b) The Edsingol Mongols form a banner around the Edsin-Gol. Their tribal name is Torgot.

4. Mongols in Chinghai (Western Mongols) :

The Mongols reached Kokonor (Blue Sea) following the invasion of Tibet by the Western Mongols at the end of the 16th century. The Chinghai Mongols are divided into two leagues with 29 banners. They are the Kokonor East Wing League with 11 Hoshot banners, one Hoit Banner, and one Durbet Banner, and the Kokonor West Wing League with two Chorlos Banners, nine Hoshot Banners, one Khalkha Banner, three Torgot Banners, and one Chagan Nom-on Khan Banner (Prince of the South of the Yellow River Banner).

5. Mongols in Sinkiang (Western Mongols) :

Northern Sinkiang was the base from which Mongols invaded Russia, the Near East, and India and where the Western Mongols waged war against Tibet and the Northern Mongols. They occupy mostly the territory between the Altai and the Tianshan Ranges. There are three leagues following tribal groupings, including :

(a) The Unen Susuktu League is entirely composed of Old Torgots with ten banners sandwiched with non-Mongol groups. The banners are four Karashar Torgot Banners, two Kur-Kharaoso (Erin-Khabirakh) Torgot Banners, one banner of Chingho Torgot Banner, and three Koboksari Torgot Banners.

(b) The Bato Setkhitu League has three Central Division Hoshot Banners occupying the Yuiduz Plateau northwest of Karashar.

(c) The Ching Setkhiltu League has ten banners distributed from the Tarbagatai region to the slopes of the Altai. There are two New Torgot

Banners, one Habchak New Hoshot Banner, three West Wing Urianghai Banners, and four East Wing Urianghai Banners. These are the so-called Altai-Urianghai of Turkish origin but Mongolized. The word Urianghai means "forest dwellers," thus tribes of the same name are not necessarily related to each other.

(d) Besides, there is a Chahar group living in the Borotala Valley on the way from Urumchi to Ili. They were moved from Chahar to Sinkiang in the 18th century. Another group are the Orots living in the Ili Valley known as the Six Somon. They are of the central stock of the Western Mongols from which Torgots, Hoshot, etc., derive. Both groups have no princes.

6. The Outer Mongolian Aimaks:

Mongols in Outer Mongolia belong to the group of Northern Mongols. They are divided into four aimaks according to tribal grouping:

(a) Tsetsen Khan Aimak contains 23 banners. It is also known as the Eastern Division of the Khalkha Mongols.

(b) Tushetu Khan Aimak contains 20 banners. It is also known as the Northern Division of the Khalkha Mongols. In this territory stands Urga.

(c) Sain Noyan Khan Aimak contains 24 banners and is also known as the Central Division of the Khalkha Mongols. In this territory stands Uliassutai.

(d) Jasakto Khan Aimak contains 19 banners. It is also known as the Western Division of the Khalkha Mongols.

7. The Kobdo Special District, also known as Sain Jayagato Aimak, contains 19 banners. The tribes of this district are historically part of the old Western Mongol federation. There are 11 East Wing Durbet Banners, three West Wing Turbet Banners, one East Wing and one West Wing Hoit Banners, one Jakhchin (Border) Banner who are Olots, one Olot Banner, and one Minggat Banner. There are also some Khalkha Mongols in this district, descendants of the garrison who occupied it after the final collapse of the Western Mongol power in the 18th century.

All the tribes within what is now the Ching Stekhitu Aimak under Sinkiang Province were formerly included in the Kobdo District. Kobdo authorities were also charged with the supervision of Urianghai.

No reliable statistics have been completed in regard to the Mongol population, but it has so far shown a tendency to fall off. In the early period of the Ching Dynasty the basic organization of Mongols was the *tsu-ling* in charge of 150 families. Recent findings show not a single *tsu-ling* controlling over 150 families, very few about 100 families, but generally 20 to 30 families. The decrease in population is mainly due to (a) the prevalence of venereal diseases, (b) the influence of Lamaism (most Mongol males become lamas and take the vow of celibacy), (c) being nomads, their inability to support big families, and (d) high mortality rate and the lack of medical facilities.

The banner is the basic unit of Mongolian political organization, coming either under a league, an aimak, or being independent. The tribal chieftain or khan holds office by hereditary right, while the leaders of leagues are elected. Each banner has a Jassak holding office by hereditary title who is assisted by subordinate officers, often "sealless" peers, and other civil and military assistants.

A Mongolian Autonomous Political Council was established at Peilingmiao in 1934 to direct Mongol activities in Chahar, Suiyuan, Ningsia, and Chinghai under Mongol princes. A re-organization took place in 1936 and a separate Suiyuan Mongolian Autonomous Political Council was established at Suiyuan (now at the End South Banner of the West Wing of the Ikhchao League) to attend exclusively to Mongol affairs in Suiyuan. The Chahar Mongolian Autonomous Political Council under Prince Teh turned puppet to the Japanese in the same year.

Outer Mongolia proclaimed itself a so-called People's Republic which is recognized only by the U.S.S.R. As late as 1936, the U.S.S.R. signed a mutual assistance protocol with the "Mongolian People's Republic." When the Chinese government protested, the Soviet government affirmed that the Sino-Soviet Agreement of 1924, which provides that "The Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics recognizes that Outer Mongolia is an integral part of the Republic of China and respects China's sovereignty therein" remained in force and denied that the protocol was intended as a violation thereof.

Tibet

The Tibetan Plateau is estimated to be more than 5,000 meters above sea level, the valleys more than 3,000 meters in altitude. The entire tableland includes Tibet proper, Sikang, and Chinghai. The latter two are regular provinces of the Chinese Republic while Tibet proper, and Outer Mongolia, form the two only special "territories" within Chinese boundaries.

There is no census in Tibet and consequently any figure on Tibetan population is open to question. The most probable estimate is 750,000 in Tibet proper.

The history of Tibet is full of myths and legends. The Tibetans believe that their ancestors were descended from Chenresi, the compassionate spirit, from which all the spiritual and human rulers came. But modern historians place the Tibetan race in the Mongolian family. Though relations between Tibet and China date from time immemorial, they first came into prominence in the days of the Tang Dynasty. With the Mongol conquest in the 13th century, Tibet was incorporated into the Chinese Empire. The Tibetans declared themselves "independent" from China after the establishment of the Republic. Numerous invasions were carried out by Tibetans on the province of Sikang in previous years and at present Tibetan troops are still occupying the Sikang area west of the Gold Sand River (Yangtze River).

With the establishment of the National Government, relationship between the government and Tibet has been steadily improving. When the 14th Dalai Lama was enthroned at Lhasa early in 1940, General Wu Chung-hsin, chairman of the Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission of the Executive Yuan, sat side by side with the new Dalai facing south, meeting Tibetan officials. An office of the commission was also established at Lhasa.

The Dalai Lama is the supreme ruler both in civil and religious affairs and under him are the ecclesiastical and lay officials. Under the Dalai Lama are three Silon or chief councillors of state. Under the Silon is the Kashag or grand council, composed of four Kalon or grand councillors of state, of whom three are laymen and one a priest known as the Kashag Lama. The Kashag is the highest organ of administration, executive, legislative, judicial, military,

or external. It carries out orders from the Dalai Lama in consultation with the Silon as to the means of execution. In this way, the Silon have a great deal to say in political matters. Under the Kashag are the Yigtsang or secretariat and the Jickano or accounting department. The former is composed of four ecclesiastical officials, while the latter is made up of four lay officials, called Tsipton, who are heads of all lay officials. There are two magistrates for the city of Lhasa.

The Tungdo or National Assembly is the most important organ in the political system of Tibet. All lay and ecclesiastical officials, as well as the abbots of the three large monasteries have the right to attend the Tungdo. The Chairman must be over 60 years old. When matters of emergency arise in domestic and foreign affairs, the Tungdo is convened to discuss and decide on necessary measures to be taken in dealing with the situation. Its decisions are acted upon by the government.

The local administrative unit in Tibet is the Chung ruled by a Chungpon. In larger districts, two Chungpon can be appointed, one of them lay and the other ecclesiastical. They share the same responsibility.

OVERSEAS CHINESE

Chinese migration into the South Seas began some 2,000 years ago when Chin Shih Huang Ti made the present Indo-China a part of his empire. Chinese emigrants went in large numbers to the South Sea countries during the Sung Dynasty and Chinese political influence was strongly felt during the reign of the Ming. The Ching Dynasty banned migration to overseas territories. Nevertheless, parties of Chinese emigrants, mostly from Kwangtung and Fukien, moved continuously to foreign countries. They were subject to wholesale massacre in Dutch and Spanish possessions at one time. They were also for years the objects of exploitation in the form of contract labor in many countries. At present they are generally excluded from many countries and subject to discrimination of various kinds and degrees.

According to a recent report issued by the Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission of the Executive Yuan, there are 8,546,374 Chinese living in foreign countries as seen from the following table:

Distribution of Overseas Chinese
(Up to end of June, 1940)

<i>Locality</i>	<i>Number of Overseas Chinese</i>				<i>Year</i>
Asia	8,205,098	...
Japan	19,801	1937
Formosa	59,692	1937
Korea	70,290	1937
Thailand	2,500,000	...
Annam	426,916	1940
Burma	193,594	1937
India	8,750	1937
British Malaya	2,300,353	1940
British North Borneo	68,034	1938
Dutch East Indies	1,344,809	1937
Philippine Islands	110,500	1931
Hongkong	923,584	1937
Afghanistan	5,000	1940
Turkey	7,000	1920
Portuguese Timor	3,500	1932
Macao	157,175	...
Mecca	6,100	1938
Europe	62,738	...
United Kingdom	8,000	1932
France	17,000	1931
Germany	1,800	1937
U. S. S. R.	29,620	1940
Portugal	1,200	1929
Denmark	900	1932
Belgium	550	1932
Czechoslovakia	250	1932
Switzerland	41	1930
Italy	923	1940
Poland	102	1937
Austria	98	1929
Luxemburg	52	1920
Hungary	49	1929
Yugoslavia	37	1929
Spain	44	1940
Esthonia	3	1928
Latavia	2	1928
Lithuania	7	1928
Finland	11	1928
Norway	9	1937
Bulgaria	7	1932
Rumania	16	1940
Netherlands	2,017	1937

Distribution of Overseas Chinese
(Up to end of June, 1940.)

<i>Locality</i>				<i>Number of Overseas Chinese</i>	<i>Year</i>
North America	197,354	...
U. S. A.	74,954	1930
Canada	46,000	1937
Mexico	25,000	1920-21
Central America	10,000	1940
West Indies	41,400	1932-38
South America	15,297	...
Peru	7,030	1939
Chile	503	1937
Brazil	820	1931
Argentina	600	1930
Colombia	418	1937
Ecuador	800	1939
Venezuela	2,826	1929
Guiana	2,300	1930
Africa	9,064	...
Egypt	64	1933
South Africa	4,000	1937
Islands in Indian Ocean	5,000	1939
Oceania	56,823	...
Australia	15,500	1931
New Zealand	3,323	1939
Hawaiian Islands	27,600	1930
Fiji Islands	2,000	1930
Samoa Islands	3,400	1929
Tahiti	5,000	1930
GRAND TOTAL				8,546,374	

Chinese in foreign lands have 3,724 organizations, of which 823 are permanent professional organizations, 1,978 permanent social organizations, 29 registered patriotic societies, and 892 unregistered patriotic societies, according to an investigation made at the end of March, 1941. Most of them are local guilds organized by people from the same clan or from the same native district.

Contributions from overseas Chinese have played an important part in war relief during the early war years. The Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission alone received NC\$5,300,774, HK\$172,177, US\$61,985, £18,235, Fr.1,397,848, Guilders 14,317 and

\$3,158 Canadian currency from July, 1937, to December, 1941. Most of the contributions were sent to the Ministry of Finance directly instead of going through the commission. It was estimated that by the end of 1940, a total of \$300,000,000 had been received from the overseas Chinese as their contribution towards the war. The inflow of relief money from China's loyal sons abroad before the outbreak of the Pacific War was estimated at \$70,000,000 a month.

A number of investments were also made by overseas Chinese in the form of capital, machinery, and personnel to help reconstruction in Free China. A \$100,000,000-Overseas Chinese Industrial Corporation was proposed by the National

Government, while a number of private companies have been organized by overseas Chinese to develop agriculture, industry, mining, and trading in the Southwest.

Overseas remittances also play an important part in the China's national receipts and expenditures. In the four war years ended in 1940, no less than \$2,000,000,000 had been sent by the overseas Chinese to their families in China. More than \$1,000,000,000 came before the outbreak of the Pacific War.

In June, 1940, there were 3,231 schools for overseas children in foreign countries, including 117 middle schools, eight normal schools, four vocational schools, 2,477 primary schools, and 93 continuation schools. Of them, 445 were registered with the National Government. To help these institutions, the Government paid \$122,734 in 1937 as subsidy to 154 schools, \$61,367 to 154 schools in 1938 (half year), \$99,984 to 123 schools in 1939, \$75,050 to 128 schools in 1940, \$120,000 to 165 schools in 1941, besides another \$70,000 for the establishment of four more schools.

After the outbreak of the Pacific War, an appropriation of \$2,000,000

was made to aid overseas students and teachers. Three overseas Chinese middle schools were established in Yunnan and Kwangtung, 12 overseas schools were moved to Free China, and a number of special classes were maintained to accommodate home-coming overseas students.

Efforts were also made to help stricken overseas Chinese. Over 97 per cent of the eight million odd overseas Chinese are now living in areas occupied by the three Axis powers. A number of them evacuated to China or friendly nations, but the great majority remained behind. Of those who returned to China more than 1,000,000 persons were helped by the Government. The National Government allotted \$100,000,000 for overseas Chinese relief and up to the end of August, 1942, actually spent \$12,000,000 in Yunnan, \$10,000,000 in Kwangtung, \$5,000,000 in Fukien, \$5,000,000 in Kwangsi, \$1,000,000 in Kweichow for direct relief and \$30,000,000 each in Fukien and Kwangtung as loans to the families of overseas Chinese who cannot return to China. Besides, the provincial governments also granted huge sums to help the home-coming people. For those living abroad, \$500,000 was sent to India and Fr.529,800 to France.

CHAPTER II

THE KUOMINTANG

A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE KUOMINTANG

The Kuomintang has been shaping and is shaping China's destiny. It overthrew the Manchu regime in 1911, unified the country in 1926-1928, and since 1937 has been leading the nation in resistance against Japanese aggression. Underlying these three historic events there has been a continuity of purpose and strength under the direction of the Kuomintang, guided first by Dr. Sun Yat-sen and, since the latter's death in 1925, by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek.

The Kuomintang had its genesis about half a century ago, when Dr. Sun Yat-sen, founded the *Hsing Chung Hui* (Regenerate China Society) in Macao with a few dozen sympathizers.

Manifestoes were couched in cautious, unprovocative language, but the real aim of the Society was the overthrow of the Manchu rule and the restoration of the Chinese nation. Branch societies were established in Hongkong, Japan, Honolulu, and the United States. Membership increased by 1900 when there had been incorporated into it other anti-Manchu societies along the Yangtze River and in three southern provinces in China.

In August 1905 was born in Tokyo the *Chung Kuo Tung Meng Hui* (China Brotherhood Society). This new organ represented the second phase in the development of the Kuomintang. It had a higher vision than the overthrow of the Manchu Dynasty—the building of a new nation along lines of broad nationalism and republicanism. In Dr. Sun's mind there had dawned his own version of "government of the people, for the people and by the people." His principles of nationalism, people's rights and people's livelihood, which present-day China has adopted as the political creed, began to take shape.

In a manifesto issued that year, the *Tung Meng Hui* added two new cardinal points to its policy. They were the establishment of a republic and the equalization of land ownership.

Imbued with the spirit of the leader, the members of the *Tung Meng Hui*

spread over almost all the provinces of China as well as in Japan, Europe, North and South America and the South Seas. By clandestine means revolutionary organs were established in various parts of China. People of all sorts and conditions rallied to the support of the revolutionary cause.

In 1895 the first attempt at an uprising was made in Canton by Dr. Sun Yat-sen and his confrères. It was followed by many futile rebellions in various parts of the country. The storming of the Viceroy's Yamen in Wuchang by armed revolutionaries on October 10, 1911, led to the success of the Revolution, resulting in the abdication of the last Manchu emperor and in the establishment of the Chinese Republic. Dr. Sun Yat-sen served as President of the Republican Provisional Government for a brief period and then resigned.

In 1912, The *Tung Men Hui* was re-organized into the *Kuo Min Tang* which was to function as an ordinary political party.

The young Republic then entered upon a period of internal strife, during which time Dr. Sun and the loyal members of his Party were constantly combating the forces deterrent to the interests of the Revolution. While engaged in the anti-Yuan Shih-kai movement, Dr. Sun organized the *Chung Hua Ke Min Tang* (Chinese Revolutionary Party) for the purpose of reviving the pre-1911 spirit of the *Tung Meng Hui*.

After the death of Yuan Shih-kai in 1916, the Peking Government remained in the hands of the Northern military clique. Dr. Sun led his faithful followers to South China in defense of the Provisional Constitution which Tuan Chi-jui had violated. This fight lasted six years.

In 1919, Dr. Sun re-organized his Party into the Kuomintang (of which the full title is *Chung Kuo Kuomintang*, the Chinese National Party) for the purpose of increasing its membership and consolidating its power. Four years later, a more thorough re-organization was effected.

The First Party National Congress after re-organization, held in Canton in 1924, was the turning point in the history of the Kuomintang. More fully than on any previous occasion the rejuvenated Party realized its responsibility for the salvation of the nation. It re-affirmed Dr. Sun's Three People's Principles as the Party platform. It adopted a definite party policy in reference to foreign and internal relations. The most salient points embodied therein were: externally, the abrogation of all unequal treaties, the withdrawal of foreign loans insofar as not to impair China's political and industrial interests; internally, the demarcation of the central and local administrative powers on an equitable basis, the adoption of the *hsien* as the unit of local self-government, the introduction of universal suffrage, the taking of a census of the population, the improvement of rural organization and labor conditions, etc.

To unify the country under the Kuomintang standard, a Northern Expedition was planned. A military academy was established at Whampao, near Canton, to train a cadre as the nucleus of a new army indoctrinated with Dr. Sun's principles. In 1926-1928 this new army, which set out from Canton under the command of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, succeeded in crushing warlordism and unifying the country. The National Government, originally in Canton, was then moved to Nanking, the new Capital.

The teachings of Dr. Sun Yat-sen form the ideological basis of the Kuomintang rule in China. His *San Min Chu I* or the Three People's Principles of nationalism, people's rights and people's livelihood, constitute the highest guiding principles in China. The new China he conceived is free, independent and equal in its relations with other nations of the world, wherein the people will have a constitutional form of government. There will also be an equitable distribution of wealth through the enforcement of three policies, the equalization of land ownership, the development of state capital, and the control of private capital.

Dr. Sun split sovereignty into two portions, with the political powers to be exercised by the people and the governing powers by the government. He believed in direct democracy and wanted the people to have the rights of recall, initiative and referendum in addition to that of election. The government, he said, should be entrusted with five

powers, namely, executive, legislative, judicial, examination, and control. The first three are too familiar to need any explanation. The last two are Dr. Sun's own innovations based on China's traditional practices. The power of examination deals with the selection of officials through competitive contests with a view to the creation of an efficient civil service system, while the power of control pertains to the impeachment of government officials.

Dr. Sun divided the course of national reconstruction into three periods of military operations, political tutelage and constitutional government. During the first period everything should be subordinated to military needs. The second period begins in any province when peace and order are completely restored. Its component counties must each take a detailed census, survey all land, set up an efficient self-defense force and build all principal roads. Before a county is qualified for self-government, its people must be given training in the exercise of their four political rights, namely, election, recall, initiative and referendum. When all the counties in any province have been thus prepared, that province advances on into the period of constitutionalism and a representative assembly must be organized. Finally, when more than half of the provinces in the country have advanced into the same stage, a People's Congress shall be convened to adopt and promulgate a constitution. This will be followed by the formation of a new National Government responsible to the People's Congress instead of to the Party National Congress, as is the case at present.

The procedure thus laid down by Dr. Sun has been followed by the National Government since it came into power in 1927-1928. The period of military operations came to an end in 1928 and the following year the period of political tutelage officially began, to last for six years. A provisional constitution was promulgated in May, 1931. In 1934 work was begun on a draft constitution which draft was promulgated by the National Government on May 5, 1936, to be adopted by a People's Congress scheduled to meet on November 12, 1937. The Japanese invasion has delayed the realization of the program.

The period from its coming into power in 1927-1928 to the outbreak of the Chinese-Japanese war ten years later, found the Kuomintang and the National Government busy tackling numerous

problems. A new spirit had taken possession of the entire nation. In fact, China in the few years prior to the outbreak of the war was forging ahead too much to suit Japanese militarists. The latter could wait no longer to see China succeed in her nation-building program. So in 1937 they launched the bitterest war ever fought on the Asiatic continent. The Kuomintang rose to the crisis by leading China's masses in the defense of their homes and their birthright.

In April, 1938, the Extraordinary Party National Congress was held.

The most concrete achievement of the extraordinary session was the adoption of the *Program of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction*.^{*} Important points in this program are as follows:

Dr. Sun Yat-sen's revolutionary principles and his other teachings are declared to be the supreme authority, regulating all wartime activities and the work of national reconstruction.

China is prepared to ally herself with all states and nations that sympathize with her cause and to wage a common struggle for peace and justice; prepared to safeguard and strengthen the machinery of peace as well as all treaties and conventions that have the maintenance of peace as their ultimate object; prepared to ally herself with all forces that are opposed to Japanese imperialism in order to check Japanese aggression and to safeguard peace in the Far East, and prepared to improve still further the existing friendly relations with other powers in order to gain more sympathy for the cause.

A People's Political Council shall be created in order to unify the national strength, to utilize the best minds of the nation and to facilitate the formulation and execution of national policies.

The *hsien* shall be taken as the fundamental unit of local self-government, which shall be installed as soon as possible in preparation for the eventual promulgation of a constitution.

Economic reconstruction shall be stressed, village economy emphasized, cooperative enterprises

encouraged, mining projects undertaken, wartime taxes levied, banking business controlled, facilities of communications and transportation improved, speculation and hoarding of commodities prohibited.

Freedom of speech, press and assembly shall be guaranteed to the people provided they do not contravene Dr. Sun Yat-sen's revolutionary principles or the provisions of the law.

All bogus political organizations which Japan has created in consequence of her military occupation of Chinese territory and all their actions are repudiated and declared null and void.

Also, in accordance with the program, a People's Political Council^{**} was organized in the summer of 1938.

Another item in the *Program of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction* which has been enforced is the new county (*hsien*) system,^{**} which aims to make the county an autonomous unit.

PARTY NATIONAL CONGRESSES AND C.E.C. PLENARY SESSIONS

As a rule the National Congress meets once every two years. The first Congress was held in 1924, the second in 1926, the third in 1929, the fourth in 1931 and the fifth in 1935. An Extraordinary National Congress was convened in Hankow in 1938, the year after the outbreak of the war with Japan. When the National Congress is in recess, the highest organs are the Central Executive Committee and the Central Supervisory Committee. The two committees functioning at present were elected by the fifth National Congress. Since then the war and other problems have stood in the way of electing another National Congress.

The existing Central Executive Committee has held, up to the end of 1942, altogether ten plenary sessions.

1. The First Plenary Session, held in December, 1935, re-organized the three committees on organization, publicity and mass movement into the Board of Organization, the Board of Publicity, and the Board of People's Training.

2. The Second Plenary Session, held in July, 1936, decided upon the abolition

^{*} See Section "Important Kuomintang Documents."

^{**} See Chapter III "Government Structure."

of the Southwestern Executive Organ of the Kuomintang and the Southwestern Political Council, both of which were then functioning in Canton. Through this decision the power of the Kuomintang was concentrated and the foundation of the Party solidified.

3. The Third Plenary Session, held in February, 1937, decided upon the abolition of the chairman system and the restoration of the system of standing committee whose members are to be chosen from the Central Executive Committee.

4. The Fourth Plenary Session, held in April, 1938, decided that Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek should serve concurrently as leader of the *San Min Chu I* Youth Corps, and also laid down the principles governing the organization of the People's Political Council.

5. The Fifth Plenary Session, held in January, 1939, promulgated among other things the *Citizen's Pact for Resistance to Japan*, and laid down the principles for a Spiritual Mobilization Movement. It also decided to create the Supreme National Defense Council, which since February, 1939, has been placed in charge of the direction and supervision of all organs in the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, the five Yuan in the National Government, and the various boards and departments in the National Military Council.

6. The Sixth Plenary Session, held in November, 1939, decided to convene the People's Congress on November 12, 1940, for the purpose of adopting and promulgating a permanent constitution for the country. (The Congress was later postponed because of communication and other wartime difficulties.) The same session appointed Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek president of the Executive Yuan.

7. The Seventh Plenary Session, held in July, 1940, decided to create a Central Planning Board and a Party and Political Work Perscrutation Committee under the Supreme National Defense Council to co-ordinate and integrate all government activities in all three stages, of planning, execution and perscrutation.

8. The Eighth Plenary Session, held in March, 1941, decided on a Three-Year Reconstruction Plan to be enforced as from 1942. It also resolved to divide the governmental budgets into two major systems, namely, national and local; to re-organize the land tax system by authorizing the National Government

to take over its collection from the local authorities; and to set up a Ministry of Food to control the nations' food supplies.

9. The Ninth Plenary Session, held in December, 1941, one week after the outbreak of the Pacific War, decided to intensify the general mobilization of the people; to create a Land Administration in the Executive Yuan to effect Dr. Sun's teachings on equalization of landownership. It also resolved to give emergency powers to Generalissimo Chiang and to instruct the C.E.C.'s Standing Committee to revise all laws and regulations and to adopt all practical measures under the leadership and upon the decision of Generalissimo Chiang, with a view to hastening the completion of China's dual program of armed resistance and national reconstruction and of expediting the re-establishment of world peace in joint effort with all the friendly nations who have become China's comrades-at-arms.

10. The Tenth Plenary Session was held in November, 1942. Among its important resolutions are the following:

1. Strengthening of the nation's finances.
2. Improvement of the conscription system.
3. Inauguration of a voluntary labor service for the purpose of increasing production.
4. Transfer of the Ministry of Justice from the Judicial Yuan to the Executive Yuan.
5. Measures for the enforcement of the commodity price control.
6. Improvement of the treatment of soldiers and their dependants.
7. Readjustment of school life on a military basis, establishment of more technical schools, and emphasis on education among the border people and overseas Chinese.
8. Strengthening of the control system.
9. Relief of the drought famine in Honan.
10. Determination of principles in social insurance legislation.
11. Determination of detailed measures for child welfare.
12. Increase of relief to war-stricken overseas Chinese.

13. Adoption of measures to encourage industrial production.
14. Increase of relief to refugee children.
15. Adoption of measures to encourage investment by overseas Chinese.
16. Convocation of a national production conference.
17. Continuation of the Party's policy of tolerance to the Chinese Communist Party.*

CHRONOLOGY OF THE KUOMINTANG

The history of the Kuomintang may be divided into five periods.

I. The *Hsin Chung Hui* (Regenerate China Society) Period:

1892.—Dr. Sun formed the first *Hsin Chung Hui* in Macao.

1893. Dr. Sun was kidnapped and held in the Manchu Legation in London.

1894.—*Hsin Chung Hui* was formed in Honolulu.

1895.—*Hsin Chung Hui* was formed in Hongkong and the United States. In September Dr. Sun engendered the first revolutionary uprising in Canton. It failed and Dr. Sun began his life of exile, first going to Japan and later to America.

1898.—Dr. Sun returned to Japan. He sent agents to contact secret societies along the Yangtze and in the southern provinces of Kwangtung, Kwangsi, and Fukien.

1900.—Dr. Sun organized two revolts in Kwangtung, one in Waichow and the other in Canton.

1902.—Revolutionary revolt in Canton.

1904.—Revolutionary revolt at Changsha.

II. The *Tung Men Hui* (China Brotherhood Society) Period:

1905.—That spring Dr. Sun went to Europe, meeting Chinese revolutionaries in Brussels, Paris, and Berlin. In the summer he was in Japan lecturing on the Three People's Principles and the Quintuple-Power Constitution. On August 20, under Dr. Sun's leadership, the *Tung Men Hui* was formed in Tokyo, absorbing the *Hsin Chung Hui* and numerous secret societies, including the *San Ho Hui* (Three Harmony Society) and the *Ko Lao Hui* (Society of Brothers and Elders), two groups having large

followings in the lower social strata in China.

1905-1911.—No less than 13 abortive revolts organized by the *Tung Men Hui* were staged in various parts of China. On March 12, occurred the most daring revolt in Canton. On October 10, the Wuhan Revolution took place.

1912.—On January 1, Dr. Sun assumed the post of provisional president of the Republic of China in Nanking.

III. The *Kuo Min Tang* Period:

1912.—Sung Chiao-jen, Dr. Sun's revolutionary associate, formed the Kuomintang by enlarging the scope of the *Tung Men Hui* to include members of four other parties. Many *Tung Men Hui* members who were opposed to the merger, seceded and formed a *Tung Men Hui* club in Shanghai to retain the revolutionary character of the organization.

1913.—On March 20, Sung Chiao-jen was assassinated by Yuan Shih-kai's agents in Shanghai. The Second Revolution, led by *Tung Men Hui* revolutionaries against Yuan Shih-kai, took place and failed.

IV. The *Chung Hua Ke Min Tang* (Chinese Revolutionary Party) Period:

1914.—On March 6, Dr. Sun re-organized the *Kuo Min Tang* into the *Chung Hua Ke Min Tang* in Tokyo with himself as Tsungli, or president of the Party.

1915-1916.—When Yuan Shih-kai made himself emperor, Dr. Sun organized widespread revolts against him.

1917.—Dr. Sun became generalissimo of a military government in Canton in opposition to the northern government.

V. The *Chung Kuo Kuo Min Tang* (Chinese National Party) Period:

1919.—In October, Dr. Sun changed the name of the Party from *Chung Hua Ke Min Tang* into *Chung Kuo Kuomintang*.

1922.—Chen Chiung-ming revolted in Canton.

1924.—The *Chung Kuo Kuomintang* was re-organized. Chinese communists were allowed to join the Kuomintang. The same year the First National Congress of the Kuomintang was held in Canton.

1925.—On March 12, Dr. Sun died in Peking where he had gone in October the previous year to recuperate his health and to bring about unification of the country. The same year the

* For details see Section "Kuomintang's Relation with other Parties," p. 49.

National Government was established in Canton.

1926.—On July 9, Chiang Kai-shek was appointed commander-in-chief of the Revolutionary Forces, and launched the Northern Expedition. The Second Party National Congress was held.

1927.—In April, Nanking was made the national capital of China. A party purge was enforced.

1928.—The National Government was removed to Nanking.

1929.—The Third Party National Congress was held in Nanking. The period of military operations ended and the period of political tutelage began.

1931.—A People's Convention was held in Nanking. It adopted the *Provisional Constitution*. (The Japanese attack on Mukden took place on September 18.) The Fourth Party National Congress was held the same year.

1935.—The Fifth Party National Congress was held.

1936.—The draft *Permanent Constitution* was promulgated.

1937.—The Sino-Japanese war began.

1938.—In April, an extraordinary Party National Congress was convened in Hankow. Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek was elected Tsungtsai, or director-general, of the party. The Program of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction was adopted. The *San Min Chu I* Youth Corps was organized. The People's Political Council was formed.

ORGANIZATION OF THE KUOMINTANG

The existing *General Regulations of the Kuomintang* were first adopted by the First Party National Congress in January, 1924, and have since been revised several times. In their present form, the *General Regulations* comprise 13 chapters with 89 articles. The preamble of the *General Regulations* reads as follows: "In order to hasten the realization of the *San Min Chu I* and the institution of the Quintuple-Power Constitution, the First National Congress of the Kuomintang formulated for itself the following General Regulations."

MEMBERSHIP: Anyone who is willing to accept the platform of the party, to carry out its resolutions, to observe its discipline and to fulfill the duties and obligations imposed by the Party, may, upon his or her application for membership being accepted, become a member of the Party. A member has the right to

express his opinion, to vote, to elect and to be elected.

ORGANIZATION: The Kuomintang organization has five vertical grades, namely, the National Congress, the provincial congress, the *hsien* (county) congress, the *chu* (district) congress or *chu* members' general meeting, and the sub-*chu* members' general meeting. During recess, their executive committees are organs of authority. Each organ of authority must take orders from the higher organ and carry out its resolutions. The Central Executive Committee (of the National Congress) may establish a number of boards to carry out ordinary and extraordinary affairs of the Party. The functions and organizations of these boards are to be decided by the Central Executive Committee, which also has the power to decide on the organization of all grades of Party offices below the provincial Party office.

SPECIAL LOCAL ORGANIZATIONS: Any administrative area not yet made a province, such as Mongolia and Tibet, shall have a party organization with the same status as a provincial Party organ.

The Party organ of a special municipality, like the provincial Party organ, is subject to the direction and supervision of the highest organ of authority. The same status is to be accorded to a Party head-organ abroad while a branch organ abroad is equivalent to a *hsien* Party organ.

TERM OF OFFICE: The term of a delegate ends with the adjourning of the National Congress, after making reports to their respective Party organs. Members of the Central Executive and Supervisory Committees hold offices for two years. Members of the provincial executive and supervisory committees, the *hsien* executive and supervisory committees, and the district executive and supervisory committees, hold offices for one year. Members of the sub-district executive committee hold office for six months.

DISCIPLINE: All members of the Party must strictly observe the following rules of discipline: (1) to obey the regulations and principles of the Party; (2) to allow free discussions on any problem concerning the Party, but a resolution once passed or adopted must be absolutely obeyed; (3) to keep Party secrets; (4) to permit no attack on fellow members or Party organs before outsiders; (5) not to join any other political party; (6) not to organize cliques or factions.

Anyone violating the above rules is liable to receive the following punishment: (1) warning; (2) suspension of membership privileges for a certain period of time; (3) temporary suspension of membership; or (4) expulsion from the Party.

In case a whole Party organ violates the rules of discipline, it receives the following punishment: (1) all Party members may be registered anew and the evil elements expelled; or (2) complete dissolution.

THE TSUNGLI: The Party elected Dr. Sun Yat-sen, author of the *San Min Chu I* and the Quintuple-Power Constitution, as *Tsungli*, whose orders for the propagation of the *San Min Chu I* should be obeyed by all Party members. The *Tsungli* shall preside over the Party National Congress and the Central Executive Committee sessions; he shall have veto power on resolutions of the Party National Congress and final decision on resolutions of the Central Executive Committee. (Dr. Sun died on March 12, 1925. At the Second Party National Congress, the Kuomintang accepted his last testament and pledged to carry it out, and also decreed that the above provision in the *General Regulations* be preserved as an everlasting memory of Dr. Sun by the Party.)

FATHER OF THE CHINESE REPUBLIC: At its 143rd meeting on March 21, 1940, the Standing Committee of the Fifth Central Executive Committee resolved that Dr. Sun Yat-sen be henceforth known as "Father of the Chinese Republic." Within the Party, however, he may continue to be known as *Tsungli*.

WEEKLY MEMORIAL SERVICE: Since Dr. Sun Yat-sen's death every Monday morning one hour between nine and twelve o'clock is set aside for the weekly memorial service in all Party offices, government organs, and military posts in China, presided over by the highest official thereof. The service includes the singing of China's national anthem, which is also the Kuomintang song, three bows before the national and party colors and Dr. Sun's portrait, the reading of Dr. Sun's will by the chairman and by the audience, the observance of three minutes' silence, the recitation of Dr. Sun's teachings or the rendering of work reports and the recitation of the dicta for Party members.

DR. SUN YAT-SEN'S WILL: "For forty years I have devoted myself to the cause of the people's revolution with

but one end in view, the elevation of China to a position of freedom and equality in the family of nations. My experiences during these forty years have firmly convinced me that to attain this goal we must bring about a thorough awakening of our own people and ally ourselves in a common struggle with those peoples of the world who treat us on the basis of equality.

"The work of the Revolution is not yet accomplished. Let all our comrades follow my *Plans for National Reconstruction*, *Fundamentals of National Reconstruction*, *Three People's Principles* and the Manifesto issued by the First National Congress of our Party, and strive on earnestly for their consummation. Above all, our recent declarations in favor of the convocation of a National Convention and the abolition of unequal treaties should be carried into effect with the least possible delay. This is my heartfelt charge to you.—(Signed SUN WEN, March 11, 1925. Written on February 20, 1925.)"

Dicta for Kuomintang Members: At the Fifth Party National Congress in November, 1935, the following twelve rules were adopted for observance by all Kuomintang members:

1. Loyalty and courage are the basis of patriotism.
2. Filial devotion is the basis of family discipline.
3. Goodwill and kindness are the basis of harmony among fellow-beings.
4. Faithfulness and uprightness are the basis of a useful career.
5. Peaceableness is the basis of smoothness in man's social relationships.
6. Courtesy is the basis of proper administration.
7. Obedience is the basis of a high sense of responsibility.
8. Diligence and thrift are the basis of efficient service.
9. Orderliness and cleanliness are the basis of sound health.
10. Helpfulness is the basis of happiness.
11. Knowledge is the basis of usefulness to mankind.
12. Perseverance is the basis of achievement.

Following the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war, the Fifth Central Execu-

tive Committee, at its Fifth Plenary Session, held in January, 1939, adopted seven more rules for all Kuomintang members to observe during the period of national emergency. The seven rules are:

1. Strictly adhere to all laws promulgated by the Government before and since the war began, and observe Party discipline.

2. Precede the people in facing risks and follow the people in enjoying leisure.

3. Bury all intra-party and ultra-party differences of old, be united in spirit and in action, and share fortunes and reverses together.

4. Set an example to the people by being the first to respond to all wartime calls for service and for contributions.

5. Absolutely obey orders of the Party organ and the military commanders in each locality.

6. Strengthen the organization in all grades of Party organs and instill military discipline into them.

7. Under all circumstances keep military secrets and assist the local authorities in the maintenance of peace and order.

THE TSUNG TSAI: Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek was elected *Tsungtsai* of the Kuomintang at the Extraordinary Party National Congress in April, 1938, to exercise all powers previously exercised by the *Tsungli*.

ORGANS OF AUTHORITY: The highest organ of authority of the Party is the National Congress which meets once every two years. An extraordinary session may be convened whenever the Central Executive Committee should deem it necessary or more than half of the provincial Party organs and other organs of an equivalent status should so petition. Under unavoidable circumstances, the Central Executive Committee may postpone the ordinary National Congress but the postponement must not exceed more than one year. The provincial Party congress meets once a year, the *hsien* (county) Party congress once every six months, the *chu* (district) Party congress once every two months, and the *sub-chu* (sub-district) Party congress once every two weeks. Party organs of various grades each have an executive committee and a supervisory committee vested with varying duties and functions.

The National Congress is vested with the following powers:

- (1) To accept and adopt reports of the Central Executive Committee and of the various departments in the central Party organ;

- (2) To revise the political platform and regulations of the Party;

- (3) To decide on policies and measures on current problems;

- (4) To elect full and reserve members of the Central Executive Committee and the Central Supervisory Committee.

The Central Executive Committee: The C. E. C. is charged with the following duties:

- (1) To carry out the resolutions of the Party National Congress;

- (2) To organize and direct local Party organs;

- (3) To organize various central departments of the Party;

- (4) To manage Party expenses and finance.

The Central Executive Committee is competent to decide on any matter in regard to Party and government affairs, subject only to revision by the National Congress. It elects the chairman of the National Government, presidents and vice-presidents of the Executive, Legislative, Judicial, Examination and Control Yuan, who are all responsible to it pending the promulgation of a permanent constitution.

The Central Executive Committee has the obligation to carry out the resolutions of the Central Supervisory Committee but when it should deem it necessary, it may ask the Central Supervisory Committee to reconsider its resolution or resolutions. The Central Executive Committee meets at least once every six months.

Members of the Central Executive Committee elect from among themselves nine to fifteen members to constitute a Standing Committee, which is responsible to the Central Executive Committee and acts on behalf of the Central Executive Committee during the latter's recess. The *Tsungtsai* of the Party presides over meetings of the Standing Committee. The Central Executive Committee has a secretariat, headed by one secretary-general and one deputy secretary-general, who are appointed by the Central Executive Committee to carry out orders of the *Tsungtsai*, resolutions of the Central Executive Committee and its Standing Committee, and to administer other Party affairs.

The Central Supervisory Committee: The C.S.C. is charged with the following duties:

(1) To decide on penalties for lower Party organs or Party members violating the discipline of the Party;

(2) To examine the receipts and expenditures of the Central Executive Committee;

(3) To review the progress of Party affairs, to issue orders to the lower Party organs for the examination of Party and financial affairs;

(4) To review the administrative measures and accomplishments of the National Government in the light of the Party's platform and policies. The Central Supervisory Committee during its recess shall elect five men from among its members to form a standing committee. The Central Supervisory Committee meets at least once every six months. It has its own secretariat.

Under the Central Executive Committee are the following boards and committees:

1. The Central Secretariat.
2. The Board of Organization, which takes charge of the organization of party offices of various grades and the training of Party members.
3. The Board of Information (now known as Ministry of Information), which formulates publicity policies and programs and directs all publicity organs.
4. The Board of Overseas Affairs, which takes charge of the organization of Party offices of various grades overseas, the training of overseas Party members and overseas publicity.
5. Party Affairs Committee, which examines and designs Party affairs and enforces instructions of the *Tsungsai* and resolutions of the Central Executive Committee's Standing Committee. With the secretary-general of the Central Executive Committee as its chairman, the Party Affairs Committee co-ordinates the work of various boards and units under the Central Executive Committee. The Party Affairs Committee has from fourteen to twenty members, and all ministers and vice-ministers of the various boards and the deputy

secretary-general of the Central Executive Committee are members ex-officio.

6. The Central Training Committee has the *Tsungsai* as chairman. It takes charge of the training of Party workers of the middle and lower ranks, and of public functionaries and teachers in all political, military, economic and educational organs of the country. In this type of training, special emphasis is laid on "thought training." The largest single training unit run by the Central Training Committee is the Central Training Corps.
7. Party History Compilation and Editing Committee.
8. The Party Finance Committee.
9. Pension Committee.
10. Revolutionary Loans Investigation Committee.
11. Revolutionary Merit Examination Committee.
12. Overseas Chinese Contributions Custody Committee.
13. The Party Bureau of Investigation and Statistics, which is attached to the secretariat of the Central Executive Committee to compile statistics and to carry out investigations of cases involving Party discipline.
14. *San Min Chu I* Youth Corps: The corps was founded in June, 1938, with Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek as leader. Its chief objective is to organize and train Chinese youth to be exponents of *San Min Chu I*, defenders of the country and rejuvenators of the nation.
15. The Political Committee (also known as the Central Political Council): This committee is composed of a chairman and from nineteen to twenty-five members selected by the Central Executive Committee from among its own members and members of the Central Supervisory Committee. This committee constitutes the highest organ of political direction and is responsible to the Central Executive Committee and reports its decisions to the Central Executive Committee's

Standing Committee. Members of the standing committees of both the Central Executive Committee and the Central Supervisory Committee, chairman of the National Government, presidents and vice-presidents of the five Yuan (Executive, Legislative, Judicial, Examination, and Control), and chairman of the National Military Council should attend meetings of the Political Committee. Whenever necessary, the chairman of the Political Committee may notify the chairmen of various technical committees under the Political Committee and the heads of various ministries and commissions under the National Government to be present at its meetings. The Political Committee has a secretariat, headed by a secretary-general and a deputy secretary-general. (Since February, 1939, the functions of the Political Committee have been taken over by the Supreme National Defense Council.)

16. The Central Reconstruction Funds Examination Committee.

Three Party Boards

The Board of Organization is headed by minister and two vice-ministers. It comprises the following units:

1. Ordinary Party Affairs Department.
2. Border Party Affairs Department.
3. Army Party Affairs Department.
4. Party Members' Training Department.
5. Party Membership Registration Department.
6. General Affairs Department.

The Board of Information (now known as Ministry of Information) is headed by a minister and two vice-ministers. It comprises the following units and subsidiary organs:

1. Ordinary Publicity Department.
2. International Publicity Department.
3. Arts Publicity Department.
4. Publications Department.
5. Press Department.

6. General Affairs Department.
7. The Central Broadcasting Administration.
8. The Central Cultural Movement Committee.
9. The Central Movie Studio.
10. The Experimental Theatre.
11. The Chinese Cultural Service.
12. The Central Weekly.
13. The Central News Agency.
14. The Central Daily News and other party papers.
15. Books and Periodicals Supply Stations.

The Board of Overseas Affairs is headed by a minister and two vice-ministers. It has the following units:

1. The First Department which takes charge of secretarial, business affairs and statistical work.
2. The Second Department which takes charge of direction, training and registration.
3. The Third Department which takes charge of publicity, editing and social service.

SAN MIN CHU I YOUTH CORPS

The *San Min Chu I* Youth Corps was organized in July, 1938, in accordance with a resolution adopted at the Extraordinary National Congress of the Kuomintang in April, 1938. Considering the establishment of the Corps as "a matter of great importance on which will depend the future of the country," Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, Leader of the Corps, in a manifesto summoned the youth of the country to rally to the support of the national cause under the banners of the Corps. The Generalissimo gave three principal reasons for the organization of the Youth Corps: First, the Corps has the dual purpose of successfully resisting invasion and fulfilling the plans of national reconstruction; second, the Corps is to create new strength for the furtherance of the revolution; third, the Corps is to make the Three People's Principles more effective. The two-fold purpose is to assist in national mobilization and to lay the foundation of a powerful nucleus to carry out future reconstruction.

According to the constitution of the Corps, Chinese youths of both sexes, ranging from 16 to 25 years of age, may apply for membership. Those above 25 years of age may become members

of the Kuomintang. When formally initiated into the Corps, the applicant is required to take the following oath:

"I hereby pledge with the utmost sincerity to abide by the Three People's Principles, to obey orders of the Leader, to observe faithfully the rules of the Corps, to enforce its decisions and to live up to the tenets of the New Life Movement. Both in discharging my duty to the state and in working for the welfare of the people, I will shun no hardship, nor dodge any sacrifice required of me. I am willing to take the severest punishment if I violate my oath."

The organization of the Corps is pyramidal. At its apex is the Leader who has complete authority over the Corps. Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek is the Leader. The highest executive organ is the Central Headquarters, under which are regional offices, district offices, branch offices, *chu* units, and sub-*chu* units. These offices, under chiefs appointed by the Leader, are scattered over the country.

In the Central Headquarters a Council of Secretaries enforces the leader's orders, adopts working plans and organizes and directs branch offices. Nine of the secretaries are on the executive committee, headed by General Chang Chih-chung, Minister of Political Training of the National Military Council, who is secretary-general. Under the Council of Secretaries are departments of organization, training, publicity, social service and women's work. Also in the Central Headquarters there is a Council of Supervisors. The Corps National Congress is to meet once every two years. The first Congress took place in March-April, 1943.

The Corps membership of 500,000 constitutes the cream of Chinese youths, according to Lieutenant-General Kang Tseh, in charge of the organization department of the Corps. Members are working in all parts of China, including enemy occupied regions, and 20 units have been organized by overseas Chinese youths in many parts of the world. Every college or senior middle school in China has a branch of the Corps. More than 60,000 staff workers organize and help train youths in local units, including Mongolian, Tibetan and Moslem youths in the northwestern provinces.

The work of the Corps in war areas and behind enemy lines has produced gratifying results. Some of the workers

have been killed by the enemy, but the work has not been disrupted. The particular task of Corps workers in the war areas is to train the masses and to lead them in effecting "scorched earth" tactics whenever fighting occurs.

Summer camps are held every year for college and middle school students. In the summer of 1941, camps were established in Chungking, Chengtu, Nanyo (Hunan) and Chengku (Shensi). In 1942 the number of camps and of the youths who received training were further increased. There were 2,000 students in the Chungking camp alone. Youth labor camps for technical training were started in the summer, with short-term course in engineering, chemistry, mechanics, mining, animal husbandry, textiles, agriculture, cooperation, accounting, statistics, nursing and home economics.

Social service work includes the opening of youth hostels, youth vocational guidance institutes and educational advisory committees. More than 20 youth hostels are maintained in various parts of the country, housing youths and students from war areas.

KUOMINTANG'S RELATIONS WITH OTHER PARTIES

The Kuomintang's relations with the Chinese Communist Party are both long and complicated. In December, 1922, Mr. A. A. Joffe, the Moscow government's special envoy to China, met Dr. Sun Yat-sen in Shanghai. The following January, the two issued a joint statement, which reads in part as follows:

"Dr. Sun Yat-sen holds that the Communistic order or even the Soviet system cannot actually be introduced into China, because there do not exist here the conditions for the successful establishment of either Communism or Sovietism. This view is entirely shared by Mr. Joffe, who is further of opinion that China's paramount and most pressing problem is to achieve national unification and attain full national independence, and regarding this task, he has assured Dr. Sun Yat-sen that China has the warmest sympathy of the Russian people and can count on the support of Russia."

In January, 1924, the Kuomintang completed its reorganization. An understanding was reached with the Chinese Communist Party whereby individual Chinese communists were allowed to join the Kuomintang "in

order to bolster the strength of revolutionary elements in the country." Li Ta-chao, then an important figure in the Chinese Communist Party, declared:—"In joining the Kuomintang, communists of the Third International are to obey Kuomintang principles, to adhere to Kuomintang discipline, and to participate in the national revolution. They have not the slightest intention of turning the Kuomintang into a communist party. Those communists who join the Kuomintang do so as individuals and not on a party basis."

Soon after they were admitted, however, the communists as an organized body engaged in activities contradictory to the Three People's Principles. At first, they were opposed to the Northern Expedition. After it was launched, they wormed their way into political and military organs, spread their network of surreptitious activities far and wide, conspired to control the masses. Meanwhile, their important leaders gathered in Hankow to create disturbances behind the Nationalist troops, thereby sabotaging the expedition. Later, they openly brought pressure to bear upon the Nationalist troops, and created a reign of terror in Hunan, Hupeh and Kiangsi.

In order to keep the expedition from failure, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek and other Kuomintang leaders gathered in Nanking. In April, 1927, Nanking was declared the national capital of China. Simultaneously, steps were taken to purge the rank and file of the Kuomintang of communists. In July, the same year, the communists adopted a program of armed insurrection. From then on for a period of about eight years, the communists maintained a Red Army and a Soviet form of government over several Central China provinces with their "capital" in Juiking, southern Kiangsi. This was done in deliberate defiance of the National Government at Nanking. Finding it impossible to countenance such acts of insubordination, the National Government resorted to military measures. Numerous suppressive moves were launched. By early 1936, the Government troops had thrown a gradually tightening ring around Juiking. Whereupon, the communists, to avoid destruction, fled westward, crossing many provinces until they finally reached northern Shensi.

The increasing Japanese menace after 1931 and the realization of the futility of further armed opposition to the National Government, made the

communists see the necessity of reconciliation with the Kuomintang. In May, 1936, they appealed to the National Government that the punitive campaign against communist armed forces be ceased in order to join hands against Japanese aggression. Three months later, they repeated their appeal to the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang, and sent delegates to open negotiations with Kuomintang leaders, hoping to reach an agreement.

At the Third Plenary Session of the Fifth Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang held in Nanking in February, 1937, the following concrete proposals from the Chinese Communist Party were discussed:

1. The Chinese Soviet Government shall henceforth be known as the Special Area of the Republic of China, which shall be under control of the National Government and of the National Military Council.
2. In the territory of the Government of the Special Area, a democratic system of government shall obtain.
3. All activities designed to overthrow the National Government shall cease throughout the country.
4. The policy of land confiscation shall be discontinued.

A resolution was passed at the plenary session, which declared that a reconciliation with the Chinese Communist Party could be effected only under the following four conditions:

1. Abolition of the Red Army and its incorporation into the united command of the nation's armed forces.
2. Dissolution of the so-called "Chinese Soviet Republic" and similar organizations and unification of government power in the hands of the Central Government.
3. Absolute cessation of communist propaganda and acceptance of the Three People's Principles.
4. Stoppage of class struggle.

The Chinese Communist Party decided that the Kuomintang conditions were acceptable to them. Thus a reconciliation ensued. In July, 1937, Japan launched her long planned attack on North China. China rose in self-defense. As per the agreement of reconciliation, the National

Government reorganized the communist troops, first into the Eighth Route Army and later into the 18th Group Army and appointed Chu Teh and Peng Teh-huai as commander and deputy-commander. The Chinese Communist Party made a further declaration to the nation on September 22, 1937. The following are the important points in this declaration:

1. In order to safeguard the independence and freedom of the Chinese nation, a war of resistance shall be proclaimed. Only as the result of such a war can the lost provinces be restored, and the sovereignty and territorial integrity of the country be maintained.

2. The Communist Party is prepared to fight for the realization of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's revolutionary principles because they answer the present-day needs of China.

3. The policy of insurrection which aims at the overthrow of the Kuomintang political power, the policy of land-confiscation, and the policy of communist propaganda shall all be disowned and discontinued.

4. With the disappearance of the Chinese Soviet Government, a system of political democracy shall be put into practice, so that the country may be politically unified.

5. The former Red Army which has been reorganized into the Eighth Route Army shall be under the control of the National Military Council, and ever ready to be sent to the front.

In response to this declaration, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek gave the following press interview on September 23, 1937:—"The declaration made by the Chinese Communist Party shows clearly that national interests supersede all other considerations. The points contained in it such as the discontinuance of the policies of insurrection and communist propaganda, the disappearance of the Soviet Government, and the reorganization of the former Red Army, all tend to strengthen the National Government in its resistance to foreign invasion, and correspond to the decision of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang in February, 1937. The reference made by the Communist Party to its readiness to fight for the realization of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's revolutionary principles shows further that the efforts of the entire nation are directed to one

single aim. Since the Communists have discarded their former opinions and have come to realize the importance of national independence and national interests, I hope they will sincerely carry out what is contained in the declaration, and further expect that they will work in unison with the rest of the nation to accomplish the task of national salvation."

THE NEW FOURTH ARMY INCIDENT*

Though the 18th Group Army has caused numerous disturbances in the northern provinces since 1937, the National Government, with a view to preserving national solidarity in the face of a brutal aggressor, has shown the greatest forbearance and leniency in dealing with the ex-Communist troops. In the case of the New Fourth Army, which was formed of remnants of Communist troops south of the Yangtze after the fall of Nanking in December, 1937, the Government was constrained to take disciplinary action in January, 1940, when it became openly defiant of government orders. The New Fourth Army was dissolved, and its commander, Yeh Ting, arrested.

At the 10th Plenary Session of the C.E.C. in November, 1942, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek made known his views on China's internal and external policies. With regard to the Chinese Communist Party, the Generalissimo still championed a tolerant policy. He said that the Chinese Communist Party would be treated on the same plane as all other armed forces and civilians of the nation as long as they would, from now on, obey all laws and orders, refrain from disturbing the social order, organize no army of their own, cease the occupation of places by force, keep from hindering the prosecution of the war, or undermining national unity, and would in accordance with their manifesto of September 22, 1937, in which they expressed their readiness to face the national crisis in cooperation with the rest of the country, obey the orders of the Central Government and work for the realization of the Three People's Principles.

THE NATIONAL SOCIALIST PARTY AND CHINESE YOUTH PARTY

The Kuomintang's relations with the National Socialist Party and the Chinese Youth Party have been much less

* For review of the military aspect of the New Fourth Army Incident, see Chapter VIII "Military Affairs."

complicated. In April, 1938, shortly after the Extraordinary National Congress of the Kuomintang, both these parties exchanged letters with the Kuomintang, declaring their endorsement of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's teachings as guiding principles of China. Following are translations of the exchange of letters:

April 13, 1938.

DEAR GEN. CHIANG,

The declaration issued by the Extraordinary National Congress of the Kuomintang on April 3, 1938, referring to the earnestness of the Kuomintang to seek the friendly cooperation of other political parties, is a most welcome document which prompts me and my colleagues to reciprocate to the best of our abilities. We hold that China, being a nation with a hoary tradition, is bound to come under the influence of traditional systems of thought. The Confucian classics teach a Weltanschauung which allows all things to grow great in common and all systems of philosophy to propagate at the same time and in the same place. Since the interests of the Chinese are catholic, their views do not tend to be biased or exclusive. But recent political conditions in Europe illustrate exactly the opposite situation. The European countries are most exclusive in outlook. The proletariat will not tolerate the capitalist, and the individualist will never care for the welfare of the group. This gives rise to numerous political parties and consequent conflicts and clashes, which we Orientals find it difficult to explain.

Dr. Sun Yat-sen, in the course of his activities for the revolutionary cause, had expounded the principles of racial, political, and economic democracy as the highest ideals for the nation. He would guarantee individual liberty without sacrificing social welfare; he would safeguard national interests without prejudice to the eventual realization of cosmopolitanism. In his attempts to adopt Western political ideals, he never forgot to infuse the traditional Chinese spirit into them. Even the Chinese Communists are relinquishing their class struggle in favor of the war for national liberation; even the totalitarian theorists are being convinced of the inapplicability of Fascism to Chinese conditions.

Nothing better than these facts illustrates more clearly the Chinese love for compromise and the golden mean. This Chinese characteristic mani-

fest itself in politics in the simultaneous application of Confucian and legalistic doctrines of government, and in religion in the simultaneous propagation of Buddhism and Taoism without the least friction such as one so often sees in European history. This feature of the Chinese character is peculiar to us, which we should do well to preserve and to develop. The recent declaration of the Extraordinary National Congress of the Kuomintang is an important document showing how the rule of the golden mean should be applied in practical politics. As the proverb says, "Toleration is productive of beneficial results." If now the Kuomintang shows toleration to all other political parties, a toleration that comes from the innermost depths of the Chinese heart, can there be any doubt that this is a sure sign of the regeneration of the Chinese nation?

We have watched for more than ten years how young people all over the country have been neglecting the fundamental problems and concentrating their attention on nonessential questions, and so we have advocated National Socialism and organized the National Socialist Party with the object of directing their energies into proper channels. The National Socialist Party published a pamphlet some years ago explaining in detail its political program. Though it is impossible to quote it *in extenso* here, I venture to enumerate three points which seem to coincide with the teachings of Dr. Sun Yat-sen.

A. The National Socialist Party advocates Nationalism.—A passage in the program of the National Socialist Party reads:

"We believe that nationalistic sentiments are stronger than class sentiments. If we examine either historical records or present-day conditions, we shall find that whenever nationalistic interests are involved, they always supersede class interests. When the Japanese oppression has reached an unbearable degree, even capitalists and workers, two antagonistic classes of society, are forced to unite in a common effort to resist the enemy. Thus, we can readily see that nationalistic sentiments are deep-rooted and are much stronger than class sentiments. Only the forces of nationality are able to smash class barriers, but no class interests are able to

destroy the unifying force of nationality. Let us take the U.S.S.R. as an example. She owes her success not so much to the spread of the class struggle throughout the world as to the nationalistic character of her socialist reconstruction."

B. The National Socialist Party advocates a Reformed Form of Democratic Government.—A passage in the program of the National Socialist Party reads:

"The reformed form of democratic government which we advocate is one which, while democratic in principle, precludes the possibility of any political party from entrenching itself in the seat of power. This type of government can operate in time of peace whether there are two or more or even no political parties. In a time of critical importance, this type of government is able to unify the nation quickly without distinctions of party or clique. We believe that such a political system is not incapable of being created."

Critics of the democratic form of government are legion since the World War. Italy and Germany, for instance, regard democracy as a degenerate political organization. But we hold that the essential elements of any political society are no more than two, namely, authority and liberty. The former belongs to the state and the latter to the individual citizen. Authority has to be increased in order to attain administrative efficiency and to meet the pressing needs of an emergency. Liberty in the forms of freedom of speech, freedom of the press, freedom of assembly, the right of local self-government, and the right of suffrage, has to be increased in order to cultivate in the individual citizens both the power to take the initiative and a sense of responsibility. With the acquisition of these rights, the citizen will be in a position to participate in practical politics, and will know that, whether writing an article for publication, or speaking in a representative assembly, or deliberating in Cabinet councils, he must express his opinions only after mature deliberation and that fantastic schemes and ridicule have no place in the discussion of practical problems.

In a system of democratic government since the citizen has a chance to take part in the formulation of national policies, his sense of responsibility will

naturally be cultivated and his knowledge of practical politics increased. When a national crisis occurs, it is most important to secure the unification of control and rapidity of execution together with a spirit of cooperation which shows itself in the investiture of the supreme authority in a War Cabinet. Only if democracy is practised in times of peace, will people feel the necessity of a highly centralized control in times of war. Such was the case in the European democratic countries during the World War when they set up their War Cabinets.

C. The National Socialist Party advocates Socialism.—In economic matters, the National Socialist Party expects to see socialism realized. Several passages in its program read:

- "1. In order to guarantee an adequate existence to the individual, to improve both his intellectual and physical capacities, and to better his material conditions, we recognize private property.
- "2. In order to promote general welfare, to encourage national economy, and to adjust individual enterprises, we recognize public property.
- "3. All economic enterprises, whether private or public, shall be subject to government planning. But the actual work of carrying them forward may be left either to the state or to the individual, as the case may be.
- "4. Private property shall be so regulated by the state that everyone shall have a reasonable share but none shall be either excessively rich or excessively poor.
- "5. In order to increase productive efficiency and to contribute to national defense, the state may, by fair and peaceful methods, acquire the products of individual enterprises to serve as the basis of government enterprises."

Judged from the preceding points of view, the program of the National Socialist Party is really much the same as Dr. Sun Yat-sen's racial, political, and economic democracy, though the two may differ somewhat in phraseology. Granted that Dr. Sun's revolutionary principles establish the basis of Chinese national policy, actual conditions change

from time to time and therefore it is impossible to adopt a strictly Procrustean procedure. Furthermore, according to Section 26 of the *Program of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction* in the course of the war, the freedom of speech, the freedom of the press, and the freedom of assembly shall be fully guaranteed to the people, provided they do not contravene Dr. Sun Yat-sen's revolutionary principles or the provisions of the law. This is entirely in accord with the opinion of the National Socialist Party. That is the reason why I have frankly set forth in the present letter the political principles of the National Socialist Party.

But since political problems cannot all be solved by means of a few general principles and there are questions that arise on the spur of the moment that defy an off-hand solution, I and my colleagues are ready to discuss them with government and Kuomintang leaders in a spirit of cordial cooperation.

Finally, let it be pointed out that at the present critical moment, nothing is more important than whole-hearted and unreserved support for the National Government. Of the members of the National Socialist Party, there are not a few who had taken an active part either in the Republican Revolution of 1911, or in the Anti-Yuan Shih-kai Movement of 1916. These persons who had co-operated with Dr. Sun Yat-sen in his revolutionary activities in the early years of the Republic are naturally so much the more attached to the Republican cause. That they will follow your lead in the present struggle is evident from the nature of the case.

Yours sincerely,

CARSON CHANG,

(*Representative of the National Socialist Party*).

Upon receipt of this letter, General Chiang Kai-shek replied in the following terms:

April 15, 1938.

DEAR MR. CHANG:

I take pleasure in acknowledging the receipt of your letter, dated April 13, 1938, in which you state that the program of the National Socialist Party is really much the same as Dr. Sun Yat-sen's racial, political, and economic democracy, that you and your colleagues are ready to discuss all questions with government and Kuomintang leaders in a spirit of cordial cooperation, and that nothing

is more important than whole-hearted and unreserved support for the National Government. I am delighted to find so much sincerity and frankness such as you have shown.

The principles by which the Kuomintang will be guided in its efforts to accomplish the task of armed resistance and national reconstruction are all embodied in the recent declaration issued by the Extraordinary National Congress of the Kuomintang. As I and my colleagues are fully conscious of the gravity of the present situation and of the seriousness of our responsibilities, I am determined to do my utmost in the discharge of my duties. I hope that men of ability will either join the Kuomintang and share in our work, or sympathize with the Kuomintang principles and endeavor to have them realized. As to the freedom of speech, the freedom of press, and the freedom of assembly, these are clearly defined and guaranteed in Section 26 of the *Program of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction*. This guarantee shall serve as the rallying point both for members of the Kuomintang and for non-members in their efforts to achieve national salvation.

Yours sincerely,

CHIANG KAI-SHEK.

The letter from Mr. Tso Shun-sheng, leader of the Chinese Youth Party, to General Chiang Kai-shek reads:

April 21, 1938.

DEAR GEN. CHIANG,

At the present critical moment, though the Chinese Youth Party is convinced of the necessity of a prolonged war and of the likelihood of a victorious outcome, we dare not face the present situation with a light heart. The recent declaration issued by the Extraordinary National Congress of the Kuomintang and its *Program of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction*, which we have received with the utmost goodwill and read with great care, are certainly beneficial to the country if they can be translated into facts.

As one of the objects of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's revolutionary activities had been the assurance of liberty and equality to the Chinese nation, the present war led by the Kuomintang may well be considered a manifestation of this aspect of his teachings. Another object of his had been the establishment of a constitutional regime. Now that

the Extraordinary National Congress of the Kuomintang has decided to create the People's Political Council, and to guarantee the freedom of speech, the freedom of the press, and the freedom of assembly, we welcome this decision both as a preliminary step to the establishment of a constitutional regime, as envisaged by Dr. Sun, and as a satisfactory fulfilment of our demand for democratic government which we have been advocating for a number of years.

Since the National Government is the highest authority of the country by which the war is being carried on, we are determined to support it. If the political principles of the Chinese Youth Party fit into Dr. Sun's definition of his own revolutionary principles as a gospel for national salvation, we are anxious to see the Chinese Youth Party take a part in the work of wartime national reconstruction. We have always placed national interests over individual interests, and though we have not borne any direct political responsibilities during the last fifteen years, we have never relinquished our patriotic fervor and have even occasionally contributed a humble share under the most trying circumstances. As to our accomplishments, it is not for us to judge.

In a word, we have no other wish but to cooperate with the Kuomintang in face of present and future difficulties; we have no other hope but to work in unison with the Kuomintang for the preservation of the nation. We are as frank in the expression of our opinions as we are earnest in trying to see them realized.

Yours sincerely,

TSO SHUN-SHENG.

(Representative of the Chinese Youth Party).

Upon receipt of Mr. Tso's letter, General Chiang Kai-shek replied in the following terms:

April 24, 1938.

DEAR MR. TSO:

I take pleasure in acknowledging the receipt of your letter, dated April 21, 1938, in which you express your opinions on national affairs, identify the political principles of the Chinese Youth Party with Dr. Sun Yat-sen's revolutionary aims, show your whole-hearted support for the National Government and describe yourself as willing to exert your utmost to help in the work of armed resistance and national reconstruction. I am grate-

ful for such a frank expression of your views.

The principles by which the Kuomintang will be guided in its efforts to accomplish the task of armed resistance and national reconstruction have been amply set forth in the recent declaration issued by the Extraordinary National Congress of the Kuomintang. While we are fully conscious of our responsibilities, we must invite the cooperation of others in order to carry out the program drawn up for us by the Congress. The common expectation throughout the country today is the expulsion of the Japanese invader and the realization of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's revolutionary principles. In view of the seriousness of the duties laid upon the Kuomintang, we are anxious to seek the cooperation of all men of ability. If your aim coincides with ours, we shall surely be able to work in unison for the welfare of the nation.

Yours sincerely,

CHIANG KAI-SHEK.

IMPORTANT KUOMINTANG DOCUMENTS

FUNDAMENTALS OF NATIONAL RECONSTRUCTION

(Formulated by Dr. Sun Yat-sen in 1924).

1. The National Government shall reconstruct the Republic of China on the basis of the revolutionary *San Min Chu I* (the Three People's Principles) and the Quintuple-Power Constitution.

2. The primary task of reconstruction is the people's livelihood. Consequently, concerning the four great necessities of the people—food, clothing, shelter and means of travel—the Government should, in cooperation with the people strive together to develop agriculture to feed them; to develop the textile industry to meet their clothing demands; to work out a large-scale housing project to furnish them with better living quarters; to improve and construct roads and canals to facilitate their traveling.

3. Second in importance is the people's sovereignty. The government should train and direct the people in their acquisition of political knowledge and ability, thereby enabling them to exercise the powers of election, recall, initiative and referendum.

4. Third comes nationalism. The government should help and guide the weak and small racial groups within its national boundaries toward self-determination and self-government. It should offer resistance to foreign aggression, and simultaneously it should revise foreign

treaties in order to restore our equality and independence among the nations.

5. The program of national reconstruction shall be divided into three periods:—First the military period; second, the period of political tutelage; third, the constitutional period.

6. In the military period, the whole administrative system shall be placed under military rule. The government on the one hand should employ its armed force to eradicate all internal obstacles and, on the other, disseminate its doctrines to enlighten the people as well as to promote national unity.

7. As soon as a province is completely restored to order, the period of political tutelage will commence and the military period will come to an end.

8. In the period of political tutelage the government should send persons, qualified through training and examination, to various *hsien* (counties) to assist the people in the preparation of self-government. A *hsien* may elect a magistrate for the execution of its administrative affairs and elect representatives for the deliberation and making of its laws in order to become a completely self-governed *hsien*, when a census of the whole *hsien* has been properly taken; a survey of its land has been completed; its police and local defense forces have been satisfactorily maintained; road-building and repairing within its boundaries have been successfully carried out; and its people have received training in the exercise of the four powers, fulfilled their duties as citizens, and pledged themselves to carry out the revolutionary principles.

9. Citizens in a completely self-governed *hsien* shall directly have the power of election, the power of recall, the power of initiative, and the power of referendum.

10. Every *hsien*, at the commencement of self-government, shall first assess the value of private land in the whole *hsien*, which value is to be declared by the landowner. The local government shall tax private land on the basis of the value assessed, and at any time may buy it on the same basis. If, after this assessment the land increases in value as a result of political advancement or social progress, such unearned increment should be shared by the people in the whole *hsien*, and should not be kept by the landowners as private benefit.

11. Annual receipts from land tax, unearned increment, products of public land, yields from mountains, forests, rivers and lakes, proceeds from mineral deposits and water power, all belong to the local government, and shall be used for the operation of local public enterprises of the people, for the care of the young and the aged, the poor and the sick, for famine relief, as well as to meet various public demands.

12. In various *hsien*, natural resources and large-scale industrial and commercial enterprises, the opening and development of which lie beyond the means of these *hsien* and require external capital, should be opened and developed with the help of the Central Government. Net profits so realized shall be divided equally between the Central and the local governments.

13. With regard to its obligation to the Central Government every *hsien* shall give a certain percentage of its annual revenue towards the Central Government's annual expenditure. Such percentage shall be determined each year by citizens' delegates, but it shall not be lower than 10 per cent or more than 50 per cent of the *hsien* revenue.

14. Every *hsien*, upon its adoption of self-government, may elect one delegate for the formation of a representative body to participate in political affairs of the Central Government.

15. All candidates and appointed officials, whether belonging to the Central or the local government, shall be persons found qualified in the examinations held by the Central Government or adjudged qualified by the personnel registration organ of the Central Government.

16. The constitutional period will commence in a province when all the *hsien* of the province have attained complete self-government. The body of citizens' delegates may elect a Governor to supervise self-government of the province. In matters involving national administration the Governor shall be subject to the direction of the Central Government.

17. In this period the authority of the Central Government and that of the provincial government shall be kept in equilibrium. Matters which by nature require uniform action on the part of the nation shall be assigned to the Central Government; matters which by nature should be dealt with locally shall be assigned to the local government. There is no tendency either to the centralization or to the decentralization of power.

18. The *hsien* is a unit of local self-government. The province stands between the Central Government and the *hsien* to bring about closer relationship between them.

19. As soon as the constitutional period begins, the Central Government should complete the formation of the five Yuan to experiment on a quintuple-power government. The five Yuan are named in the following order:—the Executive Yuan, the Legislative Yuan, the Judicial Yuan, the Examination Yuan and the Control Yuan.

20. The Executive Yuan shall tentatively have the following ministries: (1) The Ministry of the Interior; (2) The Ministry of Foreign Affairs; (3) The Ministry of Military Affairs; (4) The Ministry of Finance; (5) The Ministry

of Agriculture and Mining; (6) The Ministry of Labor and Commerce; (7) The Ministry of Education; (8) The Ministry of Communications.

21. Before the promulgation of a Constitution, the presidents of the five Yuan shall be appointed or removed and directed by the President (of the National Government).

22. The draft of the Constitution should be prepared by the Legislative Yuan in accordance with the *Fundamentals of National Reconstruction* and the achievements in the period of political tutelage and the constitutional period. It should, from time to time, be made public to the people in order to facilitate its adoption when the proper time comes.

23. When more than one half of the provinces have reached the constitutional period, that is when they have completely adopted local self-government, the People's Congress shall be convened to decide on and promulgate the Constitution.

24. After the promulgation of the Constitution the governing power of the Central Government shall be returned to the People's Congress for execution. That is, the People's Congress shall exercise the powers of election and recall in regard to officials of the Central Government, as well as the powers of initiative and referendum in regard to the laws of the Central Government.

25. The day of the promulgation of the Constitution marks the culmination of constitutional government. All citizens of the nation shall, in accordance with the Constitution, hold a general election. The National Government shall be dissolved within three months after the completion of the election and shall be succeeded by the new popularly-elected government. Whereupon the great task of national reconstruction will be regarded as accomplished.

THE KUOMINTANG'S POLITICAL PROGRAM

(Adopted by the First Party National Congress in January, 1924.)

A. FOREIGN POLICIES

1. All unequal treaties such as foreign leased territories, concessions and settlements, consular jurisdiction, foreign control of customs, and any form of foreign political power within Chinese territory that is detrimental to Chinese sovereignty, should be abolished, and in their place treaties which are equal and respect the sovereignty of both parties should be concluded.

2. China shall recognize all states which voluntarily relinquish their special rights and voluntarily renounce treaties detrimental to Chinese sovereignty as most-favored nations.

3. Other treaties concluded between China and the various Powers which are damaging to China's interests should be altered in

accordance with the principle of non-detriment to the sovereign rights of both parties.

4. China's foreign loans, so long as they are not detrimental to Chinese political and industrial interests, shall be guaranteed and repaid.

5. All Boxer indemnity funds should be used for educational purposes.

6. Foreign loans concluded by irresponsible governments within Chinese territory, such as the Peking Government which bribed its way into power, were not designed to promote the people's welfare but to maintain the position of the warlords concerned so that they could enrich themselves. The Chinese people have no obligation to repay such loans.

7. Professional groups such as bankers' associations and chambers of commerce and social bodies such as educational institutions in various provinces should be summoned to form an assembly to devise ways and means of redeeming foreign loans in order to free China from the lower than colonial status into which foreign loan obligations have plunged her.

B. DOMESTIC POLICIES

1. The principle of equilibrium should be adopted in the demarcation of powers between the Central Government and the local governments. All matters which by nature are national in character shall be assigned to the Central Government, while matters local in nature shall be assigned to the local governments. There shall be inclination toward neither centralization nor decentralization.

2. People in various provinces may decide on their own constitutions and elect their own governors, but provincial constitutions must not conflict with the national constitution. The governors on the one hand should supervise self-government affairs in the provinces and on the other should administer national affairs under the direction of the Central Government.

3. The *hsien* (county) shall be the unit of local self-government. People in a self-governing *hsien* shall have the direct power of election and recall of officials, initiative and referendum.

Receipts from the land tax, unearned increment on land value, the yield from public land, and products from the mountains, forests, rivers, and lakes, and wealth from mineral deposits and water power should all belong to the local governments and should be used to finance public enterprises, and to bring up the young, to take care of the old, to relieve the poor, to succor victims of disaster, to undertake public health projects and to meet other public needs.

The development of natural resources in the *hsien* and large-scale industrial and commercial projects which lie beyond the financial abilities of the *hsien* concerned should receive assistance from the state. Profits made shall be divided

equally between the Central Government and the local governments.

With regard to its obligation to the state, the *hsien* should give a certain percentage of its annual receipts as a contribution to the national revenue. The amount should not be less than 10 per cent and not more than 50 per cent.

4. The system of popular suffrage should be put into force. Class election based on property qualifications should be abolished.

5. Laws governing various kinds of examination should be enacted to supplement the system of election.

6. The people shall have complete freedom of organization, assembly, speech, publication, domicile and religion.

7. The existing system of recruiting shall be gradually replaced by conscription. Attention shall be paid to the bettering of the economic conditions of junior officers and men and to the raising of their legal status. Agricultural and professional education shall be propagated among the armed forces. The qualifications of military officers shall be strictly regulated and the system of appointment and dismissal of military officers shall be reformed.

8. The legal rate of land tax shall be strictly stipulated and all levies in excess of the legal rate shall be prohibited. For example, *likin* and other taxes like it shall be abolished and never renewed.

9. A complete census shall be taken, arable land improved, and the production and consumption of foodstuffs adjusted to insure an adequate supply of foodstuffs for the people.

10. The rural organization shall be reformed to improve the livelihood of the farming populace.

11. Labor laws shall be enacted to improve the workmen's living conditions, to protect labor organizations and to foster their development.

12. Both legally, economically, educationally and socially, the principle of sex equality shall be definitely laid down to help the growth of women's rights.

13. Education shall be popularized and efforts shall be made towards the development of child education. The existing system of education shall be readjusted and funds for educational purposes shall be increased and steps shall be taken to safeguard the independence of these funds.

14. The state shall enact a Land Law, a Land Employment Law, a Land Requisition Law and a Land Value Tax Law. The value of private land shall be assessed by its owner and reported to the government, and the state shall impose taxes on the basis of the assessment. When necessary, the state may buy over the land in accordance with the value reported by the owner.

15. Enterprises which are monopolistic in nature and the development of which lies beyond private means, such as railways and navigation, shall be undertaken and managed by the state.

MANIFESTO OF THE EXTRAORDINARY NATIONAL CONGRESS OF THE KUOMINTANG

(*Hankow, April 1, 1938*) (*Abridged*)

China is at present prosecuting a war of resistance on a scale unprecedented in her history of 4,000 years. The motive of the present war is to resist the aggression of Japanese imperialism, to save the country from danger and extinction and, at the same time, to expedite the task of national reconstruction.

Japanese imperialism seeks, politically, to divest China of her independence and freedom and, economically, peg her down to a position of permanent productive backwardness and make her a commercial vassal state of Japan. The present danger is, therefore, incomparable to any of the military and political setbacks which she experienced in the past. For this reason, we must make every effort to fight for the existence and independence of our nation and people and, simultaneously, in accordance with the Three People's Principles, continue without interruption and push on our task of political and economic reconstruction, so that China will have a status of freedom and equality in the family of nations.

We know well that if peaceful circumstances had been obtaining, it would be much easier for China to achieve her reconstruction. But since Japan's imperialistic designs would not permit it, double responsibilities of resisting foreign invasion on one hand and reconstructing the country on the other fall on our shoulders at the same time.

After the sudden occurrence of the Lukouchiao Incident in July, 1937, our Comrade Chiang Kai-shek warned the nation that the ultimate crisis had arrived, because since the signing of the Tangku Agreement, China had endured every humiliation in her intercourse with Japan in the hope that by peaceful means she could preserve her northern provinces and gradually seek a reasonable solution to the problem of the four Northeastern provinces.

It has been the lowest aspiration of China to, politically, preserve her territorial and administrative integrity and, economically, co-operate with all other nations on principles of equality and reciprocity. Japan, however, regarded all these aspirations with disdain and intensified her plan of aggression.

Japan is still declaring that she has no territorial ambitions in China. But territorial right is indivisible. If China could not maintain her rights and administrative integrity on her own territory, then the so-called territory would lose

all its meaning. Similarly, if economic co-operation is not based on the principles of equality and reciprocity, it at once becomes pure robbery.

We had borne the heaping of insults and humiliations with the greatest degree of endurance, hoping for Japan's ultimate awakening. At the Fifth National Congress, we still declared; "We will not give up peace while there is the slightest hope for it; we will not talk lightly of sacrifice when we have not reached the limit of endurance." While this policy was closely adhered to, Japan, spurning all efforts for a peaceful settlement, suddenly attacked Lukouchiao, occupied Peiping and Tientsin, murdered our people, stole our property and destroyed both our cultural and economical structures. The atrocities committed by Japanese troops in China are unprecedented in history and unequalled anywhere in the world.

The real intention of Japan was to subjugate the northern provinces by means of terrorist methods. But these provinces are an integral part of China. They are the birthplace of Chinese civilization and the inner heart of China's economic structure. Without these provinces, China would find it impossible to develop into a modern state and to exist in the world. With them forever lost, China's future would be doomed.

This is why we regard the present time as a critical moment and, since it has come, we must face it with great determination, courage and willingness for sacrifice.

Since the beginning of the total warfare casualties among our officers and men have amounted to no less than 500,000. Innumerable unarmed civilians have been ruthlessly murdered by the enemy. Decency forbids us from telling the tales of shame and torture committed on our women. Both public and private buildings have been reduced to ashes.

But the blood of our fellow-countrymen and comrades will not be shed in vain when we shall have secured our final victory, recovered our territorial and administrative integrity, and made possible the rebirth of our nation, independent and equal in the family of nations. We must struggle to reach that goal. We should not stop halfway. To attain that object, we shall not shrink from sacrifices.

We must solemnly declare, however, that our primary desire is peace and our greatest hope is also peace. But the peace we desire must be such as will enable us to self-exist internally and co-exist with other nations externally. Such will be the real and permanent peace. Peace not based on justice is not peace, but submission. Peace prevents aggression while submission only invites it. China's submission to Japan would not only destroy the existence of the Chinese race, but would bring about a series of military campaigns which

would affect the peace of the world and saddle the Japanese people themselves with intolerable military expenses. The fire of military aggression, kindled in East Asia, would one day spread all over the world and subject all human beings to the horrors of slaughter and destruction.

The object of China's present war of resistance is the permanent peace of East Asia. China entertains no animosity against the Japanese people but hopes that they will bring their militarists to their senses. Japan, by her aggressive acts, has upset the equilibrium of nations in the Far East and has incurred the indignation of all human beings. It is, therefore, expected that the intelligentsia of Japan will wake up in time to save their country from disaster.

China, however, has on her side the favorable opinion and moral support of the world. All peace-loving countries have expressed their sympathy for China and censured Japan. However, it is to be deplored that foreign nations, prevented by their internal troubles and swayed by a desire to wait and see, have not yet come forward in a body to assert their rights, protect their interests and discharge their responsibility of upholding peace and checking aggression.

China has the Three People's Principles as her highest ideal and will strive for its realization. She is not allowed to waver or hesitate under difficult circumstances.

Economically speaking, industrial schemes laid down in the late Dr. Sun Yat-sen's *Plans for National Reconstruction* have definitely pointed out that foreign investments for the development of China's natural resources are always welcome. Any foreign country which desires to enter into economic cooperation with China on the basis of equality and reciprocity will be welcome. This is the fixed economic policy of China which allows no alteration or modification.

As to her foreign relations, China will always adhere to the following two principles: (1) Strictly to observe all treaties for the maintenance of international peace to which she is a party; and (2) continuously to strive for the development of the existing good relationships with foreign countries.

China, knowing her own economic poverty and military weakness, has been striving for her own advancement and development in order to attain a position of freedom and equality among the nations. Even in this period of unprecedented crisis, she is relying on nothing but her own efforts in a struggle to deliver herself from the danger of enslavement. She does not expect anything from her neighbors which she does not deserve.

There is something, however, of which we feel obliged to remind all advanced nations. That is the indivisibility of world peace. Benefit or detriment to a part is the same to the whole. Therefore, when a country seeks the security

of the world, it seeks that of her own. This is why all nations should strive with concerted efforts to safeguard world peace as a whole by applying sanctions against aggressors in order that the war in East Asia may be put to an early end and the world crisis which is now fermenting here and there may be averted. This will not benefit China alone, but all countries in the world.

The internal policy of China, in fact, coincides with her foreign policy. All China's reconstructive endeavors are based on the Three People's Principles from which both her internal and external policies derive their origins. China externally seeks the position of freedom and equality among nations and works to attain that goal. Acting upon this principle, she resists aggression and works for her own rehabilitation simultaneously. Her resistance does in no way retard or affect her reconstruction efforts. The latter must be carried out hand in hand with the former and not after the successful conclusion of hostilities. This is why we say that the day when we secure our victory will also be the day when we complete our reconstruction and attain the position of freedom and equality among the nations.

At present, when the suffering of the people is being intensified every day, every dutiful citizen has risen and rallied around this Party to form a united front against the enemy. They do not shrink from difficulties, nor do they dodge dangers and perils. Many months have passed and their determination has never shown any sign of weakening, but grows stronger every day. Our comrades in arms have withstood the enemy day and night under hailstorms of bullets and shells. Their fearless spirit is their armor and their flesh and blood are their castles and ramparts. The second line steps up as soon as the first line falls. Their bodies may perish but their spirit never wavers.

The producing elements of the population cheerfully contribute the fruit of their sweat and toil to strengthen the nation's resistance and to alleviate its suffering. The patriotism and perseverance of the peasants and laborers are especially praiseworthy.

It is, therefore, the bounden duty of the Government to afford full protection to these officers and men fighting on various fronts and the general populace who work for the common cause. The welfare of the fighting men's families, the pensioning of the disabled soldiers, medical care for the wounded, relief of the war refugees, aids to the unemployed and all other tasks which have been planned and begun, should be carried on and improved to perfection so that both our armed comrades and peaceful citizens will enjoy their livelihood and will in turn further strengthen the national resistance.

But the greatest consolation to the dead and also the highest reward for the living will be ultimate victory and national reconstruction. It is, therefore, the duty of all Party members and our comrades to realize the general aspirations of the entire populace.

There are, however, two other things which must not be over-looked in the bustle of war. The first is the elevation of the moral standard of the people. The nation's rebirth depends greatly upon the people's sense of responsibility, patriotism and willingness to sacrifice their private interests for the common good of the nation. World peace also depends upon the promotion of love among mankind. In fact, China's sustaining power in the present hostilities lies chiefly in the latent moral quality of her people which, for the same reason, should be further developed and glorified.

The second is the advancement of science studies. The promotion of natural sciences, from the technical point of view, will aid the present war in no uncertain degree and the promotion of social sciences will accelerate the coordination and systematic development of social institutions. Both the moral elevation of the people and the advancement of science studies work hand in hand towards the ultimate goal of military victory and national reconstruction.

China is at present undergoing great difficulties unprecedented in her history of more than 4,000 years and the present war of resistance is also unprecedented in her long history.

Ever since the beginning of hostilities, the Central Executive Committee has with a unanimous vote vested our Comrade Chiang Kai-shek with powers to unify the command of all Party, political and military matters and shoulder the responsibility of bringing about a successful conclusion of both military resistance and economic reconstruction.

The whole nation has now rallied under his command and has begun an onward march on the road of sure success and victory. The experience gained during the past few months has amply shown us that with concerted efforts and regulated steps, coupled with diligence, courage, and unselfishness, the enemy, however strong, will be crushed and the final goal, however distant, will be reached.

The Extraordinary National Congress of the Kuomintang with the profoundest sincerity and highest respect hereby declares to our fellow-countrymen throughout the country and abroad that hereafter we shall utilize our valuable experience and make redoubled efforts, under the common faith of the Three People's Principles, to forge the hearts of 450,000,000 people into one heart and to combine the strength of 450,000,000 people into one force, to serve the country with faith and loyalty and to obey the command of our leader so that the highest

aspirations may be realized and the noblest mission may be fulfilled. May the spirit of our *Tsungli*, who is in heaven, witness this!

PROGRAM OF ARMED RESISTANCE AND NATIONAL RECONSTRUCTION

(Adopted by the Extraordinary Kuomintang National Congress on April 1, 1938.)

The Kuomintang is leading the entire nation in carrying on armed resistance and national reconstruction. Success in both tasks will require not only the efforts of members of this Party but also the acceptance of responsibility by the people as a whole in a united endeavor. Consequently, this Party has deemed it necessary to call on the people to abandon their prejudices and sink their differences in favor of oneness of purpose and unity in action. For this particular reason, at its Extraordinary National Congress this Party has formulated and adopted various principles governing diplomacy, military affairs, politics, economic affairs, mass movement and education, and caused their promulgation for general observance so that the nation's strength may be collected and general mobilization may be attained. These principles are as follows:

I. GENERAL PROVISIONS

1. The Three People's Principles and other teachings bequeathed by *Tsungli* (Dr. Sun Yat-sen) are hereby declared as the highest authority regulating all war activities and the work of national reconstruction.

2. The nation's war strength shall be centralized under the leadership of this Party and of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek in order to make possible the fullest progress.

II. DIPLOMACY

3. In accordance with the spirit of independence and sovereignty, China is prepared to ally herself with all states and peoples that sympathize with her cause, and to wage a common struggle for peace and justice.

4. China is prepared to exert her utmost to uphold and increase the authority of any international peace structure as well as all treaties and conventions that aim at safeguarding world peace.

5. China is prepared to ally herself with all forces that are opposed to Japanese imperialism in order to check Japanese aggression and to establish and maintain a lasting peace in East Asia.

6. China is prepared to improve still further the existing friendly relations with various nations in order to win greater sympathy for her cause.

7. All bogus political organizations which Japan has set up in Chinese territory now under her military occupation, and all their actions, both internal and external, are declared null and void.

III. MILITARY AFFAIRS

8. Political training in the army shall be intensified in order to familiarize all officers and men with the meaning of armed resistance and national reconstruction and to make them, one and all, ready to lay down their lives for the nation.

9. All able-bodied citizens shall be trained; the people's military ability for self-defense shall be strengthened; military units engaged in war shall be reinforced; and overseas Chinese who have returned to offer their services at the front shall be given special training in the light of their skills and abilities to fit them for participation in the defense of their fatherland.

10. People in various localities who have their own arms shall receive direction and support from the Government; under the command of the various war area commanders, they shall cooperate with the regular troops in military operations for the defense of their homeland against external foes, and also for the purpose of starting widespread guerilla warfare in the enemy's rear in order to destroy and harass enemy forces.

11. In order to heighten military morale and boost the people's enthusiasm for national mobilization, both the wounded and dependants of the killed shall be looked after, the disabled shall be rehabilitated, the families of soldiers shall be given preferential consideration.

IV. POLITICS

12. An organ shall be set up for the people to participate in affairs of state, thereby unifying the national strength and collecting the best minds and views for facilitating the formulation and execution of national policies.

13. The *hsien* (county) shall be taken as the basic unit in which self-defense organizations shall be strengthened through training the people and increasing their power, and in which conditions for local self-government shall be fulfilled as soon as possible in order to provide a strong political and social foundation during wartime and to pave the way for constitutionalism.

14. There shall be a thorough reform in the machinery of all grades of government with the object of simplifying it and making it rational, and administrative efficiency shall be heightened in order to meet the needs of war.

15. The conduct of officials of all ranks shall conform to rules; they shall be dutiful, ready to sacrifice themselves for the country, observe discipline and obey orders so that they may serve as models for the people; those disloyal to their duty and obstructing the prosecution of the war shall be court-martialed.

16. Corrupt officials shall be severely punished and their property shall be confiscated.

V. ECONOMIC AFFAIRS

17. Economic reconstruction shall concern itself mainly with matters of military importance and, in addition, with matters that contribute to the improvement of the people's livelihood. With these objects in view a planned economy shall be put into operation, investments by people both at home and abroad shall be encouraged, and large-scale wartime production shall be undertaken.

18. The greatest measure of energy shall be devoted to the development of rural economy, the encouragement of cooperative enterprises, the regulation of foodstuffs with regard to their demand and supply, the cultivation of wasteland and the improvement of irrigation installations.

19. Mining shall be undertaken, the foundations for heavy industries shall be laid, light industries shall be encouraged, and handicraft industries in the various provinces shall be developed.

20. Wartime taxes shall be levied and the financial administration shall be thoroughly reformed.

21. The banking business shall be controlled so that industrial and commercial activities may be properly adjusted.

22. The position of *fapi* (legal tender) shall be fortified, foreign exchange shall be controlled and imports and exports shall be regulated, all for the sake of financial stability.

23. The communication systems shall be reorganized, connecting transportation by waterways, overland routes and airways shall be instituted, more railways and highways shall be built and more airlines shall be opened.

24. No hoarding, speculation and manipulation shall be allowed, and a system of price stabilization shall be enforced.

VI. MASS MOVEMENT

25. The people throughout the country shall be aroused and organized into occupational groups such as unions of farmers, laborers, merchants and students. The rich shall be asked to contribute in money and the able-bodied shall contribute in labor service. All classes of people shall be mobilized for the war.

26. The freedom of speech, the freedom of the press and the freedom of assembly shall be fully protected by law, in the course of the war, provided they do not contravene the Three People's Principles which are the nation's highest principles, and provided they are within the scope of laws and ordinances.

27. Refugees from the war areas and unemployed people shall receive relief and shall be organized and trained so that their services may be available for the war.

28. The people's national consciousness shall be promoted so that they may assist the

Government in eradicating reactionaries. Traitors shall be severely punished and their property shall be confiscated in accordance with law.

VII. EDUCATION

29. Both the educational system and teaching material shall be revised. A program of wartime education shall be instituted with emphasis on the cultivation of the people's morals, and the enhancement of scientific research and the expansion of necessary facilities.

30. Technical personnel of all kinds shall be trained and given proper assignment in order to meet the needs of war.

31. Youths shall be given training to enable them to work in the war areas or rural districts.

32. Women shall be given training so that they may be of service to social enterprises and thereby of help to the nation's war strength.

MANIFESTO OF THE EIGHTH PLenary SESSION OF THE FIFTH C.E.C.

The following is an abstract of the Manifesto issued by the Eighth Plenary Session of the Fifth Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang in April, 1941.

The nation is now in the heat of armed resistance against a brutal foe whose troops have occupied portions of our territory. On China's part a good national foundation has barely been laid. Simultaneously, the world is undergoing incessant changes. During this period of trial and tribulation, the Chinese people should work faster and strive harder to expel the invaders and push our reconstruction program to a successful conclusion. Only in this way can we acquit ourselves of the task bequeathed to us by the Father of our Republic and by our revolutionary martyrs.

Now that the plenary session has come to an end, we wish to set forth the following points as objectives of our people's common endeavors in the future.

First, China's resistance has become a basic power to check the enemy in the Pacific. It also constitutes an important pivot on which turns mankind's peace or peril, beatitude or disaster. The situation today differs greatly from that which existed at the beginning of our resistance. The close relationship between China's resistance and the re-establishment of world peace has become increasingly manifest as more of the enemy's aggressionist designs have been exposed. We feel encouraged by and grateful to Soviet Russia, Great Britain and the United States for their profound sympathy and larger assistance. But in order to measure up to their expectations, we must continue to gain in strength. We need to safeguard the independence and continuous existence of our nation and at the same time discharge our share

of the common duty toward peace and security in the Pacific.

Of late, the Japanese militarists who were responsible for the absurd slogan "New Order of Greater East Asia," have given lip service to another ridiculous theory known as the "Eight Corners of the World Under One Roof." The public in Europe and America are puzzled by this strange phraseology. In reality, however, it means nothing more than "domination of the world." It is an open admission of Japan's inordinate ambition for "world conquest" such as was stated in the Tanaka Memorial.

From China's point of view, the main objective of Japan's present southward move is to conquer this country. To other nations, it should provide an insight into the scope of Japanese aggressionist schemes. They must not allow themselves to be taken in by deceiving words or by clever arguments. Today the situation is such that an enemy rampant is incompatible to the existence of China or to peace and security in East Asia. If the enemy should succeed in his invasion of China and the South Seas, the world will experience endless calamities from now on. Consequently, the outcome of China's resistance is inseparably bound up with the peace or peril in East Asia as well as with the beatitude or disaster of the world.

Second, a nation depends primarily on its defense organization to safeguard its existence and development, and the first task in national reconstruction is to build an army. Since it effected the unification of the country, the National Government has exerted constant efforts to organize a national army, to unify military administration and army command, and to improve military equipment and material. This explains the strength and tenacity which our army has demonstrated in the present war. But it should further be stressed that the existence of an army hinges on its discipline, which, in turn, is based on the statutes and laws of the nation. The latter again have their roots in the fundamental principle for national existence. The highest principles guiding our nation in war and reconstruction were clearly stated in the preamble of the *Program of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction*. Furthermore, the *Program of National Spiritual Mobilization* has laid down the following points as essential to the defeat of the enemy and our victory.

1. Not to act contrary to the highest principle of China's national revolution, namely, the *San Min Chu I*;

2. Not to propagate ideology which transcends the nation nor to express opinions which tend to impair the oneness of the state;

3. Not to sabotage military administration, army command and the system of political administration;

4. Not to take advantage of the war situation for any objective other than the interest of the country.

These are the common creeds which the entire people and army should follow.

Third, the simultaneous pursuance of resistance and reconstruction has been our fixed policy since the beginning of the war. The nation we are striving to build is a *San Min Chu I* Republic which was clearly stipulated in the Draft Permanent Constitution promulgated by the National Government in 1936. It was for the realization of this very objective and ideal that innumerable martyrs before the inauguration of the Republic and countless revolutionary warriors since its foundation so gallantly laid down their lives. It was further clearly defined in the same document that "All races of the Republic of China are component parts of the Chinese nation," "All citizens of the Republic of China shall be equal before the law," and "The sovereignty of the Republic of China is vested in the whole body of citizens."

The creation of a nation of the people, by the people, and for the people was the objective of the Father of our Republic in his life-long efforts, and it is the ideal toward which we have been faithfully striving. Therefore, even with the nation at war, continuous efforts for the promotion of constitutionalism have been made. The convening of the People's Political Council and the establishment of provisional People's Political Councils in the provinces and municipalities are concrete indications of this trend. Our resolution to bring about democracy in this country has proved firmer with the lapse of time. In the light of the painful experiences the nation has gone through since the beginning of the Republic, we conclude that unless we make rapid progress in basic work of local self-government, we will never succeed in laying a solid foundation for democracy.

Fourth, the people's livelihood should receive first consideration in reconstruction. The outcome of a war is often decided by economic factors. In the case of China today, material reconstruction is equally as urgent as military replenishment, and it must further be realized that economic reconstruction is the foundation for all other activities. However, economic reconstruction must have as its most important objective the strengthening of our national defense, for only when we can defend ourselves can we direct our efforts toward enriching our means of sustenance. This is too evident to call for any further comment.

We must be careful, however, in our thought and prudent in our judgment. If the improvement of the people's livelihood is used only as a pretext to instigate class struggle, it will result in social turmoil and will lead to the decentralization of the nation's efforts and resources and will therefore, hinder economic reconstruction.

Such attempts are incompatible to the welfare of the nation and military principles. Meanwhile, if the freedom of business is used as an excuse for hoarding and manipulation or as an argument against the policy of economic control, the resultant anarchy in economic situation will cause serious social perils in time of war. Such attempts, too, cannot be tolerated if the spirit of the Three People's Principles is to be upheld.

The Principle of the People's Livelihood as laid down by the Father of our Republic aims at safeguarding the livelihood of the great majority of the Chinese people. Our efforts in economic reconstruction today, therefore, should go to strengthen the national defense as a means of insuring the safety of the Chinese nation and to plan for the livelihood of the people as a whole in order to maintain social stability. This admits neither attempts to raise the livelihood of individuals that are prejudicial to national defense, nor attempts to exercise personal freedom that may affect social order in the rear.

The consumption of material supplies must be placed under strict control. Agricultural and industrial production must be increased by positive measures. All economic undertakings of the people must be protected and regulated by law. Only thus can China stand a protracted war and fight to win a final victory.

This plenary session, on the basis of the teachings of the Father of our Republic, has made an exhaustive study of a wartime economic policy. It has decided in favor of readjustment in the system of revenue collection by placing the land tax under the National Government. The purpose is to pave the way for the realization of the *Plans for National Reconstruction* and this Party's land policy. It has also decided to enforce food control, to introduce government monopoly in the sale of all daily necessities and to enforce a policy of economic control as a whole. In this manner it is hoped to keep the distribution of supplies of the people well balanced.

This plenary session wishes today to place solemnly before the nation the aforementioned four points as the goal of common endeavors. All of our beloved fellow-countrymen must know that although our strength for resistance is now greater than before, and that changes in the international situation have been increasingly favorable to us, victory cannot be had by sitting idle. Henceforth, we hope all our fellow-countrymen will strengthen their spirit of endurance and perseverance (sleeping on straw and tasting bile) and strive to reach further heights of enthusiasm. Let everybody live up to the principles of self-denial and thrift and encourage one another in the pursuit of our national cause. Let us all be of one heart and work together so that we may win in war and succeed in reconstruction.

MANIFESTO OF THE NINTH PLENARY SESSION OF THE FIFTH C.E.C.

The following is an abstract of the Manifesto issued by the 9th Plenary Session of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang in December, 1941.

The Manifesto of the 9th Plenary Session recalls that in March the 8th Plenary Session of the Committee in a similar declaration stressed the value of Chinese resistance to the whole world and expressed the determination of the Chinese people to persevere in their struggle until the invaders were driven from Chinese soil and their ambition so chastised that they should never again attempt to dominate Asia and break the peace of the world. During the nine months that have since passed the Chinese armies have continued to wear the enemy down and involve them deeper and deeper in the embarrassments of protracted warfare. Then on the 8th of the present month the Japanese proceeded to add to their former enormities a crime unprecedented in human history by precipitating war in the Pacific. China immediately declared war on Japan and her allies, and Generalissimo Chiang gave expression to the will of the Chinese people to do all in their power to advance the campaign against the common enemy. The present session has been sitting simultaneously with the opening stage of this new conflict. Looking back over the past four years and more of resistance and looking forward into the future the session is impressed with the great mission and onerous duties with which the nation is charged. In this Manifesto, therefore, it outlines the nature of the pressing tasks to which the efforts of Government and people should henceforth be devoted.

First, it holds that a deeper and sounder faith in the Three People's Principles is called for. These principles guided Dr. Sun in his conduct of the revolution whereby he sought to save both China and the world. He saw that the progress of human society depends upon the solution of the problems of man's ways of life and that all these problems may be brought under the three heads of nationhood, sovereignty and livelihood. On a foundation of the traditional conceptions of Chinese morality he built a system incorporating the egalitarian and humanist spirit of modern times. He believed that national rehabilitation brought about by the revolution would open up the way to the ultimate goal of world unity. The Three People's Principles, therefore, constitute a body of political truths of unrivalled value for humanity in its present circumstances. The Eight Points of the Roosevelt-Churchill Manifesto are in perfect agreement with them in all that concerns the freedom and independence of nations, equality of economic status and cooperation in the pursuit of economic progress and social security,

and the Chinese people, therefore, accords that manifesto its whole-hearted approval. It believes that the present war against the aggressor nations is aimed at providing a guarantee for the freedom and security of all nations great and small, and averting any repetition of such disastrous warfare in the future. To that end it is prepared to contribute the utmost measure of its manpower and resources. We desire to see the nations opposing aggression, achieve military, political and economic collaboration and complete solidarity of purpose in carrying the war to a successful conclusion attended by the establishment of a world order allowing of permanent peace and equality of economic opportunity among all countries. The Session expects of all citizens at home and abroad the fullest realization of the part China has to play in the endeavor to remove from the world the terror of aggression and restore the reign of justice and peace.

Second, the Manifesto dwells on the need for more thorough conformity of ways of life to the exigencies of wartime and the more effective mobilization of our strength and resources. The issue is one of goodwill in conflict with brute force and of truth against falsehood and therefore the result is not to be doubted, but war is a perilous undertaking and permits of no negligence in its prosecution. The fact that despite the abundance of our resources of men and material, we have yet failed after years of war to drive the invaders from our soil, must cause us severely to reflect upon our shortcomings. Modern war engages the total strength of nations and victory depends upon the ability to bring to bear the united will and devotion of the people in the service of the ideals for which they are fighting. It must inspire us to think that those ideals embrace the well-being of all mankind in addition to the preservation of our own national existence. Every man and every ounce of material has to be made to yield the maximum of utility to the national war effort, the whole nation operating as one fighting unit wherein all military, economic, educational and social considerations are subordinated to the demands of the war, and of the part we have to play in collaboration with the powers in whose company we are waging it.

Third, the Session desires to see more thorough-going and conscientious execution of the Government's wartime policies and measures. In its detailed resolutions it has laid down the features of future military, political, economic, educational and social policy. Here four main points are emphasized:

(1) The pressing forward of reconstruction in the primary phases of local government, the completion of the new system of *hsien* administration within the stipulated period of time and the training of the people in the exercise of the Four Rights in order to build up the basic

structure of autonomous and representative government. The Central Government should meanwhile find means of affording the best of the nation's talent and intellect the fullest opportunities of sharing the responsibility for the conduct of national affairs.

(2) The strengthening of economic control with a view to improving production and transport of military necessities and essential commodities in every possible way. This includes the strict management of the supply and distribution of goods essential to the people's livelihood, the stabilization of commodity prices and labor costs, and the elimination of hoarding and speculation.

(3) The execution of the land policy and the institution of government machinery to deal exclusively with land registration and the equalization of land ownership, the more effective exploitation of the potentialities of the soil and the general enforcement and accelerated fulfilment of the existing provisions of the Government's land legislation.

(4) Fuller mobilization of the nation's manpower and the revision of the code of provisions for national mobilization. This includes the improvement of the methods of conscription for military and labor service in such a way as to distribute the burden more equally.

Such is an outline of the tasks involved in wartime reconstruction and those we are obliged to fulfil by our participation in the present world war. The Government must assume a far-sighted and magnanimous attitude and strive by all means in its power thoroughly to implement its measures of wartime policy. The war must be the central and unceasing pre-occupation of the thoughts of all citizens. Administration must be war administration and economy war economy; in all social and educational matters the war must be the dominant consideration. The rear must form a solid unit designed to provide the means of war. The sacred mission of our people may thus be fulfilled, its claim to a status of independence and equality be vindicated, and its national existence in the modern world be assured.

MANIFESTO OF THE TENTH PLenary SESSION OF THE FIFTH C.E.C.

The following is an abstract of the Manifesto issued by the 10th Plenary Session of the Fifth Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang in November, 1942.

The Manifesto begins by saying that the relinquishment by America and Britain of their extra-territorial and other special rights in China as offered in their declarations on October 10, this year, means the fulfilment of a mission which the Father of the Republic (Dr. Sun Yat-sen) had charged his followers to complete. It also marks the successful conclusion of one

of the Kuomintang's revolutionary efforts during the last half century.

The Manifesto recounts the struggle of the Kuomintang, first against the Manchu regime, and later against the northern warlords. Since the Lukouchiao outrage it has been leading the nation in resistance against the Japanese invaders. Heroic sacrifices of armed forces and hardships met by civilians during the last five years have convinced the enemy of China's invincibility and prompted the friendly powers' expression in a concrete way of their respect for China's freedom and equality. China's initial success towards the abolition of unequal treaties is a hard won. It comes only as the result of a long struggle. The present opportunity should be utilized further to strengthen China's national foundation.

As for China's future efforts, both internally and externally, the Manifesto calls the Chinese people's attention to the following four points:

First, that the supreme principles persistently guiding China's national revolution have been the Three People's Principles which aim at saving not only China but the world as well. The regeneration of China is closely related with world rehabilitation. The present war is one between the Democracies and the Axis aggressors. Right must win and Might must be destroyed. Mankind as a whole must secure genuine equality and freedom. At Stalingrad, in the Solomons and in North Africa, the Soviet Union, America and Britain have won brilliant successes, not merely because of their superior weapons but because of the coming into action of the revolutionary spirit of civilized mankind. This should give us cause for rejoicing and at the same time it should enhance our faith in our common victory. Whether righteousness and peace will reign in the world after this war and whether the Three People's Principles will be realized will depend on the extent of endeavors on the part of all the United Nations. Our *Tsungsai* (Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek) in enunciating our obligations toward the war and our hopes for the future, has suggested the immediate organization of an international order embracing all peoples to enforce peace and justice among them and to remove, once and for all, causes of war.

Second, a call for the acceleration of China's war effort. The Chinese people must not allow their attention to be diverted to future accomplishments, to the oblivion of their present responsibility. They must not relax in their present war effort. Since the commencement of the war of resistance, it has been China's consistent policy to be self-reliant and to be prepared for the greatest difficulties and hardships. It is all for the purpose of securing victory that the National General Mobilization Act must be fully enforced, wartime life regulated, economic control effected, conscription improved,

working time lengthened, farm and industrial production increased, and the spirit of service revived.

Third, that the materialization of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's industrial plans and the consummation of the program of local self-government should be the two major goals for our efforts from now on. It is emphasized that a sound political and economic organization in the basic strata of society constitutes the foundation for the realization of the Principle of People's Sovereignty and the Principle of People's Livelihood.

Fourth, the need for greater solidarity internally. In order to regenerate the country, the present opportunity must not be allowed to pass by. We must foster a spirit of greater solidarity and utmost sincerity. All patriots, by reviewing China's history for the last fifty years, will discover that Dr. Sun's Three People's Principles and his revolutionary programs are not tenets for the Kuomintang alone but the necessary ways whereby the entire nation can make secure its existence. China today has reached a crucial point. The people must no longer suspect one another, discriminate against one another, or checkmate and obstruct one another. In the case of all those who sincerely believe in the Three People's Principles, obey laws and orders, do not hinder prosecution of the war, do not attempt to upset social order, and do not occupy places in defiance of Government orders, both the Government and the people should forget about their past record either in thought or in deed, and should respect their opportunity, be they individuals or political groups, to serve the country. For only with real unity can we be equal to our unprecedentedly immense task.

The Manifesto concludes by exhorting all Kuomintang members and the entire nation to strive together for the attainment of the above-mentioned objectives, pointing out that equal emphasis should be given to the revival of China's old virtues, and to the acquiring of such scientific knowledge and skill as will be required for the modernization and industrialization of the country.

SAN MIN CHU I, OR THE THREE PEOPLE'S PRINCIPLES

Dr. Sun published his three volumes of *Plans for National Reconstruction*—Psychological Reconstruction, Material Reconstruction, and Social Reconstruction—in 1918. Later he devoted himself to the writing of *Reconstruction of The State*. This book, larger than the former three volumes, included the *Min-Tsu Chu I*, or the Principle of Nationalism, the *Min-Chuan Chu I*, or the Principle of People's Rights and the *Min-sheng Chu I*, or the Principle of People's Livelihood, the Quintuple-Power Con-

stitution, Local Government, Central Government, Foreign Policy, and National Defense, altogether eight parts. By June, 1922, the Principle of Nationalism had gone to the printer, the other two parts on People's Rights and Livelihood were almost completed, while the general line of thought and method of approach in the remaining parts had been mapped out. Dr. Sun waited for some spare time to proceed with the writing, when suddenly Chen Chiung-ming, the military commander in Kwangtung, revolted on June 16, 1922, and turned his guns upon Dr. Sun's headquarters on Kwanying Hill. The gunfire destroyed Dr. Sun's notes and manuscripts which represented the mental labor of years, together with hundreds of foreign books which he had collected for reference.

After the re-organization of the Kuomintang in 1924, there was an urgent demand among Party members for propaganda material. Between January 27 and August 24 that year, Dr. Sun gave weekly extemporaneous lectures on the Three People's Principles at the National Kwangtung University in Canton. Altogether he delivered sixteen lectures: six on the Principle of Nationalism, six on the Principle of People's Rights and four on the Principle of People's Livelihood. Judging from their contents, Dr. Sun's lectures on the Principle of People's Livelihood were incomplete. There should have been two or more lectures. Late in 1924, Dr. Sun went to North China, where he died in Peiping on March 12, 1925. The following summaries of his lectures are based upon Frank W. Price's English translation, first published in Shanghai in August, 1927.

MIN-TSU CHU I, (THE PRINCIPLE OF NATIONALISM)

LECTURE 1: The Chinese people have shown the greatest respect for the family and the clan with the result that in China there have been family-ism and clan-ism but no real nationalism. That is why foreigners often say that the Chinese people are like a bed of loose sand.

China, since the Ch'in and Han dynasties, has been developing a single state out of a single race. Therefore, it is correct to say that the principle of nationalism is equivalent to the doctrine of the state. In the West, however, it is different because foreign countries have developed many states from one race and have included many nationalities within one state.

Race or nationality has developed through natural forces, while the state has developed through force of arms. Factors in the development of a race are: blood kinship, common language, common livelihood, common religion and common customs and habits. These are products not of military occupation but of natural evolution. Considering the law of survival of ancient and modern races, if we want to save China and to preserve the Chinese race, we must promote nationalism.

The Chinese race totals 400,000,000 people; of mingled races there are only a few million Mongolians, a million or so Manchus, a few million Tibetans, and over a million Mohammedan Turks. These alien races do not number altogether more than ten million, so that, for the most part, the Chinese people are of the Han or Chinese race—a single pure race.

In comparison with other nations we have the greatest population and the oldest culture, of 4,000 years' duration. We ought to be advancing in line with the nations of Europe and America. But the Chinese people have only family and clan groups; there is no national spirit. Consequently, China is the poorest and weakest country in the world, occupying the lowest position in international affairs. If we do not earnestly promote nationalism and weld together our four hundred millions into a strong nation, we face a tragedy—the loss of our country and the destruction of our race.

One of the greatest dangers to China is the rapid increase in population of other countries. During the last century, the United States has made an increase of 1,000 per cent; Britain, 300 per cent; Japan, 300 per cent; Russia, 400 per cent; Germany, 250 per cent; and France, 25 per cent. In China's case, her population has remained the same during the last two hundred years. The reason why other nations cannot seize China right away is simply because their population is yet smaller than China's. A hundred years hence, if their population increases and ours does not, the more will subjugate the less and China will inevitably be swallowed up. Then China will not only lose her sovereignty, but she will perish, the Chinese people will be assimilated, and the race will disappear.

LECTURE 2: If it were a matter merely of natural selection, our nation might survive; but evolution on this earth depends not on natural forces alone, it depends on a combination of

natural and human forces. Of these man-made forces the most potent are political forces and economic forces. They have a greater influence upon the rise and fall of nations than the forces of Nature. The next decade is the time of crisis for China. If during this period we can find some way to free China from her political and economic yoke, then our nation may have a chance to survive; otherwise, we are doomed to annihilation by the peoples of the Great Powers.

China has been under the political domination of the West for a century and has lost a huge amount of territory. We have lost Weihaiwei, Port Arthur, Dairen, Tsingtao, Kowloon, Kwangchowwan. Further back in history, our territorial losses were Korea, Formosa, the Pescadores and such places, which, as a result of the Sino-Japanese War (1894-1895), were ceded to Japan. It was this war which started the "slicing of China" talk among the Powers. Still further back in the century, we lost Burma and Annam. Still earlier in the history of territorial losses were the Amur and Ussuri river basins and before that the areas north of the Ili, Khokand and Amur Rivers—the territory of the recent Far Eastern Republic. In addition there are those small countries which at one time paid tribute to China—the Liuchiu Islands, Siam, Borneo, the Sulu Archipelago, Java, Ceylon, Nepal, Bhutan.

After the Chinese Revolution, the Powers realized that it would be exceedingly difficult to dismember China by political force. A China which had learned how to revolt against the control of the Manchus would be sure some day to oppose the political control of the Powers. As this would put them in a difficult position, they are now reducing their political activities against China and are using economic pressure instead to keep us down. They are still using imperialism to forward their economic designs, and economic oppression is more severe than imperialism or political oppression.

As a result of foreign economic oppression, China is becoming a colony of the Powers. Many still think we are only a "semi-colony." In fact we are a "hypo-colony."

Other nations meet foreign economic pressure and check the invasion of economic forces from abroad by means of a tariff which protects economic development within these countries.

China's maritime customs are entirely in the hands of foreigners. The customs duties are fixed by the foreign Powers and China cannot freely alter them. Thus, China not only has no protective tariff, but the tariff is increased on native goods to protect foreign goods.

In money value of stolen rights and privileges we lose every year: first, through invasion of foreign goods, \$500,000,000; second, through the invasion of foreign paper money into our money market, along with foreign bank discounts on exchange and interest on our deposits, about \$100,000,000; third, through freight charges on our exports and imports, up to \$100,000,000; fourth, through taxes, rents, and land sales in the settlements and ceded areas, at least \$400,000,000 or \$500,000,000; fifth, through special privileges and private business of foreigners, \$100,000,000; sixth, through the speculation business and various other fleecing games, hundreds of millions. These six kinds of economic domination cost us an annual loss of not less than \$1,200,000,000.

If China cannot find a solution for these three pressing problems—pressure of foreign population increases, and foreign political and economic domination—then, no matter how large China's area or how great her population, another century will see our country gone and our race destroyed. Never before has China felt the weight of three such forces at one and the same time. For the future of the Chinese nation, we must find a way to break them.

LECTURE 3: The spirit of nationalism was practically dead during the Manchu dynasty, but it was kept alive among the lower classes through the organization of secret revolutionary societies. When the Manchus came from beyond the Great Wall to be masters of China, the loyal ministers and scholars of the Ming dynasty rose everywhere to oppose them. Even up to the first years of K'ang Hsi there was still armed resistance. Later, however, as the Ming veterans slowly passed off the stage, a group of intense nationalists conceived a plan to organize secret revolutionary societies. Just at that time K'ang Hsi inaugurated the *Po-hsueh Hung-tzu* examinations which caught almost all the remaining Ming scholars in the net of the Manchu government service. The thoughtful group among them saw that they could not depend upon the literati to keep alive the national spirit, so they turned to the lower strata of society. They

organized these people into groups and gave to them the spirit of nationalism to preserve and perpetuate. One of these secret societies was the *Hung Men San Ho Hui*. When Hung Hsiu-ch'uan, leader of the Taiping Rebellion, rose, the Hung Men Society responded, and nationalism flared up. After the fall of Hung Hsiu-ch'uan, the current of nationalism flowed on through the army and the vagrant class. The organization of the Hung Men Society was broken up by Tso Tsung-tang toward the end of the Manchu dynasty, so that at the time of the recent revolution we had no organized body to get hold of.

There are many reasons for this loss of our nationalism, of which the greatest is our subjection to alien races. For thousands of years China tried to effect a union of the world and had subjected all small states of Asia, but China's methods were not cruel as were the Europeans' methods. China used peaceful means to influence others and what was called the "royal way" to bring the weaker and small states under her rule. If we follow out this line of thought, we will begin to see why China has lost her national spirit. Cosmopolitanism is the same thing as China's theory of world empire two thousand years ago. It is a device developed in the West to camouflage imperialism. Those young students who prate about cosmopolitanism, saying that nationalism is out of date, might have some ground if they spoke for England and America or even for our forefathers, but if they think they are speaking for China today, we have no place for them.

Heaven's preservation of our four hundred millions of Chinese till now shows that it has not wanted to destroy us. Heaven evidently wants us to further the world's progress. If China perishes, she will perish at the hands of the Great Powers; those Powers will be thus obstructing the world's progress. If we want to resist Might we must unite our four hundred millions and join the twelve hundred fifty millions of oppressed people of the world. We must espouse nationalism and in the first instance attain our own unity, then we can consider others and help the weaker, smaller peoples to unite in a common struggle against the two hundred fifty millions of oppressors. Together we shall use Right to fight Might, and when Might is overthrown and the selfishly ambitious have disappeared, then we may talk about cosmopolitanism.

LECTURE 4: We want to revive China's lost nationalism and use the strength of our four hundred millions to fight for mankind against injustice. This is our divine mission. The Powers are afraid that we will have such thoughts and are setting forth a specious doctrine—cosmopolitanism—a doctrine supported by force without justice. We, the wronged races, must first recover our position of national freedom and equality before we are fit to discuss cosmopolitanism.

According to history, our forefathers constantly employed political force on weaker and smaller nations, but we were not guilty of economic suppression of other peoples. However, many small states in the South China Sea wanted to bring tribute and to adopt Chinese culture, giving voluntary adherence because of their admiration for our culture and not because of military pressure from China.

The Chinese are really the greatest lovers of peace in the world. Our four hundred millions are a most civilized race. The new theories which have flourished of late in Europe and which are called anarchism and communism are old things in China. What Russia has been putting into practice is not pure communism but Marxism. What Proudhon and Bakunin advocated is the only real communism. Communism was applied in China in the time of Hung Hsiu-ch'uan, whose economic system was the real thing in communism and not mere theory.

European superiority to China is not in political philosophy but altogether in the field of material civilization, which is something of the last two hundred years only. If we want to learn from Europe we should learn what we ourselves lack—science—but not political philosophy.

LECTURE 5: The loss of national spirit has been the cause of China's decline to her present state. We have been subjugated by other races, being governed by aliens for over two hundred years. Formerly we were slaves of the Manchus, now we are slaves of all nations and are suffering more than ever before. If we want to save China, we must first revive our nationalism. This can be done through awakening our four hundred millions to see where we stand. If the situation which I have described in my first four lectures is true, then we must keep clearly in mind our perilous position. The disasters which threaten us are from the Great Powers, and they are: First, political

oppression ; second, economic oppression ; and third, the more rapid growth of population among the Powers.

There are two ways in which political force can destroy a nation : through military power and through diplomacy. Japan has an army and navy that can rush straight and far at a moment's notice. She is not striking just yet ; perhaps because the suitable time has not arrived. The United States is a most powerful nation. If China and the United States should sever diplomatic relations, the latter would need only a month after mobilization to be ready for attack, so that the United States could destroy China one month after a rupture. England has bases in Hongkong, India and Australia. If the land and sea forces of those colonies were employed, it would not take more than two months from the day of mobilization for them all to get to China. French troops could attack China within forty or fifty days.

This means that there is not a single one of the Powers but could, with military force, break up China. Why, then, has China survived till the present ? Not because of any defensive strength of our own, but simply because all the Powers want to exploit China ; all are watchfully waiting and each is unwilling to make concessions to the others. The strength of the various nations in China has become a balance of power, which makes it possible for China still to exist. The Great Powers still want to crush China, but they hesitate because of fear of precipitating another world war. Even if they could avoid conflict over the balancing of their other rights and privileges, the problem of governing China would certainly produce a clash.

Through diplomacy the Great Powers can also destroy China. The diplomats of the different countries need only meet in one place and sign a document. Poland's dismemberment at the hands of Russia, Germany and Austria was the consequence of one day's negotiation and agreement.

The second way of awakening our national spirit is to make use of the compact family and clan groups and sentiment of the Chinese people. If we are to recover our lost nationalism, we must have some kind of group unity, large group unity. An easy and successful way to bring about the unity of a large group is to build upon the foundation of small united groups, and the small units we can build upon in

China are the clan groups and also the family groups.

LECTURE 6 : I have already discussed the chief cause for China's degeneration. If we want to revive our national spirit, we must fulfil two conditions. First, we must understand that we are in a perilous position ; and second, knowing our danger, we must utilize China's ancient social groups, as the family and the clan, and consolidate them to form a great national body.

China was once an exceedingly powerful and civilized nation. China did not reach her former position of greatness by one road only. For the maintenance of a permanent standing, moral character is essential. As for China's old moral standards, they are not yet lost sight of by the people of China. First comes Loyalty and Filial Devotion, then Kindness and Love, then Faithfulness and Justice, then Harmony and Peace. The Chinese still speak of these ancient qualities of character. But since our domination by alien races and since the invasion of foreign culture, which has spread its influence all over China, a group of Chinese intoxicated with the new culture have begun to reject the old morality, saying that the former makes the latter unnecessary. They do not understand that we ought to preserve what is good in our past and throw away only the bad. China now is in a period of conflict between the old and new currents and a large number of our people have nothing to follow.

In former days loyalty was shown to princes. It was argued that since there are no princes in a democracy, loyalty is not needed and can be cast aside. Such an argument is certainly due to misunderstanding. We do not want princes in a democracy, but we cannot do without loyalty. Can we not direct loyalty towards the nation and towards the people ? Filial devotion is even more a characteristic of China, and we have gone far beyond other nations in the practice of it.

It is still indispensable. Kindness and love are also part of China's high morality. Ancient China always spoke of faithfulness in dealing with neighboring countries and in intercourse with friends. With regard to justice, its application can be no better proved than by the fact that China in her mightiest days never utterly destroyed another state. China was a strong state for thousands of years and Korea lived on ; Japan has been a strong state

for not over twenty years and Korea is already destroyed. China has one more splendid virtue—the love of harmony and peace. Among the states and the peoples of the world to-day, China alone preaches peace; other countries all talk in terms of war and advocate the overthrow of states by imperialism. Only in recent years, since the experience of many great wars and the huge, tragic death losses, have they begun to propose the abolition of war. Several peace conferences have been held, but the representatives of the various nations have met to discuss peace out of fear of war, out of a feeling of necessity rather than out of a natural desire on the part of all citizens for peace. The intense love of peace which the Chinese have had these thousands of years has been a natural disposition.

We must revise not only our old morality but also our old learning. China has a specimen of political philosophy so systematic and so clear that nothing has been discovered or spoken by foreign statesmen to equal it. It is found in the *Great Learning*: "Search into the nature of things, extend the boundaries of knowledge, make the purpose sincere, regulate the mind, cultivate personal virtue, rule the family, govern the state, pacify the world." This calls upon a man to develop from within outward, to begin with his inner nature and not cease until the world is at peace. Such a deep, all-embracing logic is not found in or spoken by any foreign political philosopher; it is the nugget of wisdom peculiar to China's philosophy of state and should be preserved.

In addition to our ancient learning there are likewise our ancient powers. Things like the compass, printing press, porcelain ware, and smokeless powder were all first invented in China. In the field of human food and clothing, shelter and communication, China has also contributed many discoveries for the use of mankind. China discovered tea and silk, the arched doorway and the suspension bridge. If we can reproduce the best of our national heritage just as it was in the time of our forefathers when China dominated the world, we will still need to learn the strong points of Europe and America before we can progress at an equal rate with them. If we want to learn from the West, we will have to catch up with the advance line and not chase from behind. In the study of science, for instance, this will

mean the saving of two hundred years. Japan is a good example. Her culture was formerly copied from China, but recently through learning European and American civilization, she has become, within a few decades, one of the world's great Powers. I do not think that our intellectual powers are below those of the Japanese, and it should be easier for us now than for Japan then to learn from the West.

If we want China to rise to power, we must not only restore our national standing, but we must also assume a great responsibility toward the world.

MIN-CHUAN CHU I

(THE PRINCIPLE OF PEOPLE'S RIGHTS)

LECTURE 1: Any unified and organized body of men is called a "people," and power to execute orders and to regulate public conduct is called "sovereignty." When "people" and "sovereignty" are linked together, we have the political power of the people. Government is a thing of the people and by the people. It is control of the affairs of all the people. The power of control is political sovereignty and where the people control the government we speak of the "people's rights."

The two major functions of "people's rights" are protection and sustenance. Protection means self-defense, and sustenance means seeking food. The struggle of the human race may be divided into several periods. The first period was one of struggle between man and beast in which man employed physical strength rather than any kind of power. In the second period man fought with nature and called divine powers to his aid. In the third period man came into conflict with man, states with states, races with races, and autocratic power was the chief weapon. We are now in the fourth period, of war within states, when the people are battling against their monarchs and kings. The issue is between good and evil, between right and might, and as the power of the people is steadily increasing we may call this the age of the people's rights—the age of democracy.

Is China today ripe for democracy? In the last thirteen years, through periods of order and of disorder, China has been nothing but autocracy. But if we base our judgment upon the intelligence and the ability of the Chinese people, we come to the conclusion that

the sovereignty of the people would be far more suitable for us.

The first instance of actual democracy in modern times was in England—Cromwell's Revolution in the 17th century. A hundred years later the American Revolution took place. Ten years after the establishment of the American Republic the French Revolution occurred.

The most important work of Rousseau, whose democratic theories generated the French Revolution, was his Social Contract. His theory is that man is born with rights of freedom and equality, rights which were endowed by Nature and which he has thrown away. But as we study the evolution of history, we see that democracy has not been Heaven-born but has been wrought out of the conditions of the times and the movement of events. We can find no facts in the evolution of the human race to bear out Rousseau's philosophy. Nevertheless, Rousseau's advocacy of the original idea of democracy was one of the greatest contributions to political science in all history.

If we observe the steady progress of the world from many angles, we are assured that the day of democracy is here; and that, no matter what disappointments and defeats democracy may meet, it will maintain itself for a long time to come upon the earth. Thirty years ago, therefore, we follow revolutionists firmly resolved that, if we wanted China to be strong and our revolution to be effective, we must espouse the cause of democracy. We have chosen democracy so that first we may be following the world current, and second, that we may reduce the period of civil war. From ancient times in China, men of great ambition have all wanted to be king. The Taiping Rebellion failed because of struggle among its leaders for the throne. Chen Chiung-ming revolted against the revolutionary cause in 1922 also because he wanted to be an emperor. Foreign countries have had wars over religion and wars over freedom, but China in her thousands of years had but one kind of war, the war for the throne. In order to avert further civil war, we, as soon as we have launched our revolution, proclaimed that we wanted a republic and not a monarchy.

LECTURE 2: Foreign scholars always associate democracy with liberty and many foreign books and essays discuss the two side by side. The peoples of Europe and America have warred and

struggled for little else besides liberty, these past two or three hundred years and as a result, democracy is beginning to flourish. The watchword of the French Revolution was "Liberty, Equality, Fraternity," just as the watchword of our Revolution is "*Min-ts'u, Min-ch'uan, Min-sheng*" (People's Nationalism, People's Rights, People's Livelihood.) We may say that liberty, equality, and fraternity are based upon the people's rights or that the people's rights develop out of liberty, equality, and fraternity.

Liberty means the freedom to move about as one wishes within an organized group. Because China does not have a word to convey this idea, everyone has been at a loss to appreciate it. In their wars, Westerners extolled liberty to the skies and made it sacred; they even made a saying like: "Give me liberty or give me death" their battle cry. As I said to you last time, we are now in the age of democracy. The term "democracy" comes from an old Greek word. Even now Westerners are not very much interested in the term "democracy" and think of it more or less as a technical term in political science; it is far from being the matter of life and death which liberty has been.

The Chinese respond to "making a fortune" because China now is bankrupt and her people are poor. The peoples of the West sought liberty because of the extremes to which autocracy had developed. After the fall of the Roman Empire, the feudal system came into existence. The feudal lords all held autocratic power and the whole system of government was far more despotic than the feudal regime during the Chou dynasty. In China down the centuries the people had little direct relation to the emperor beyond paying him the annual grain tax and nothing more.

Because revolutions in Europe were struggles for liberty, many Chinese students and earnest scholars have risen up to proclaim liberty too. This is nothing but "saying what others say." When we think about that "bed of loose sand" we realize that the Chinese have had a great measure of liberty. Because we have so much of it, nobody pays any attention to it, not even to the name for it.

Europeans and Americans risked their lives in the battles for liberty a hundred and fifty years ago, because liberty was rare for them. When nations like France and the United States won liberty, they became pioneers in demo-

cratic government. Yet even in these countries, is everybody free? Many classes, such as students, soldiers, officials, and persons under twenty years of age, who have not reached maturity, do not have liberty. The students of China, having absorbed these ideas of liberty and having no other place to practise them, gave expression to them in their schools. Student insurrections and strikes followed under the dignified guise of fighting for "liberty." This is abuse of freedom.

The struggle of the Europeans for liberty was a great passion that has since cooled; this shows that liberty has both good and bad features and is not a holy thing. If foreigners say that we are a "bed of loose sand," we will acknowledge the truth because we have excessive individual liberty. Therefore, the aims of the Chinese Revolution are different from the aims in foreign revolutions, and the methods we use must also be different. The individual should not have too much liberty, but the nation should have complete liberty. When the nation can act freely, then China may be called strong. To make the nation free, we must each sacrifice our personal freedom.

If we want to restore China's liberty, we must unite ourselves into one unshakable body; we must use revolutionary methods to weld our state into a firm unity. Without revolutionary principles we shall never succeed. Our revolutionary principles are the cement. If we can consolidate our four hundred millions and form a mighty union and make the nation free, the Chinese state will be free and the Chinese people will be really free.

LECTURE 3: *Min-chuan*, the people's rights, is the second part of our revolutionary watchword and corresponds to equality in the French watchword. The word "equality" is usually associated with "liberty." The Europeans felt that if they could secure liberty, they would certainly attain to equality, and that if they did not become equal, there was no way to manifest their freedom.

What is equality and whence does it come? The revolutionary philosophy of Europe and America spoke of liberty and equality as something bestowed by Nature upon man. In tracing the history of people's rights from the primitive age millions of years ago down to the modern democratic period, we did not

discover any principle of natural human equality.

Nature originally did not make man equal; but when autocracy developed among mankind, the despotic kings and princes pushed human differences to an extreme, and the result was an inequality far worse than Nature's inequality. Because of artificial ranks—emperor or king, prince, duke, marquis, earl, viscount, baron, and people—the specially privileged classes became excessively cruel and iniquitous, while the oppressed people, unable to contain themselves, finally broke into rebellion and warred upon inequality. But those in high stations of emperor or king all assumed a divine appointment as a shield of their office. They said that they had received their special position from God and that the people who opposed them would be opposing God. So the scholars supporting the revolution had to invent the theory of Nature-bestowed rights of equality and liberty in order to overthrow the despotism of kings.

After the fall of emperors and kings, the people began to believe firmly in the theory of natural equality, and kept on working day after day to make all men equal. They did not know that such a thing is impossible. If we force an equality upon human society, that equality would be a false one. Equal position in human society is something to start with; each man builds up his career upon this start according to his natural endowment of intelligence and ability. This brings us to the only principle of equality.

When we speak of democracy and equality but yet want the world to advance, we are talking about political equality. For equality is an artificial not a natural thing, and the only equality which we can create is equality in political status. After the revolution, we want every man to have an equal political standing.

In the revolutions of Europe, the people spent much effort and made untold sacrifices in their struggle for equality and liberty, because the situation which existed under European despotism before the days of revolution was far more serious than the situation in China has ever been. The European emperors, kings, princes, dukes, marquises, and other nobles are hereditary. No one ever changed from his inherited vocation. The occupations of the common people were also

hereditary. They could never do anything else.

Since the break-up of the feudal system in China, these professional barriers for the common people have been entirely destroyed. Thus while China along with foreign countries has had a class system and a system of inequality, yet China has had the advantage, since only the emperor's rank was hereditary. As for dukes and other nobles, these titles were changed from one generation to another. Many commoners have become ministers of state or have been appointed princes and nobles. These were not hereditary offices.

Europe's autocracy, however, was much more severe. The people underwent unbearable sufferings, so they agitated for equality. This agitation produced the three revolutions of the past three centuries—the first in England, the second in America, the third in France. The American and French revolutions succeeded; the English revolution can be counted as a failure, and consequently the English political system has not yet changed very greatly. The English overthrew the throne and killed the king, but in less than ten years the monarchy was restored. Now just six years ago Russia staged a revolution, also overthrowing her class system and becoming a republic. Russia has levelled down not only political classes but also all the capitalist classes of society.

Equality, however, has been abused in the West. China cannot afford to follow in the footsteps of the Western nations and fight only for equality. We must fight for democracy. If democracy prevails, we shall have true equality; if democracy languishes, we can never have equality. Although Nature produces men with varying intelligence and ability, yet the human heart has continued to hope that all men might be equal. This is the highest of moral ideals and mankind should earnestly strive towards it. We must seek a fundamental solution, effect a revolution, overthrow autocracy, lift up democracy, and level inequalities.

LECTURE 4: Today I want to speak about the measure of people's rights which the Europeans and Americans have won and the progress which they have made in democracy during the last two or three hundred years. Democratic ideas have already spread to China and are making their impression upon the Chinese people through current books and newspapers. But there is a

wide divergence between the Western democracy which we find in books and that which we see in actual practice. People in the United States and France have not yet attained to perfect democracy.

After the successful issue of their War of Independence against Great Britain, the American revolutionaries began to differ in their opinion as to the kind of government they wanted. One group led by Hamilton proposed that the political power of the state should not be given entirely to the people, but should be centralized in the government, while another group led by Jefferson said that the people should have complete rights. The fight was long and bitter. Finally, the Federalists who advocated the limitation of popular sovereignty won out, the states got together, formed a federal union and promulgated the Constitution of the United States. From the beginning of the Republic until now, the United States has used this constitution, which divides clearly the legislative, judicial and executive powers of the government.

During the last decade a group of Chinese intellectuals and scholars have been proposing that China, in order to be wealthy and strong like the United States, must also form a federal union. What they did not know is that the thirteen American colonies had been entirely separate and therefore had to unite in order to form a single nation. If we want to follow the United States' federal plan, we would have to divide our already united country into numerous independent units and then weld them together again. The present want of unity in China is but a temporary phenomenon of disorder, the result of the grasping of domains by militarists. We must do away with this state of affairs first.

The Constitution of the United States was a document of compromise. The important political powers which belong to the central government were clearly defined in the constitution; matters not regulated by the constitution were left to local governments. Matters of detail not delegated by the constitution to the central government were left to the individual states to regulate. What rights did the people obtain out of this compromise?—Only a limited suffrage. The suffrage was at first limited to the election of congressmen and of various state and local officials. Later, it was enlarged until today the

president, the senators, and all state and local officials who have any direct important relation with the people are elected by the people.

The evolution in the United States from limited to universal suffrage was very gradual. Only a decade or two ago women still did not have the right to vote. But seven or eight years ago, the women of Great Britain, and not long afterwards, the women of the United States, won the right of suffrage. The cause was the European War, during which women were called upon to fill men's jobs, and then those who had opposed women's suffrage, saying that women could not do the work of men, were stripped of their arguments and no longer dared to thwart the movement.

Like the American War of Independence, the French Revolution also set up democracy as its goal. The French people experimented with complete democracy only to find that this led to mob tyranny. When the people secured complete power, they no longer wanted leaders and they put to death many of the wise and able ones. Then there was a reaction against democracy and France became a monarchy again. Since the French Revolution, small countries of Europe, like Denmark, Holland, Spain, and Portugal have almost unconsciously developed democratic movements. In England, though the revolution had failed, the people began to have more and more rights.

The newest theories of democracy owe their real origin, however, to Germany. Up to the time of the European War these had not produced as much fruit as in France or Great Britain. Socialism was originally closely related to democracy, and the greatest socialist thinkers in the world have been Germans. Bismarck, who was then in power in Germany, knew that socialism could not be suppressed by political force, so he put into effect a kind of state socialism as an antidote against the Marxian socialists' program.

Tracing the beginnings of applied democracy, we see the American people after their revolution winning first the right to vote. At that time Westerners thought that democracy meant suffrage and that was all. Recently, the people of Switzerland have won, in addition, the rights of initiative and referendum. Some of the newly developed states in the northwestern part of the United States have, in recent years, gained still another right—the right of recalling

officials. Although the enjoyment of this right is not universal throughout the United States, yet several states have practised it, so many Americans enjoy the four popular rights—suffrage, recall, initiative and referendum. Some day, they may be applied throughout the United States and perhaps throughout the world.

When we use Western history as material for study, we are not copying the West entirely or following in its path. We will use our Principle of People's Rights, and remake China into a nation under complete popular rule, ahead of Europe and America.

LECTURE 5: In 1900 the Boxers, whose original aim was to drive all Western influence out of China, engaged in war with allied forces of eight nations and the weapons they used were big swords. They were the last Chinese to believe that their arms and strength could resist the new civilization from the West. Since then Chinese thinkers have felt that to make China strong and able to avenge the shame of the Peking Protocol, they must imitate foreign countries in everything. That the West has advanced far beyond China in the physical sciences cannot be denied. But how much has the West advanced beyond China in the matter of government?

In the past two or three hundred years, Europe and America have passed through many revolutions and their political progress has been much more rapid than China's, yet the Western political treatises do not show much advance upon the past. For instance, there lived in Greece two thousand years ago a great political philosopher named Plato; his *Republic* is still studied by scholars who say that it has much to contribute towards the political systems of today. The material civilization of the West is changing daily, and political thought in the West has advanced much more slowly. The reason why Western democracy has not made more progress is because Western nations have not fundamentally solved the problem of administering democracy.

For thousands of years Chinese social sentiments, customs and habits have differed widely from those of Western society. Hence, methods of social control in China are different from those used in the West and we should not merely copy the use of their machinery. Though Western democracy has not reached a perfect stage of development, yet many Western scholars are putting much time upon the study of democracy and are

constantly bringing forth new theories. One of the newest has been proposed by an American scholar who says that the greatest fear of modern democratic states is an all-powerful government which the people have no way of checking, but yet the finest thing would be an all-powerful government working for the welfare of all the people. Therefore, democratic countries must find a solution for this difficulty. No solution will be possible until the people change their attitude towards the government.

I have thought of a method to solve the problem. It is a new discovery in political theory—namely, a distinction should be made between sovereignty and ability. To make clear what I mean, I must first review my theory as to the classes of human society. I classified mankind into three groups. The first group includes those who see and perceive first. They are the people of superior wisdom, vision and foresight. They are the creators, the discoverers of mankind. The second group include those who see and perceive later. Their intelligence and ability are below the standard of the first group. They can only follow and imitate, learning from what the first group have already done. Those in the third group do not see or perceive. They have a still lower grade of intelligence and ability and do not understand even though one tries to teach them. They simply act. In the language of political movements, members of the first group are the discoverers; of the second group, the promoters; of the third group, the operators.

The progress of the world depends on these three types, and not one type must be lacking. The nations of the world, as they begin to apply democracy and to reform the government, should give a part to every man—to the man who sees first, to the man who sees later, to the man who does not see. We must realize that political democracy is not given to us by Nature. It is created by human effort. We must create democracy and then give it to the people, not wait to give it until the people fight for it.

In ancient days political sovereignty used to be entirely in the hands of the emperor and had nothing to do with the people. Today we who advocate democracy want to put political power into the hands of the people. Since China has had a revolution and has adopted a democratic form of government, the

people should rule in all matters. The government now may be called popular government; in other words, under a republic we make the people king. But the people must put the important affairs of the nation in the hands of capable men. The people are the owners; they must be sovereign. The government are specialists; they must be men of ability and skill.

The hostility of Western peoples to their governments is due to their failure to separate sovereignty from ability, and consequently they have not yet cleared up the difficulties of democracy. We know a way how to make use of democracy and we know how to change the attitude of people towards government, but yet the majority of the people are without vision. We who have prevision must lead them and guide them into the right way if we want to escape the confusion of Western democracy and not follow in the tracks of the West. The foundation of the government of a nation must be built upon the rights of the people, but the administration of government must be entrusted to experts.

LECTURE 6: Western statesmen and students of jurisprudence now speak of government as machinery and of law as an instrument. But there are great differences between political and manufacturing machinery. Political machinery is moved by human forces, while manufacturing machinery is moved by material forces. Material machinery can be easily tried out and bad features discarded. But human machinery is not easily experimented with and improvements are not all easily made, except through revolution. The only other way would be to treat it as scrap iron, as we do old material machinery, but this is manifestly impossible. In two former lectures, I said that Westerners had not yet found a fundamental method for carrying out democratic government. This is because they have not experimented carefully and skillfully with their political machinery.

The machinery of democratic government has not been altered in one hundred years, and the democracy in practice in various countries is simply the right to vote. There has been no advance beyond this for a long time. If we want to improve the machinery, we must make a clear distinction between sovereignty and ability. Our modern democratic age looks upon the people as the motive power in government.

The fear of powerful governments among Western peoples today is just like the fear of powerful machinery in the old factories. If the people in the control of their governments will make a distinction between sovereignty and ability or power, they will be like the engineer who controls a great machine.

There are two forces in politics, the political power of the people and the administrative power of the government. One is the power of control, and the other is the power of the government itself. After China secures a powerful government, we must not be afraid, as Western peoples are, that the government will become too strong and get away from our control. Our plan for the reconstructed state includes the division of the political power of the whole state into two parts. The political power will be given into the hands of the people, who will have a full degree of sovereignty and will be able to control directly the affairs of state; this political power is popular sovereignty. The other power is government and we will put that entirely in the government organs, which will be powerful and will manage all the nation's business; this power is the power of government. If the people have a full measure of political sovereignty and the methods for exercising popular control over the government are well worked out, we need not fear that the government will become too powerful and uncontrollable.

What are the newest discoveries in the way of applying democracy? First, there is suffrage. The second is the right of recall. These two rights, the right to elect and the right to recall, give the people control over their officials. The third is the right of initiative. If all the people think that a certain law would be of great advantage to the people, they should have the right to decide upon this law and turn it over to the government for execution. The fourth is the right of referendum. If everybody thinks that an old law is not beneficial to the people, they should have the right to amend it and to ask the government to administer the revised law and do away with the old law. Only when the people have these four rights can we say that there is democracy.

In order that the government may have a complete organ through which to do its best work, there must be a quintuple-power constitution. This constitution contains five powers—executive, legislative, judicial, examination, and

control. With these nine powers—four in the hands of the people and five in the government—in operation and preserving a balance, the problem of democracy will be solved and the government will have a definite course to follow.

Foreign governments have never exercised more than three powers—legislative, executive, and judicial. The two new features in our quintuple-power constitution come from old China. China long ago had the independent systems of examination and impeachment and they were very effective. In Chinese political history, the three governmental powers—judicial, legislative, and executive—were vested in the emperor. The other powers of examination and impeachment were separate from the throne. Even during the period of autocratic government in China, the emperor did not have sole authority over the power of examination and impeachment. If we now want to combine the best from China and the best from other countries and guard against all kinds of abuse in the future, we must take the three Western governmental powers—the executive, legislative, and judicial—add to them the old Chinese powers of examination and impeachment and make a finished wall, a quintuple-power government. Such a government will be the most complete and the finest in the world, and a state with such a government will indeed be of the people, by the people, and for the people.

MIN-SHENG CHU I (THE PRINCIPLE OF PEOPLE'S LIVELIHOOD)

LECTURE 1: By *Min-sheng* (the People's Livelihood) I mean the livelihood of the people, the existence of society, the welfare of the nation, the life of the masses. I shall also use the term "*Min Sheng*" to describe one of the greatest problems that has emerged in the West during the past century or more—socialism.

Candidly speaking, the problem of people's livelihood arose with the invention of machinery and with the gradual substitution of natural power for human labor in the most civilized nations. As a result, a great number of men suddenly lost their occupations and were unable to get work or to obtain food. Westerners have called this great change the Industrial Revolution. It is this social problem that I am discussing today in the Principle of Livelihood.

The terms "socialism" and "communism" are now used synonymously in the

West. Although their methods may vary, socialism is often used to describe both theories. Socialism deals with social and economic questions and with the problem of human subsistence or livelihood. In using the term "Principle of Livelihood" instead of "socialism," my prime purpose is to strike at the root of the social problem and to reveal its real nature, also to make it possible for people to understand the term as soon as they hear it.

After the Industrial Revolution, the number of people studying social problems increased. The one man who made the most profound and rewarding study is Marx. Before Marx set forth his theories, socialism had been highly speculative. Marx, however, began with facts and with history, and made a radical and thorough exposition of the changes in the economic phase of the social questions. After Marx, the socialist movement divided into two groups—the Utopian socialists and the scientific socialists. The former would reform society and make a peaceful and happy state simply out of their imagination, while the latter advocated the use of scientific methods in solving social problems.

Marx worked out the theory that all human activity upon the globe which has been preserved in written records for succeeding generations can be called history; and all human history, viewed in this way, gravitates about material forces. This latter point was the new emphasis which Marx gave to history. If the material basis of life changes, the world also changes; human behavior, moreover, is determined by the material environment, and so the history of human civilization is the story of adaptation to material environment. Marx's materialistic conception of history was based upon such thorough study and such perfect reasoning that many who had opposed it now endorse it.

Marx discovered that history gravitates about material forces. Was his principle correct or not? After a few years of experiment with it, many people are saying that the principle is wrong. What, then, is the central force in history? Our Kuomintang has been advocating the *Min-sheng* Principle for over twenty years. We have not championed socialism but the *Min-sheng* Principle. Are the spheres of these two doctrines in any way related?

Recently, an American disciple of Marx, Maurice Williams, after making a deep study of Marx's philosophy, set

forth the view that the materialistic conception of history is wrong; that the social problem, not material forces, is the center which determines the course of history, and that subsistence is the heart of the social problem. This social interpretation of history, he believes, is the only reasonable one. The problem of livelihood is the problem of subsistence. Williams' theory tallies with the *Min-sheng* Principle.

The large-scale production of modern times is made possible by labor and machinery, by the cooperation of capital and machinery together with the employment of labor. According to Marx, the benefits of this large-scale production are reaped largely by the capitalists, whereas the workers enjoy but a small fraction of the benefits. Consequently, the interests of capitalists and of workers are constantly clashing and when no solution of the difficulty is found, a class war breaks out. Marx held the view that class war did not originate with the industrial revolution; all past history is a story of class struggle—between masters and slaves, between landlords and serfs, between nobles and common people; in a word, between all kinds of oppressors and oppressed. Only when the social revolution is completely successful, will these warring classes be no more. It is evident that Marx considered class war essential to social progress, the driving force, in fact, of social progress. He made class war the cause and social progress the effect.

Let us look at recent facts in the development of social progress to see whether this principle of cause and effect is really a law of social progress. The details would make a complicated story, but to summarize briefly: Recent economic progress in the West has taken four forms—social and industrial reform, public ownership of means of transportation and communications, direct taxation, and socialized distribution. These four practices have all evolved through the method of reform, and we should see more reforms and increasing improvements as time goes on. They are overthrowing old systems and giving rise to new ones. It is the constant emergence of new systems that makes constant progress possible.

Best of all has been the development of socialized distribution which destroys the monopoly of tradesmen. Heavier taxes on income and inheritance of capitalists increases the wealth of the state and enables the state to take over

means of transportation and communication, to improve the education and the health of workers and equipment within the factories, and to increase the productivity of society. When production is large and products are rich, the capitalists naturally make fortunes and the workers receive high wages. Here is a reconciliation of the interests of capitalists and workers, rather than a conflict between them. Society progresses, then, through the adjustment of major economic interests rather than through the clash of interests. Class war is not the cause of social progress, it is a disease developed in the course of social progress. The cause of the disease is the inability to subsist, and the result of the disease is war. What Marx gained through his studies of social problems was a knowledge of diseases in the course of social progress. Therefore, Marx can only be called a social pathologist; we cannot say that he is a social physiologist.

In his theory of "surplus value" Marx gave all the credit for it to the labor of the industrial workers. He overlooked the fact that "surplus value" is the fruit not only of labor within the factories but of many useful and powerful factors in society, working directly or indirectly and making a large or small contribution towards its production. Marx's assumption that class struggle is a cause of social progress puts effect before cause. Because of this confusion in source ideas, Marx's theory has not been borne out and has sometimes been directly contradicted by subsequent facts in social history.

Marx believed that as capitalism flourished, competition within the system would become severer, the large capitalists would be sure to swallow up the smaller capitalists, and finally only two classes would be left in society—the extremely wealthy capitalists and the extremely poor workers. When capitalism had reached its peak, it would break up rapidly of its own accord and a socialist state would be established. In Marx's judgment, the highly capitalistic states had already reached the period of dissolution, and so a revolution would rise immediately. But Western history in the seventy-odd years since Marx has directly contradicted his theory.

Again, according to Marx, if the capitalists want a large surplus value, they must fulfil three conditions—reduce wages, lengthen the working day, and raise the price of the manufac-

tured product. That these three conditions are illogical we can prove from the greatest money-making industry of modern times. In the Ford factories the workers work eight hours a day, receive a daily wage of five dollars gold, while more important workers earn higher wages. In addition the factories provide recreation and health facilities, and give insurance against accident and old age to all the workers. Yet the factories make scores of millions of dollars of profit every year, and have reduced the prices of their product.

Livelihood is the center of government, the center of economics, the centre of all historical movements. We can no longer say that material issues are the central force of history. We must let the political, social, and economic movements of history gravitate about the problem of livelihood. When we have made a thorough investigation of this central problem, then we can find a way to a solution of the social problem.

LECTURE 2: The Kuomintang some time ago in its Party platform settled upon two methods by which the *Min Sheng* Principle is to be carried out. The first method is equalization of landownership and the second is the control of private capital. If we follow these two methods we can solve the livelihood problem in China.

The Marxians would solve all social questions by a dictatorship of the proletariat and all political and economic problems by revolution. They are the radical group. Another group of socialists advocates peaceful methods and the use of political action and negotiation. These two factions are in constant and severe conflict in Europe and America and each has its own line of action. Our own experience shows that the revolutionary method was completely successful only so far as the political problem went; it cannot be said to have wholly solved the economic problem.

When Russia first started the Revolution, she was hoping to settle the social question; the political question was secondary. The Revolution resulted, however, in a solution of the political question but no solution of the social question. Such facts have led the anti-Marx faction to say that Russia's experiment with Marx's methods have been a failure. The Marxians, however, retorted that Russia has not been defeated in her use of revolutionary methods of social reform, but that Russia's industry

and commerce are not so highly developed as those in other European nations and that Russia's economic organization is immature; consequently she cannot successfully apply Marx's methods. But they certainly could be applied, they say, in a highly industrialized and commercialized nation where economic organization has reached a mature stage. They would meet with sure success in other Western nations, and bring about fundamental social reconstruction.

In working for a solution of our social problems, we must ground ourselves on facts and not trust to mere theories. What are these basic facts in China? All of us have a share in the distressing poverty of the Chinese people. There is no especially rich class, there is only a general poverty. The "inequalities between rich and poor" which the Chinese speak of are only differences within the poor class, differences in degree of poverty. As a matter of fact, the great capitalists of China, in comparison with the great foreign capitalists, are really poor; the rest of the people are extremely poor. How can we equalize this condition so that there will be no more extreme poverty?

The process of social change and capitalistic development usually begins with the landowners, and from the landowners goes on to the merchant and finally to the capitalist. Landowners arose out of the feudal system. Although China broke away from the feudal system two thousand years ago, yet because of the lack of industrial and commercial progress, social conditions now are just about what they were at that time. Although China has not had large landowners up to the present, yet she has had many small landowners. Both in Shanghai and in Canton, the land value has gone up tremendously. Chinese land has only to come under Western economic influence to transform its owners into millionaires like capitalists of the West. In order to remedy the situation the Kuomintang must, as a matter of foresight and of precaution against future difficulties, find a solution of this problem of fluctuation in land values.

It was because the people in the community chose a certain section as an industrial and commercial center and made their improvements upon it that land values in this section began to rise. This proves that rise in land values should be credited to all the people and to their efforts; the landowner himself

has nothing to do with the rise and the fall. So foreign scholars speak of the increased price of land as "unearned increment."

The methods for the solution of the land problem are different in various countries, and each country has its own peculiar difficulties. The plan which we are following is simple and easy—the equalization of landownership. China does not have big landowners, and the power of the small landowners is still rather weak. If we attack the problem now, we can solve it; but if we lose the present opportunity, we can never find a way out.

What is our policy? We propose that the government shall buy back the land, if necessary, according to the amount of land tax and the price of the land. The landowner reports the value of his land to the government and the government levies a land tax accordingly. Meanwhile, the government makes two regulations: First, that it will collect taxes according to the declared value of the land; second, that it can also buy back the land at the same price. According to this plan, if the landowner makes a low assessment he will be afraid lest the government buy back his land at that value and make him lose his property; if he makes too high an assessment, he will be afraid of the government taxes according to this value and his loss through heavy taxes. The landowner will not want to report the value of his land too high or too low; he will strike a mean and report the true market price to the government. As a result, neither the government nor the landowner will lose.

After the land values have been fixed, we should have a regulation by law that from that year on, all increase in land values, which in other countries means heavier taxation, shall revert to the community. This is because the increase in land values is due to improvements made by society and to the progress of industry and commerce. The credit for the improvement and progress belongs to the energy and business activity of all the people and not merely to a few private individuals. This proposal that all future increment shall be given to the community is the "equalization of landownership" advocated by the Kuomintang. It is a very different thing from what is called in the West "nationalization of property," confiscation for the government's use of private property which the people already possess.

Our plan provides that land now fixed in value shall still be privately owned.

Speaking of taxing or buying back land according to its value, we must make clear one important point. Land value refers only to the value of the bare land; it does not include improvements made by human labor or construction work upon the surface. These things will have to be paid for in case the land is bought back by the government.

If we want to solve the livelihood problem in China, it will not be enough to depend upon the control of private capital. Yes, private capital must be controlled, but China must also develop state capital. Our present disunion is only a temporary state of affairs. In the future we shall certainly become united, and then to solve the livelihood problem we shall have to develop capital and promote industry. First, we must begin to build means of communication, railroads and waterways, on a large scale. Second, we must open up mines. Third, we must hasten to foster manufacturing.

Although China has a multitude of workers, yet she has no machinery and so cannot compete with other nations. Goods used throughout China depend upon other countries for manufacture and transportation hither, and consequently our economic rights and interests are simply leaking away. If we want to recover these rights and interests, we must quickly employ state power to promote industry, use machinery in production, and give employment to the workers of the whole nation. If we do not use state power to build up these enterprises but leave them in the hands of private Chinese or of foreign businessmen, the result will be simply the expansion of private capital and the emergence of a great wealthy class with consequent inequalities in society.

In working out our *Min-sheng* Principle we cannot use or apply in China the methods of Marx. The reason for this is obvious. Russia has been trying to apply Marx's methods since the Revolution until now, yet she wants to change to a new economic policy, because the economic life of her society has not reached the standard of economic life in Great Britain or the United States, and is not ripe for the application of Marx's methods. If Russia's economic standards are below those of Great Britain or the United States, how could China's economic standards possibly be high enough for the application of Marx's methods? Even Marx's disciples

say that we cannot use his methods for the solution of all social problems in China.

China has never had any great capitalists. If the state can control and develop capital and give the benefits to all the people, it will be easy to avoid the conflicts with capitalists. The United States has developed capital in three ways: Through railroads, through manufacturing, and through mining. We shall not be able to promote one of these three great industries by our own knowledge and experience or with our own capital. We cannot but depend on the already created capital of other countries. If we wait until we ourselves have enough capital before we start to promote industry, the process of development will be exceedingly slow.

Lecture 3: The chief problem for the *Min-sheng* Principle is the food problem. The United States now leads the world in food supply. Other countries, like Australia, Canada, and Argentina in South America depend upon food as a great source of national wealth. While some countries produce enough food for themselves, many do not. The British Isles, for example, only raise food sufficient for three months' consumption out of the whole year. Japan can supply her own people with food for eleven months out of the year. Germany's food supply is sufficient for ten months' use. It was food difficulty which caused Germany's defeat in the European War. You can see why the food problem of an entire nation is of such serious consequence.

Today, China's populace is poverty-stricken. What is the true status of the food problem? Nowhere in China is there enough food for the people. Every year tens of thousands die of starvation. This is an estimate of ordinary years; when floods and famines come, a far greater number perish with hunger. According to reliable foreign investigations, China at present does not really have more than 310,000,000 people. Several decades ago we had a population of 400,000,000. The decrease is due to food shortage. There are many reasons why she does not have an adequate food supply; the main reason is the lack of progress in agricultural science and the next reason is foreign economic domination.

In my lecture on Nationalism, I described the economic forces with which foreign countries are oppressing China. Every year they rob China of rights

and privileges worth \$1,200,000,000. How is it paid over to foreign countries? Is the loss all in money? No, part of the loss is in food. Three years ago there was a severe drought in North China; along the Peking-Hankow and Peking-Mukden railways people were dying by the thousands. Yet at the same time huge quantities of wheat and beans were being shipped out of Newchwang and Dairen. Why? Because of foreign economic domination; China had no money to send abroad, so had to starve herself and send her grain. No wonder China's food problem is unsolved! When we speak of the *Min-sheng* Principle we mean that we want our four hundred millions all to have food and very cheap food; only when there is abundant, cheap food can we say that the livelihood problem is solved.

We daily depend upon four most important kinds of food to nourish our life. They are air, water, animal food and plant food. The fourth and most important means of subsistence is plant food. Only after man had made great progress in seeking a living did he know how to eat plant food. If we want to solve the problem of plant food, we must first study the question of production. Since the production of food in China depends upon the peasants, since the peasants have to toil so bitterly, we must have the government make regulations by law for the protection of the peasants if we want to increase the production of food.

A large majority of the people in China are peasants, at least nine out of every ten, yet the food which they raise with such wearisome labor is mostly taken away by the landowners. What they themselves can keep is barely sufficient to keep them alive. This is a most unjust situation. We must make laws regarding the rights and interests of the farmers. We must give them encouragement and protection and allow them to keep more of the fruit of their land. The protection of the farmers' rights and the giving to them of a larger share in their harvests are questions related to the question of the equalization of land ownership.

Although China does not have great landowners, yet nine out of ten farmers do not own their fields. Most of the farming land is in the possession of landlords who do not do the cultivating themselves. We must immediately use government power and law to remedy this grave situation. Unless we can

solve the agrarian problem, there will be no solution for the livelihood problem. Of the food produced in the fields, sixty per cent, according to our latest rural surveys, goes to the landlord, while only forty per cent goes to the farmer.

In dealing with agricultural production, we should study not only this question of liberating the peasants but also the seven methods of increasing production. These methods are: Use of machinery, use of fertilizers, rotation of crops, eradication of pests, manufacturing, transportation, and prevention of natural disasters. In addition, we must also lay emphasis on the question of distribution. Equitable methods of distribution are impossible under a system of private capital.

The fundamental difference between the *Min-sheng* Principle and capitalism is this: Capitalism makes profit its sole aim, while the *Min-sheng* Principle makes the nurture of the people its aim. With such a noble principle, we can destroy the old, evil capitalistic system. But in applying the *Min-sheng* Principle for the solution of China's food problems, we can make only gradual changes in the capitalistic system; we must not try to overthrow it immediately.

Economists have always spoken of three necessities of life—food, clothing, and shelter. My study leads me to add a fourth necessity, an extremely important one—means of travel. In order to solve the livelihood problem, we must not only greatly reduce the cost of these four necessities, but we must make them available for all the people of the nation. If the *San Min Chu I* are to become effective and a new world is to be built up, then no one must lack any of these four necessities of life. It is essential that the state undertake the responsibility for providing these necessities.

Lecture 4: The first important problem in the *Min-sheng* Principle is food, the next problem is clothing.

The uncivilized races of Africa and Malaysia go without clothes, and so our primitive ancestors must also have lived naked. The wearing of clothes has come with the progress of civilization. The more civilization advances, the more complex becomes the problem of clothing.

Clothing materials, like food materials, depend upon animals and plants; there is no other important source.

In the progress of human civilization, living standards evolve through three

stages. The first stage is that of necessities, which man could not do without. When man advanced to the second stage, he had comforts. Then he went a step further and looked for luxuries.

But in seeking a solution for the problem of livelihood, we are not dealing with comforts or with luxuries; we are simply trying to solve the problem of necessities. We want the four hundred millions throughout the nation to have the necessary food and clothing, enough to eat and to wear.

Of clothing materials, two kinds come from animals and two kinds from plants. The four materials are silk, hemp or flax, cotton, and wool. These four products are the essential materials for man's clothing.

Although China discovered silk several thousand years ago, yet the key to the clothing problem of the Chinese people is not silk. Our necessary articles of clothing are not made of silk, and a large proportion of the people cannot afford to wear silk. The silk which we produce every year is for the most part shipped to foreign countries to be made into articles of luxury. Formerly China was the only country producing silk. Recently other countries like France, Italy, and Japan began to produce great quantities of silk. As a result, Chinese silk has been driven off the international market. Investigation will show that the decline of the Chinese silk industry is due to poor methods of production. If China is to reform her silk industry and to increase silk production, her silk growers must learn foreign scientific methods and must improve silkworm eggs and mulberry leaves. They must also study the best methods of reeling the silk from the cocoons and of sorting and improving the various grades, qualities, and colors of raw silk, and methods of weaving silks and satins by machinery. Then we can make beautiful silk goods for the use of our people. When the home demand is met, we can ship the surplus abroad in exchange for other goods.

The second material of which clothes are made is hemp which owes its first discovery to China. All the provinces of China raise hemp to a great extent, but the goods made from hemp are suitable only for summer clothing. If we want to better the linen industry, we must make a detailed and radical study of its agricultural side—how to

cultivate hemp and flax and how to apply fertilizers; and also of its manufacturing side—how to produce fine linen thread. Modern scientific methods must be applied to its manufacture.

Most clothes, however, are made of cotton, while wool is being used to an increasing extent. Cotton is not native to China. It came from India. China has built up a cotton industry, but foreign cotton cloth is better in quality than the native cloth and quite inexpensive. The people prefer the foreign cotton cloth, and so our native industry has been driven to the wall.

Among the cotton-growing countries of the world, the United States comes first, India second, and China third. Although China produces a great deal of cotton of good natural quality, yet, because her industries are undeveloped, she cannot use the raw cotton in the manufacture of good fabrics and yarn. She can only ship it for sale abroad, mostly to Japan and Western countries.

Our imports do not match our exports. Our chief imports are foreign yarn and cotton goods. So China's main loss through imports comes from cotton. In order to remedy the situation, we must regain our customs autonomy and adopt a protective tariff system.

The fourth material, wool, is produced in considerable quantities in China. Chinese wool is superior in quality to foreign wool, but the wool industry is not developed in China. We do not manufacture woollens but ship our wool to other countries to be sold. If we could recover our rights and employ the power of the state to develop our wool industry, it would flourish along with the cotton industry.

In order to solve the clothing problem, we must utilize the great strength of the entire nation in a broad comprehensive plan, first recover our sovereign rights, employ the state's power to develop our agricultural and manufacturing industries in connection with silk, hemp, cotton, and wool, and take back our Maritime Customs for the protection of these industries, and raise the duties on exported raw materials and upon imported manufactured goods. Then our spinning and textile industries will immediately begin to grow and the problem of clothing will reach a solution.

Lecture 5: (Presumably on Shelter), not given.

Lecture 6: (Presumably on Means of Travel), not given.

CHAPTER III

GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE

PARTY AND GOVERNMENT

A fact of fundamental importance to remember about the Chinese government structure is the Party Rule established by the Kuomintang following the Northern Expedition in 1926-28. Since then the Kuomintang has been exercising the governing powers on behalf of the Chinese people, and the existing National Government is responsible to the Party.

The Kuomintang's Party Rule has been embodied in laws. It was provided in Article 1 of the First Organic Law of the National Government (promulgated on July 1, 1925) that "The National Government shall administer affairs of the nation under the direction and supervision of the Kuomintang." The organic law of the National Government has been amended many times since, but the above-mentioned provision remains unchanged. In the summer of 1928, following the successful conclusion of the Northern Expedition, the *Program of Political Tutelage* was enacted and promulgated. Article I of the program reads: "During the period of Political Tutelage, the Kuomintang National Congress shall lead the nation and exercise the governing powers on behalf of the People's Congress." Later, this program became part of the *Provisional Constitution* promulgated in June, 1931. Article 72 of the *Provisional Constitution* reads: "The National Government shall have a chairman and an appropriate number of state councillors, who shall be elected and appointed by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang." Article 85 of the same law reads: "The power of interpreting this *Provisional Constitution* shall be exercised by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang."

Article 10 of the extant Organic Law of the National Government, which was promulgated on December 30, 1931, reads: "The National Government shall have a chairman and from twenty-four to thirty-six state councillors, and each Yuan shall have a president and a vice-president, who shall be selected and appointed by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang." Article 15 of the same law reads: "Pending the

promulgation of a Permanent Constitution, the Executive Yuan, the Legislative Yuan, the Judicial Yuan, the Examination Yuan and the Control Yuan shall each be responsible to the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang."

THE POLITICAL COMMITTEE

A description of the Kuomintang's internal organization, is given in the chapter on Kuomintang. The highest organ is the Party National Congress which normally meets once every two years. When the National Congress is in recess, the highest organs are the Central Executive Committee and the Central Supervisory Committee. Of the two, the former is by far more important. It has under it numerous committees. In order to deliberate on matters of government policy and to direct and supervise the National Government, it organized a Political Committee in 1924. For sometime it was known as the Central Political Council. The existing (but no longer active) Political Committee was formed in November 1935. According to its organic law, revised in May, 1938, its chairman, vice-chairman, and from 19 to 25 members are chosen by the Central Executive Committee from among its own members and those of the Central Supervisory Committee. It was also stipulated that the chairman and vice-chairman of the standing committee of the Central Executive Committee, chairman of the National Government, presidents of the five Yuan, chairman and vice-chairman of the National Military Council, should all attend meetings of the Political Committee. Whenever necessary, chairmen of the various special committees under the Central Executive Committee and heads of ministries and commissions may be notified to be present. Members of the standing committee of the Central Executive Committee should also attend meetings of the political committee.

The internal organization of the Political Committee underwent numerous changes. The systems of

having a chairman, a presidium and a standing committee at the head of the Political Committee were all tried. In 1935, the chairman system was made permanent. The chairman was endowed with powers to take necessary measures in the face of military or diplomatic exigencies. Under the Political Committee there used to be numerous sections, later renamed "technical committees." At one time there were eight such technical committees in charge of law, domestic affairs, foreign affairs, finance, economic affairs, education, land, and communications. Some of these were abolished and others amalgamated. Each of these technical committees was headed by a chairman and a vice-chairman, chosen from among important members of the Central Executive Committee and the Central Supervisory Committee and from 17 to 21 members chosen from among members and reserve members of the C. E. C. and C. S. C. and specialists. The Political Committee met once a week or every two weeks. No quorum was required and resolutions were adopted without voting. Nor was there any rigid procedure for the presentation of matters for discussion. In most cases the proposals were examined before discussion but sometimes they were not.

The authority of the Political Committee underwent little change during more than ten years of its existence. As the highest organ of political direction, it had power to decide on:

- (1) Principles of legislation,
- (2) Administrative policies and programs of the government,
- (3) Important matters of military administration,
- (4) Financial plans,
- (5) Selection of officials of the special appointment rank and political officials, and
- (6) Matters assigned by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang.

Though the Political Committee had the same power in regard to the appointment and dismissal of political officials in all five Yuan, it seldom interfered with judicial, examination and censorial cases.

With the exception of the chairman of the National Government, State Councillors, and presidents and vice-presidents of the five Yuan, who were selected and appointed by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang or its Standing Committee, the appoint-

ment and dismissal of all other political officials had to be approved by the Political Committee. In actual practice, the Political Committee generally approved of all important political officials such as heads of ministries and commissions recommended for appointment by presidents of the Yuan concerned. In the case of political vice-ministers of ministries in the Executive Yuan, chairmen of provincial governments, mayors of special municipalities and members of provincial governments, the procedure of appointment and dismissal was not uniform. In the last few active years of the Political Committee, the Executive Yuan often made the appointments or effected the dismissals first and then submitted the names to the Political Committee for confirmation.

Inasmuch as it was competent to decide on administrative policies and programs both ordinary and military in nature and the principles of legislation, the Political Committee was the common superior organ of the Executive Yuan, the National Military Council and the Legislative Yuan. Principles of legislation passed by the Political Committee were often more than guiding principles and comprised considerable details. In some cases the Political Committee, after having decided upon regulations of a legislative nature, sent them directly to the National Government for promulgation without going through the usual procedure of legislation. In the case of resolutions of the Executive Yuan, there were no hard and fast rules as to what should be submitted to the Political Committee for approval and what not. In the last few active years of the Political Committee, however, all problems pertaining to budgets were so submitted. In view of its comprehensive powers, the Political Committee, until its suspension upon the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war in July, 1937, was the most powerful organ within the Kuomintang that had to do with the direction and supervision of the National Government.

THE SUPREME NATIONAL DEFENSE COUNCIL

In August, 1937, the Standing Committee of the Central Executive Committee decided to form a Supreme National Defense Conference to take over functions of the Political Committee. Thus, for sometime, the Supreme National Defense Conference was the highest organ of political direction in the Chinese

government. It had a small standing committee which usually carried out the functions of the Conference. The chairman of the National Military Council was concurrently chairman of the Supreme National Defense Conference.

Meanwhile, the administrative power was centralized in the National Military Council which from August, 1937, to January, 1938, virtually became the Headquarters of the Commander-in-Chief of China's armed forces. During this period, the Council directed all Party, political and military affairs through its eight boards or departments in charge of military operations, military training, light industry and commerce, heavy industry, international publicity, people's movement, military transportation, and army and civilian medical services. To a certain extent this arrangement resulted in a unified command. Many organs, both under the National Government and in the Party, however, had not been brought under the control of the National Military Council. Then in January, 1938, all non-military functions, normally carried on by the civil branch of the National Government, were returned to their original organs concerned.

At its fifth plenary session in January, 1939, the Fifth Central Executive Committee decided to reorganize the Supreme National Defense Conference into the Supreme National Defense Council, which, since its formation, had been exercising the functions which formerly belonged to the Political Committee. The organic law of the Supreme National Defense Council has never been published. The *Tsungtsai* of the Kuomintang (Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek) is chairman of the Council, whose members include the members of the Standing Committee of the Central Executive Committee and the Central Supervisory Committee, the presidents and vice-presidents of the five Yuan (Executive, Legislative, Judicial, Examination, and Control), members of the National Military Council, and persons recommended by the chairman of the Supreme National Defense Council and approved by the Standing Committee of the Central Executive Committee. From among the members, the Chairman of the Supreme National Defense Council appoints 11 to form the Standing Committee, whose members all hold responsible positions in Party, military and administrative organs. The functions of the Supreme National Defense Council are usually

exercised by the standing committee, which meets once every two weeks. Full sessions of the Supreme National Defense Council are called by the chairman of the Council.

Aside from its regular members, the Supreme National Defense Council has a number of executive members. They are the secretary-general of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, heads of the various Party boards, chairman of the Training Committee, secretary-general of the Political Committee, civil affairs director of the National Government, secretary-general of the Executive Yuan, and heads of the various ministries, Chief of Staff, and Deputy Chief of Staff, and heads of the various boards in the National Military Council, and president of the Military Advisory Council. The chairman of the Supreme National Defense Council may ask any of the executive members to be present at Council sessions. The chairman of any technical committee under the Supreme National Defense Council may also be asked to be present at Council meetings.

The chairman of the Supreme National Defense Council, according to its organic law, has emergency powers. He does not have to adhere to the ordinary procedure while handling Party, political and military affairs. He has the authority to issue such decrees as may be necessitated by the situation. In actual practice, however, the chairman usually consults members of the standing committee before exercising these powers.

The Supreme National Defense Council functions in very much the same way as the Political Committee did, except that it is in charge of a greater number of activities and has a much more powerful secretariat. Though the Supreme National Defense Council has the power to direct all organs of high authority in the government, it does not issue orders directly to the organs concerned. Instead, its resolutions are forwarded to the organs concerned for enforcement by the secretariat of the Council. The secretariat is headed by a secretary-general, who is himself a member of the Council, and a deputy secretary-general.

In 1941, two new organs, namely, the Central Planning Board and the Party and Political Work Perscrutation Committee, were established under the Supreme National Defense Council.

THE CENTRAL PLANNING BOARD

The Central Planning Board was formed in October, 1940, in accordance with a resolution adopted by the Fifth Kuomintang Central Executive Committee at its seventh plenary session in January the same year to formulate and study all plans of political and economic reconstruction. The chairman of the Supreme National Defense Council is concurrently director-general of the Central Planning Board.

The internal organization of the Central Planning Board is as follows:—

- (1) An Examination Council to study plans and budgets of political and economic reconstruction, to readjust important laws and regulations and to propose important government policies.
- (2) A number of specialists, who work in three divisions in charge of political, economic and financial affairs.
- (3) A Council of Specialists to be convened by the Secretary-General.
- (4) A National-Defense Industries Planning Committee.
- (5) A Budgets Committee to examine budgetary estimates.
- (6) A secretariat which is sub-divided into secretarial, investigation, personnel, and three other sections.

Important projects either completed or under way are as follows:—

- (1) The compilation of a Three-Year Wartime Reconstruction Plan, completed in December, 1941.
- (2) The re-arranging of administrative programs of various government organs for 1942, completed in January, 1942.
- (3) The formulation of the National Government's administrative program for 1943, completed in July, 1942.
- (4) The compilation of a Post-War Five-Year National Defense and Economic Reconstruction Plan, now under preparation.
- (5) The preparation of a Ten-Year Plan for the development of the Northwest provinces, now under preparation.
- (6) The examination of the administrative programs of all government organs for 1943, now under preparation.

- (7) Other important projects already completed include the principles and form of regulations governing the divided responsibility of government organs of varying status, and the Local Self-Government administrative program.

THE PARTY AND POLITICAL WORK PERSCUTATION COMMITTEE

The Party and Political Work Perscutation Committee was formed in January, 1941, in accordance with a decision reached by the standing committee of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee on September 5, 1940, to check up the following matters:—

- (1) Work of the Central and local Party organs,
- (2) Work of the ministries and commissions under the National Government and of all administrative organs in the various provinces,
- (3) Progress made in the enforcement of approved plans,
- (4) Effect of the enforcement of the existing laws and orders,
- (5) Progress of economic reconstruction,
- (6) Financial and personnel conditions in the various organs.

The committee has one chairman and two vice-chairmen, selected by the Supreme National Defense Council, and eleven committee members. Aside from the presidents of the five Yuan in the National Government and the secretaries-general of the Central Executive Committee and the Central Supervisory Committee of the Kuomintang, who shall all be committee members *ex-officio*, the rest shall be chosen and appointed by the Supreme National Defense Council.

The committee has two divisions in charge of the perscutation of Party and political affairs, respectively. Each of these divisions has a director and a deputy director designated by the chairman of the Supreme National Defense Council. Once a year the committee may send out investigation parties to check up on the work done by local Party and administrative organs. Technicians and specialists may be invited to serve as members of these investigation parties. While carrying out its duties, these parties shall have access to the documentary files of organs under investigation. Results of such investigations are reported to the Supreme National Defense Council. In exercising its

duties, the Party and Political Work Perscrutation Committee is to maintain close contact with the Central Planning Board.

THE CENTRAL GOVERNMENT THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

The term National Government has two meanings. In its broad sense, it indicates the Central Government as a whole. In its narrow sense, it refers to the chairman of the National Government, the State Council, and from the standpoint of organization, also such organs as come directly under the National Government. Principally, they are the National Military Council and the Academia Sinica. The narrow sense is used in the following account.

The first organic law of the National Government was promulgated in July, 1925. Since then it has been revised six times. The last revision was effected in December, 1931. Under the existing organic law, the chairman of the National Government (Article 10) shall be selected and appointed by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang for a term of two years and may be re-appointed for another term. Mr. Lin Sen, the incumbent chairman of the National Government, has long ago completed his two terms. At its first plenary session in 1935, however, the Fifth Central Executive Committee resolved that Chairman Lin's second term be extended until the promulgation of a Permanent Constitution.

Under the present organic law, though the chairman of the National Government is the head of the Republic of China and represents the National Government both internally and externally, he has no actual political responsibility (Article 11). All mandates of the National Government and orders for the mobilization of military forces shall be issued upon the signature of the chairman of the National Government, but they shall not become effective unless countersigned by the presidents of the Yuan and the heads of the ministries concerned (Article 14). Pending the promulgation of a Permanent Constitution, the Executive Yuan, the Legislative Yuan, the Judicial Yuan, the Examination Yuan, and the Control Yuan, shall each be responsible to the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang (Article 15).

The State Council shall be composed of the chairman of the National Government, and from 24 to 36 councillors, who are selected and appointed by the

Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang for an indefinite term of office. The only function of the State Council (Article 17) is to decide matters which cannot be settled between two or more of the Yuan. In actual practice, matters like amnesty, preliminary national budgetary estimates, regulations governing the formation of organs directly under the National Government, and the appointment and dismissal of high-ranking officials, and legislative matters to be referred to the Legislative Yuan, were once included in the State Council's agenda. In recent years financial matters were often so included. The power of the State Council, however, is limited, as it cannot alter budgetary estimates presented by the Executive Yuan, nor can it reject petitions of amnesty from the Judicial Yuan.

In the National Government itself there are three organs, namely, the Civil Affairs Department, the Military Affairs Department, and the Directorate-General of Budgets, Accounts and Statistics. The first organ is in charge of documents and seals and the second is in charge of ceremonies and routine matters in the National Government, both of them of no political importance. The third organ, established in April, 1931, has three bureaus: budgets, accounts, and statistics. The Bureau of Budgets, is in charge of the compilation of the annual budgets, and the examination of the budgetary estimates of all government organs, before they become effective, have to be examined by the Bureau of Budgets. The Bureau of Accounts is in charge of the appointment, dismissal and work of accountants in all government organs. The Bureau of Statistics is in charge of the appointment and dismissal of statistical personnel in all government organs, and seeks to unify the methods of compiling statistics in all government organs.

Directly under the National Government are two large organs. The first is the National Military Council (*see* Chapter on Military Affairs) and the second is the Academia Sinica, or the National Academy of China, highest research institution in the country (*see* Chapter on Education and Research).

REVISED ORGANIC LAW OF THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT *Promulgated at Nanking on December 30, 1931.*

I. GENERAL PROVISION

Article 1.—The National Government, in pursuance of Article 77 of the Provisional

Constitution of the Political Tutelage Period, does hereby enact and ordain the following Organic Law of the National Government of the Republic of China.

II. THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

Article 2.—The National Government shall exercise the governing powers of the Republic of China.

Article 3.—The National Government shall have the supreme command of the land, naval and air forces.

Article 4.—The National Government shall have the power to declare war, to negotiate peace, and to conclude treaties.

Article 5.—The National Government shall promulgate laws and issue mandates.

Article 6.—The National Government shall exercise the power of granting amnesties, pardons, reprieves, and restitution of civic rights.

Article 7.—The National Government shall exercise the power of conferring medals and decorations of honor.

Article 8.—The National Government shall entrust to the five following Yuan the independent exercise of the five political powers of administration, legislation, judiciary, examination and control:—the Executive Yuan, the Legislative Yuan, the Judicial Yuan, the Examination Yuan and the Control Yuan.

Each of the aforementioned Yuan may, according to law, issue orders.

Article 9.—The National Government may, when it is deemed necessary, set up subordinate organs to be controlled directly by the National Government. The organization of such organs shall be determined by law.

Article 10.—The National Government shall have a chairman and from twenty-four to thirty-six state councillors, and each Yuan shall have a president and a vice-president, who shall be selected and appointed by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang.

Article 11.—The chairman of the National Government shall be the head of the Republic of China and shall represent the National Government both internally and externally, but he shall have no actual political responsibility.

Article 12.—The chairman of the National Government shall not hold any concurrent government post.

Article 13.—The chairman of the National Government shall hold office for two years and he may be reappointed for another term, provided, however, that upon the promulgation of a Permanent Constitution a new election shall be held according to law; in case the chairman of the National Government should be unable to perform his duty, the president of the Executive Yuan shall act on his behalf.

Article 14.—All mandates of the National Government and orders for the mobilization of military forces shall be issued upon the signature of the chairman of the National Government but they shall not become effective unless countersigned by the presidents of the Yuan and the heads of the ministries concerned.

Article 15.—Pending the promulgation of a Permanent Constitution the Executive Yuan, the Legislative Yuan, the Judicial Yuan, the Examination Yuan and the Control Yuan shall each be responsible to the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang.

III. THE STATE COUNCIL

Article 16.—The State Council shall be composed of the Chairman of the National Government and the State Councillors.

Article 17.—All matters which cannot be settled between two or more of the Yuan shall be referred to the meetings of the State Council for decision.

Article 18.—The regulations governing the meetings of the State Council shall be separately drawn up.

IV. THE EXECUTIVE YUAN

Article 19.—The Executive Yuan shall be the highest executive organ of the National Government.

Article 20.—The Executive Yuan shall establish ministries to which shall be entrusted the various executive duties.

The Executive Yuan may appoint commissions to take charge of specified executive matters.

Article 21.—The ministries of the Executive Yuan shall each have a minister, a political vice-minister, an administrative vice-minister and the various commissions shall each have a chairman, a vice-chairman and a certain number of members.

The ministers of the various ministries and the chairmen of the various commissions shall be appointed or removed, according to law, by the chairman of the National Government at the instance of the president of the Executive Yuan.

The political vice-ministers and administrative vice-ministers of the various ministries and the vice-chairmen as well as members of the various commissions shall be appointed or removed, according to law, by the chairman of the National Government at the instance of the president of the Executive Yuan.

Article 22.—In case the president of the Executive Yuan is unable to discharge his duties from any cause whatsoever, the vice-president of the said Yuan shall act in his place.

Article 23.—The meetings of the Executive Yuan shall be attended by the president and the vice-president of the Executive Yuan, the ministers of the various ministries, and the chairmen of the various commissions, and presided over by the president of the said Yuan.

Article 24.—The following matters shall be decided at the meetings of the Executive Yuan :—

- (1) Bills to be introduced in the Legislative Yuan.
- (2) Budgets to be submitted to the Legislative Yuan.
- (3) Amnesties to be submitted to the Legislative Yuan.
- (4) Declaration of war and negotiation for peace to be submitted to the Legislative Yuan.
- (5) The appointment or dismissal of administrative and judicial officials or above the recommended rank (3rd class).
- (6) All matters which cannot be settled between the various ministries and commissions of the Executive Yuan.
- (7) Other matters which, according to law or in the opinion of the president of the Executive Yuan, should be decided at the meetings of the said Yuan.

Article 25.—All orders and acts of disposition of the Executive Yuan, in order to be effective, shall be countersigned, in respect of those affecting general administrative affairs, by the entire body of ministers, and, in respect of those affecting only one ministry, by the minister concerned.

Article 26.—The organization of the Executive Yuan shall be determined by law.

V. THE LEGISLATIVE YUAN

Article 27.—The Legislative Yuan shall be the highest legislative organ of the National Government.

The Legislative Yuan shall have the power to decide upon the following :—legislation, budgets, amnesties, declaration of war, negotiation for peace, and other important international affairs.

Article 28.—In case the president of the Legislative Yuan is unable to discharge his duties from any cause whatsoever, the vice-president of the said Yuan shall act in his place.

Article 29.—The presidents of the various Yuan and the ministers of the various ministries may attend the meetings of the Legislative Yuan to offer explanations.

Article 30.—The Legislative Yuan shall be composed of from forty-nine to ninety-nine Legislative Members, who shall be appointed and removed, according to law, by the chairman of the National Government at the instance of the president of the Legislative Yuan.

Article 31.—The Legislative Members of the Legislative Yuan shall hold office for two years and shall be eligible for reappointment.

Article 32.—The Legislative Members of the Legislative Yuan shall not hold any concurrent government posts.

Article 33.—The president of the Legislative Yuan shall preside over the meetings of the Legislative Yuan.

Article 34.—The organization of the Legislative Yuan shall be determined by law.

VI. THE JUDICIAL YUAN

Article 35.—The Judicial Yuan shall be the highest judicial organ of the National Government.

The granting of pardons and reprieves and the restitution of civic rights shall be signed by the chairman of the National Government at the instance, according to law, of the president of the Judicial Yuan.

Article 36.—The Judicial Yuan shall establish a Supreme Court, an Administrative Court, and a Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries.

Article 37.—The president of the Judicial Yuan shall act concurrently as the president of the Supreme Court, and the vice-president of the Judicial Yuan shall act concurrently as the chairman of the Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries.

Article 38.—The president of the Judicial Yuan may, when it is deemed necessary, personally conduct and dispose of trials at the Administrative Court and the Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries.

Article 39.—In case the president of the Judicial Yuan is unable to discharge his duties from any cause whatsoever, the vice-president of the said Yuan shall act in his place.

Article 40.—The Judicial Yuan may introduce in the Legislative Yuan bills on matters within its own competence.

Article 41.—The organization of the Judicial Yuan shall be determined by law.

VII. THE EXAMINATION YUAN

Article 42.—The Examination Yuan shall be the highest examination organ of the National Government and shall exercise, according to law, the powers of examination and the determination of qualifications for public service.

Article 43.—In case the president of the Examination Yuan is unable to discharge his duties from any cause whatsoever, the vice-president of the said Yuan shall act in his place.

Article 44.—The Examination Yuan may introduce in the Legislative Yuan bills on matters within its own competence.

Article 45.—The organization of the Examination Yuan shall be determined by law.

VIII. THE CONTROL YUAN

Article 46.—The Control Yuan shall be the highest supervisory organ of the National Government and shall, according to law, exercise the following powers :

- (1) Impeachment.
- (2) Auditing.

Article 47.—In case the president of the Control Yuan is unable to discharge his duties from any cause whatsoever, the vice-president of the said Yuan shall act in his place.

Article 48.—The Control Yuan shall be composed of from twenty-nine to forty-nine Supervisory Members, who shall be appointed and removed, according to law, by the chairman of the National Government at the instance of the president of the Control Yuan.

Article 49.—The security of tenure of office of the Supervisory Members of the Control Yuan shall be determined by law.

Article 50.—All meetings of the Control Yuan shall be attended by the Supervisory Members of the Control Yuan and presided over by the president of the said Yuan.

Article 51.—The Supervisory Members of the Control Yuan shall not hold any concurrent public offices.

Article 52.—The Control Yuan may introduce in the Legislative Yuan bills on matters within its own competence.

Article 53.—The organization of the Control Yuan shall be determined by law.

IX. ADDITIONAL ARTICLE

Article 54.—The present law shall come into force on the day of its promulgation.

THE EXECUTIVE YUAN

The Executive Yuan is the highest executive organ of the National Government. It takes orders only from the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang and its Political Committee (now the Supreme National Defense Council). The president of the Executive Yuan, selected and appointed by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang, has considerable power, as the heads of the various ministries, commissions, and administrations in the Executive Yuan are appointed or removed by the chairman of the National Government at his instance. In case the president of the Executive Yuan is unable to discharge his duties from any cause whatsoever, the vice-president, who is similarly selected and appointed, acts in his place.

As it is at present constituted, the Executive Yuan has eleven ministries, four commissions and two administrations. They are:

- (1) Ministry of Interior,
- (2) Ministry of Foreign Affairs,
- (3) Ministry of Military Affairs,
- (4) Ministry of Finance,
- (5) Ministry of Economic Affairs,

- (6) Ministry of Education,
- (7) Ministry of Communications,
- (8) Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry,
- (9) Ministry of Social Affairs,
- (10) Ministry of Food,
- (11) Ministry of Justice,
- (12) Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission,
- (13) Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission,
- (14) National Relief Commission,
- (15) National Conservancy Commission,
- (16) National Health Administration,
- (17) National Land Administration.

Each ministry has a minister, a political vice-minister, and an administrative vice-minister, each commission a chairman and a vice-chairman, and each administration a director and a deputy director, all appointed and removed by the chairman of the National Government at the instance of the president of the Executive Yuan.

The Executive Yuan meeting which takes place once a week, usually on Tuesday, is attended by the president and vice-president of the Yuan, and the heads of the various ministries, commissions and administrations. The Executive Yuan meeting has the power to decide on the following matters:

- (1) Bills on legislative matters to be introduced in the Legislative Yuan,
- (2) Budgets to be submitted to the Legislative Yuan,
- (3) Amnesties to be submitted to the Legislative Yuan,
- (4) Declaration of war and negotiation for peace to be submitted to the Legislative Yuan,
- (5) The appointment or dismissal of administrative and judicial officials of or above the recommended rank,
- (6) All matters which cannot be settled between the various ministries, commissions and administrations of the Executive Yuan,
- (7) All matters which, according to law or in the opinion of the president of the Executive Yuan, should be decided at the meetings of the said Yuan.

All orders and acts of disposition of the Executive Yuan, in order to be effective, shall be countersigned, in respect of those affecting general administrative affairs, by the entire body of the ministers, and, in respect of those affecting only one ministry, by the minister concerned.

Strictly speaking, the Executive Yuan comprises the entire executive branch of the National Government, that is, the Yuan itself and all its component units. But in its current usage the term "Executive Yuan" is often applied in a narrower sense to denote only the institution presided over by the president of the Executive Yuan.

The duty of the Executive Yuan is to direct, coordinate and keep under constant review the work of its ministries, commissions, administrations, and either directly or through them, to exercise general supervision over the administration of the provinces and special municipalities. It falls within the sphere of the Executive Yuan to adjust the inter-relationships between the various ministries, commissions and administrations, to examine their budgets, appointments and policies as well as those of the provincial and special municipal governments, to review the progress of their work, to issue instructions on matters which they cannot decide for themselves, and to eliminate the overlapping of functions and prevent the shifting of responsibility.

In the execution of his duties, the president of the Executive Yuan is assisted by a secretary-general and a political affairs director. While routine matters are usually disposed of by them, with the assistance of secretaries and counsellors, important questions are always reserved for discussion at the Executive Yuan meeting. The weekly meeting affords a valuable channel for the exchange of views between the various administrative heads. Reports by ministers, chairmen of provincial governments, and mayors of special municipalities are scrutinized by the secretariat before they are submitted to the Executive Yuan meeting.

In recent years, the component units of the Executive Yuan have changed several times. In January, 1938, the Ministry of Navy was abolished and all naval affairs were transferred to the Naval Headquarters in the National Military Council; the Ministry of Industry was transformed into the Ministry of

Economic Affairs which absorbed the functions of the National Reconstruction Commission, the conservancy department of the National Economic Council, and the third and fourth departments of the National Military Council in charge of light industry and commerce, and heavy industry; the Ministry of Railways and the Bureau of Highways of the National Economic Council were merged with the Ministry of Communications; the National Health Administration was transferred from the Ministry of Interior to the Executive Yuan and it absorbed the public health department of the National Economic Council. In February, 1938, the National Relief Commission was created. In July, 1940 the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry was established. In January, 1941, an Economic Council was created to co-ordinate the activities of different ministries which pertain to economic affairs. This Economic Council was absorbed in May, 1942, by the National General Mobilization Council which remains in the Executive Yuan. In June, 1941, the Ministry of Social Affairs, formerly under the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, was transferred to the Executive Yuan. In December, 1941, the Land Administration was created. In November, 1942, the Ministry of Justice, hitherto under the Judicial Yuan, was transferred to the Executive Yuan by a resolution adopted at the 10th plenary session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee.

The National General Mobilization Council has two major divisions, namely, planning and administration. Planning is done by the council's standing committee which is headed by the president and vice-president of the Executive Yuan and has as its members the ministers of finance, military affairs, economic affairs, communications, agriculture and forestry, social affairs, and food, and the secretary-general and political affairs director of the Executive Yuan, and the secretary-general of the mobilization council itself. The standing committee holds periodic meetings and serves as the "economic cabinet" of the Executive Yuan. The administrative phase is attended to by two departments of general affairs and commodities and five sections: military affairs, manpower, finance, transportation, and inspection. These departments and sections work under the supervision of the secretary-general and deputy secretary-general of the mobilization council.

THE LEGISLATIVE YUAN

The Legislative Yuan has a president and a vice-president, both appointed by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang. The Legislative Yuan is composed of from 49 to 99 legislative members, who are appointed and removed by the chairman of the National Government at the instance of the president of the Legislative Yuan. The legislative members hold office for two years and are eligible for reappointment.

The Legislative Yuan has five standing committees: (1) the General Committee, (2) the Foreign Affairs Committee, (3) the Finance Committee, (4) the Economic Affairs Committee and (5) the Military Affairs Committee. Besides the standing committees, there are seven special committees, created for specific pieces of legislation: (1) the Civil Law Committee, (2) the Penal Law Committee, (3) the Commercial Law Committee, (4) the Labor Law Committee, (5) the Self-Government Law Committee, (6) the Land Law Committee, (7) the Constitution Publicity Committee. These committees have no permanent chairmen, but the first member on the list calls the meeting to order and presides over it. Members of the special committees are chosen from the whole body of legislative members. A member therefore may serve in more than one committee at a time. Other special committees may be created as special legislative work demands, but they are to be abolished upon the completion of the assigned work.

Before the war broke out, the Legislative Yuan used to meet once every week. A third of the legislative members makes a quorum, but actual attendance in the last few years came up to two-thirds of the entire body. The work of the Legislative Yuan was suspended from November, 1937, to April, 1938. Since the latter date, the Legislative Yuan has been meeting once every two weeks. The president of the Legislative Yuan, who presides over these periodic meetings, has the power to decide on or alter the agenda, and he has also the power to stipulate the amount of time for discussion. Whenever necessary, he may prolong the time for discussion. In case of matters rejected by the Legislative Yuan, the president of the Yuan may petition the Political Committee (now the Supreme National Defense Council) for permission to reconvene the Legislative Yuan for reconsideration of the matter. The

Legislative Yuan may invite the presidents of other Yuan and the heads of ministries, commissions and administrations in the Executive Yuan to be present at its meetings.

According to Article 27 of the *Organic Law of the National Government*, the Legislative Yuan has power to decide on the following matters: legislation, budgets, amnesties, declaration of war, negotiation for peace, and other important international affairs. In practice, the principles of these matters used to be decided by the Political Committee and are now decided by the Supreme National Defense Council. The latter is the only judge of what are these "other important international affairs" which should be referred to the Legislative Yuan. The Legislative Yuan also has the right to interpellate the various ministries and commissions in the Executive Yuan concerning the execution of its resolutions, and in cases of infringement on the Legislative Yuan's power to legislate for all branches of the government. This right, however, carries with it no power of sanction.

The Legislative Yuan, unlike other national legislatures is not a policy-formulating body. It decides neither upon foreign nor domestic policy. Policies may be adopted and executed without a formal resolution of the Legislative Yuan. But a treaty must pass the Yuan before it can become effective. In treaty-making the Yuan is therefore a deliberating rather than an originating body. If a bill is introduced by the Supreme National Defense Council, the Legislative Yuan may change its contents but not its principles. If changes in its contents go so far as to make the revised bill deviate from the original principles, they may be rejected by the Supreme National Defense Council. In matters of foreign policy and treaty-making, the Legislative Yuan is only an advisory body on technical matters and not a deciding organ.

Bills introduced before the Legislative Yuan may be divided into four kinds, depending on their originating organs. The Central Executive Committee bills come first. These include bills introduced by the central, provincial and local Party headquarters or by members of the Central Executive Committee with the approval of and through the Central Executive Committee. The Central Executive Committee itself does not directly introduce the bills. Instead,

these bills used to go through the Political Committee and now go through the Supreme National Defense Council. Bills introduced by the State Council of the National Government form the second kind. Bills originated by any one of the four other Yuan constitute the third kind. The fourth kind includes bills introduced by the president of the Legislative Yuan and those introduced in the Yuan's name by legislative members. A ministry or commission under any Yuan, or a provincial, local and municipal government may introduce a law bill into the Legislative Yuan concerning matters within their respective competence with the approval and in the name of its direct superior Yuan. When an office not under any of the five Yuan but directly under the National Government wishes to introduce a bill on matters within its competence into the Legislative Yuan, it must submit the bill to the State Council of the National Government, which, after deliberation, will bring the bill before the Legislative Yuan.

Whenever a bill is introduced, its principles are always laid down and these are determined by the Supreme National Defense Council. Except for bills concerning political, military, or diplomatic problems which require secrecy, the Supreme National Defense Council may refer the principles of a bill to the Legislative Yuan for deliberation before a decision is made. Where the Legislative Yuan has a dissenting opinion on the principles of a bill it may express it to the Supreme National Defense Council, which makes final decisions.

When a bill is introduced in the Legislative Yuan, it is first assigned to a committee for consideration. In case of emergency, the bill goes directly to the Yuan meeting. After the committee stage, a bill comes to the Yuan meeting, where it goes through three readings. The first reading is a more or less formal procedure. The second reading is more important because there discussions and debates take place. At the third reading, the discussion and amendments are limited to the phraseology of the articles and clauses, or to other technicalities. Finally comes the voting. The vote of the majority of the legislative members present decides the issue. In case of a tie, the presiding officer casts the deciding vote. After a bill is passed or a resolution adopted the Legislative Yuan reports its decision to the National

Government, which promulgates it or decrees it as law. The National Government has no power of veto. But before promulgation the Supreme National Defense Council may disapprove of any of the bills. In that case it will lay down the principles and refer the bills back to the Legislative Yuan for reconsideration.

In order to find out actual conditions in the various provinces and in frontier districts as guidance in legislation, the Legislative Yuan in March, 1941, decided that from time to time legislative members should tour the country to find out facts about the following matters:

- (1) State of enforcement of existing laws and regulations,
- (2) Provincial, *hsien* and municipal ordinances to see whether they are contradictory to or violate existing laws,
- (3) Progress of the local self-government program,
- (4) Customs and habits in the frontier districts,
- (5) Conscription and labor service,
- (6) Land administration,
- (7) Judicial conditions,
- (8) Taxation and *hsien* and municipal finances,
- (9) Public utilities and government-owned enterprises,
- (10) Demand and supply of commodities.

Two such investigation parties left Chungking in August, 1942, one going to the northwestern provinces and the other going to interior districts in Szechwan and Sikang.

THE JUDICIAL YUAN

The Judicial Yuan is the highest judicial organ of the National Government and is responsible to the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, which appoints its president and vice-president. The Yuan is composed of the Supreme Court, the Administrative Court, and the Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries. The Ministry of Justice, which used to be a part of the Yuan, was transferred to the Executive Yuan in November, 1942.

The president of the Judicial Yuan is concurrently president of the Supreme Court, and the vice-president concurrently chairman of the Central Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries. The president of the Yuan, whenever he deems it necessary, may personally conduct and dispose of trials

before the Administrative Court or the Central Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries.

In the Judicial Yuan is unified the power of interpreting all laws and orders and the power of altering court sentences. In addition, the Yuan may introduce in the Legislative Yuan bills on matters within its own competence, may petition the chairman of the National Government for amnesties, mitigation of sentences or restitution of civil rights.

The internal organization of the Judicial Yuan consists of the councillors' office and the secretariat, which attend separately to official matters. Attached to the Yuan are the Committee for the Study of Laws and Regulations, which does research work in all laws and regulations at present in force, and the Judicial Officers' Training Institute.

(For details about courts, see Chapter on Courts and Prisons.)

THE EXAMINATION YUAN

The Examination Yuan is entrusted with the power of conducting civil service examinations and of determining the qualifications for public service. Its president and vice-president are appointed by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang. It has two organs, the Commission of Civil Service Examinations and the Ministry of Personnel Registration.

There are four kinds of examination: the high examination, the ordinary examination, the examination for candidates for public offices, and special examinations. The Commission of Civil Service Examination is in charge of all administrative work concerning these examinations. When an examination is about to take place, two special organs are set up: an examination supervisory committee to prepare questions, mark examination papers and decide on the successful candidates; and an examination affairs department to look after business routine such as arranging examination halls and the custody of examination papers, etc.

According to the existing *Examination Law* promulgated by the National Government on February 23, 1933, three classes of people should participate in examinations and have their qualifications determined: First, those standing for election; second,

those wishing to receive government appointments of the selected, recommended or delegated ranks;* and, third, professional and technical people, lawyers, accountants, agricultural, industrial and mining experts and technicians in public enterprises, doctors, pharmacists, veterinarians, midwives, nurses, who, according to law, should have government certificates (Article 2).

For the last two classes of people, there are two kinds of examinations, namely, the ordinary examination and the high examination (Article 3). Whenever necessary, the Examination Yuan may hold special examinations (Article 4). Chinese citizens of the following categories may participate in the ordinary examination:

- (1) Those who are graduates of government or private middle schools and have received diplomas;
- (2) Those who possess scholastic attainment equivalent to that of middle school graduates and have their qualifications determined in the regional preliminary test (Article 6).

Chinese citizens of the following five categories may participate in the high examination:

- (1) Those who are graduates of government or private universities, independent colleges, or technical colleges and have received diplomas,
- (2) Those who are graduates of overseas universities, colleges or technical colleges that are recognized by the Ministry of Education, and have received diplomas,
- (3) Those who possess scholastic attainment equivalent to that of university or technical college graduates, and have their qualifications determined in the preliminary test,
- (4) Those who have special knowledge, technique or have written books, and these have been found up to the standard,
- (5) Those who passed the ordinary examinations four years previously, or who have held posts of the delegated rank or of equivalent rank for three years (Article 7).

* Appointments in the civil branch of the Chinese Government are in the following order

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Special appointment, | 2. Selected appointment, |
| 3. Recommended appointment, | 4. Delegated appointment, |

People of the following four categories have no right to participate in these examinations :

- (1) Those who have been deprived of their civil rights,
- (2) Those who have embezzled public funds,
- (3) Those who have been punished for accepting bribes,
- (4) Those who smoke opium or a substitute (Article 8).

The ordinary examination takes place once or twice a year in the national capital, in the various provinces, or in regions designated by the Examination Yuan ; the high examination takes place either once a year or once every two years in the national capital and such regions as may be designated by the Examination Yuan (Article 9). Whenever necessary or upon requests of government organs, the Examination Yuan may hold special examinations (Article 17). Both the ordinary and the high examinations used to comprise a series of three tests. One who failed in the first test was disqualified at once, while one who failed in the second test could not participate in the third and final test.

Formerly those who succeeded in passing all three tests in either the ordinary examination or the high examination were appointed to government posts immediately afterwards. In August, 1939, the Examination Yuan promulgated a set of new regulations, requiring those who succeed in passing the first test of the high examination to undergo training for one year at the Central Political Institute before they can take the second test. The third test has been cancelled. Those who pass the second test shall receive certificates and be appointed to government posts according to law, while those who fail may repeat the training once. In May, 1940, the Examination Yuan promulgated another set of regulations, requiring those who pass the first test in the ordinary examination to undergo similar training in the Central Political Institute before they are allowed to take the second test. The third test has also been cancelled. These regulations governing the high examination were further revised in August, 1942, whereby the period of training is to range from three months to one year, and places

other than the Central Political Institute may be designated for the training of technical personnel.

The Examination Law for Technical Personnel, promulgated by the National Government on September 24, 1942, applies to professional and technical personnel of the following five categories who should receive government certificates according to law :

- (1) Lawyers and accountants,
- (2) Agricultural, industrial and mining technicians,
- (3) Doctors, pharmacists, dentists, veterinarians, midwives, nurses, and assistant pharmacists,
- (4) Maritime and river navigators, steamship pilots and plane pilots,
- (5) Other professional and technical men and women, who, according to law, should have government certificates.

The examination consists of two parts, written tests and the presentation of diplomas and other documents for scrutiny. Those who pass the examination receive certificates from the Examination Yuan and can register with the government organs concerned according to law.

The Ministry of Personnel Registration determines the qualifications for public service. As the number of persons selected through examinations is still small, many public functionaries receive appointment through their qualifications of having graduated from schools, served in public organs for a certain number of years, or won merit in the course of the revolution. Those without these qualifications are not eligible for appointment to government posts. During the period of service of public functionaries, the Ministry of Personnel Registration periodically checks up on their service record, taking down their merits and demerits. In actual practice, however, the heads of the various government organs have much to say about the merits or demerits, employment and removal, of their subordinates. What is left for the Ministry of Personnel Registration to do is to examine the suggestions and recommendations from the responsible heads of the various government organs concerned.

TABLE SHOWING THE NUMBER OF PEOPLE WHO HAVE PASSED PUBLIC EXAMINATION

<i>Kinds of Examination</i>			<i>Number of Candidates Who Have Passed</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
Examination of Candidates for Elective Posts	18,447	Begun in June, 1940.
Hsien Councillors	10,205	
Hsiang-Chen representatives	8,242	
Examination of Candidates for Government Appointment	21,650	
High Examination	1,569	
Ordinary Examination	1,732	
Special Examination	18,349	Recent figures incomplete.
Examination of Professional and Technical men	500	Begun in April, 1942.
Lawyers	500	Examination for other types of professional and technical personnel under preparation.
Preliminary Examination of Participants in Public Examination	1,453	Recent figures incomplete.
TOTAL			<u>82,647</u>	

THE CONTROL YUAN

The Control Yuan is the highest supervisory organ of the National Government. It has a president and a vice-president, selected and appointed in the same way as the presidents and vice-presidents of the four other Yuan. Its two principal powers are impeachment and auditing. It exercises the former through supervisory members of whom there are from 29 to 49, appointed and removed by the chairman of the National Government at the instance of the president of the Control Yuan. The term of office of the supervisory members is indefinite and they have such security as is usually enjoyed by judges.

In the exercise of the power of impeachment, the Control Yuan may make inquiries and look into the files of government offices and public organs. Officials in these offices and organs under investigation are obligated to give detailed and truthful answers. To facilitate its work, the Control Yuan divides the whole country into 16 supervisory districts each headed by a supervisory

commissioner. By May 1943, however, ten such districts had been established. They are: (1) Kiangsu, (2) Anhwei and Kiangsi, (3) Fukien and Chekiang, (4) Hunan and Hupeh, (5) Honan and Shantung, (6) Yunnan and Kweichow, (7) Kansu, Ningsia and Chinghai, (8) Kwangtung and Kwangsi, (9) Shansi and Shensi, (10) and Sinkiang.

Public functionaries of all ranks, guilty of breaches of laws and dereliction in duty, come within the power of impeachment by the Control Yuan. The supervisory members may individually bring written charges against any public functionary. The charges, however, must be accompanied by a statement of the case and by evidence. When such a charge is received by the Control Yuan, it assigns three other supervisory members to examine the charge, and if the majority of them agree, the person is to be punished. If the majority of the three supervisory members adjudge the accused person innocent, and if the supervisory members who bring forth the charge should

disagree, the Control Yuan may assign five other supervisory members to review the case and make a final decision. The president of the Control Yuan has no right to interfere with final decisions.

The supervisory members may base their impeachment charges on their own information or on information given by the people. The Control Yuan has a special office to receive such petitions and reports from the people concerning alleged breaches of laws and dereliction of duty by public functionaries. From March, 1931, up to the end of 1941, the Control Yuan received 22,619 such petitions and reports from the people. In 7,469 cases the Control Yuan communicated with government organs in various parts of the country or with courts and found out the facts about them. In 811 other cases, the Control Yuan sent its own personnel to conduct necessary investigations.

In serious cases necessitating immediate redress, the Control Yuan may simultaneously send the impeachment charges to disciplinary organs and notify the heads of the government organs concerned to take immediate measures, such as correcting the conduct of the officials concerned or temporarily removing them from office. If the responsible officials fail to take these measures, they will also be subject to punishment.

Since the beginning of the war, the Control Yuan has been charged with the additional duties of accusing, proposing, and inspecting. When a supervisory member or a supervisory commissioner finds an official delinquent in his duties and if he deems the case serious enough to require immediate action, he may send a written accusation to the president of the Control Yuan. With the latter's approval, the accusation is sent directly to the superior of the delinquent official, asking him either to remove the official concerned from his post or to take other necessary action. The power of accusation, however, unlike that of impeachment, carries with it no legal force. The superior of the delinquent official may ignore the accusation. The same is true with the other two powers of proposing and inspecting. Supervisory members or supervisory commissioners may propose certain changes in the conduct of certain officials, or inspect government organs of various ranks and public bodies, with a view to increasing efficiency. But their value is largely persuasive and not compulsory.

The Control Yuan has power to impeach any and all public functionaries, but the organs dealing out the penalties differ with the ranks of the officials impeached. If those impeached are officials appointed by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang or are supervisory members themselves, the proper organ to mete out the penalties is the Central Supervisory Committee of the Kuomintang. Other political officials are to be punished by the Political Officials Punishment Committee under the National Government. Public functionaries in the Central Government and in the local governments above the recommended rank are to be punished by the Central Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries under the Judicial Yuan. Military officers of and above the major-general rank are to be punished by the Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Military Officers under the National Military Council. Officers of and below the colonel rank are to be punished by the Ministry of Military Affairs and by the Ministry of Navy (now the Naval Headquarters). Officials of and below the delegated rank in a local government are to be punished by the local Commissions for the Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries.

From the establishment of the Control Yuan in 1931 up to the end of 1941, it brought charges against 1,937 public functionaries. In 1,291 of these cases, the charges brought forth definite results. Others are still pending.

The Control Yuan exercises its power of auditing through the Ministry of Auditing. This ministry has departments in 12 provinces with a status similar to that of supervisory commissioners' offices. In addition, it has auditing offices in those government organs which handle financial matters so as to audit on the spot. The power of auditing includes (1) supervising the execution of budgets, (2) examining orders for receipts and disbursements, (3) auditing final accounts, (4) investigating illegal and disloyal behavior in connection with financial matters.

In the exercise of its powers, the auditors have power of investigation. There are both pre-auditing and post-auditing. Orders issued by financial organs for the payment of funds, and receipt and expenditure papers of all government organs have to be signed by the auditors in accordance with their budgetary estimates. No payments can be made without the auditor's signature.

SIMPLIFIED TABLE SHOWING WORK OF THE CONTROL YUAN

(July 1937—August 1942.)

YEAR	IMPEACHMENT		ACCUSATION		RECOMMENDATION		SUPERVISION OF EXAMINATION		PETITIONS RECEIVED FROM THE PEOPLE
	Number of Cases	Number of People Impeached	Number of Cases	Number of People Accused	Number of Cases	Number of Items Involved	Number of Cases	Number of Examinations Supervised	
1937 (July-Dec.)	46	71	1,427
1938	32	48	44	64	44	54	1,680
1939	50	92	65	118	129	131	24	59	941
1940	56	111	82	121	118	139	34	79	902
1941	45	69	75	106	81	87	48	111	1,178
1942 (Jan.-August)	26	42	71	108	47	49	44	79	744
TOTAL	255	433	337	517	419	460	150	328	6,872

THE LOCAL GOVERNMENTS

THE PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

From the standpoint of administration China is divided into 28 provinces, plus Mongolia and Tibet. In each of these provinces there is a provincial government. The present organization of the provincial government is based on the *Revised Organic Law of the Provincial Government* promulgated by the National Government on March 23, 1931. Following are some of its important points:—

The provincial government administers all political affairs in the province in accordance with the *Fundamentals of National Reconstruction* and with laws and orders of the Central Government (Article 1). The provincial government has the authority to issue such ordinances and regulations as are necessary for the administration of provincial affairs so long as they do not conflict with Central Government laws and orders, but no provincial ordinances and regulations restricting the people's freedom and increasing the people's tax burden shall be enforced without the approval of the National Government (Article 2). The provincial government has the authority to rescind and nullify orders and measures issued or taken by its subordinate organs if it should deem

such orders and measures contrary to existing laws and orders, exceeding the sphere of competence of the subordinate organs concerned, or improper for some other reasons (Article 3).

Each provincial government has from seven to nine members, all appointed by the National Government, who form the provincial commission; the chairman of the provincial government is appointed by the National Government from among members of the provincial commission; neither the chairman nor the members of the provincial commission may hold concurrent posts in another province (Article 4). Decisions by the provincial commission is necessary on the following matters:

- (1) Matters stipulated in Article 2 and Article 3 of this law,
- (2) Increase or alteration in the people's tax burden,
- (3) Demarcation or alteration of administrative districts,
- (4) Provincial preliminary and final budgetary estimates,
- (5) Disposal of public property and planning of provincial enterprises,
- (6) Execution of matters assigned to it by the National Government,

- (7) Supervision of local self-government,
- (8) Provincial administrative measures or alterations,
- (9) Transfer of national troops from one part of the province to another and the supervision of local armed units for the maintenance of peace and order,
- (10) Appointment and removal of all officials in and under the provincial government,
- (11) Other matters on which decision may be deemed necessary by the provincial commission (Article 5).

The chairman of the provincial government has the following powers :

- (1) To summon the provincial commission to meet and to preside over it as chairman,
- (2) To execute decisions of the provincial commission on behalf of the provincial government,
- (3) To supervise the functions of all administrative organs in the province on behalf of the provincial government,
- (4) To handle routine and emergency matters of the provincial government (Article 6).

If the chairman of the provincial government should for various reasons be unable to exercise his duties, members of the provincial commission may select from among themselves one to act for the chairman for one month at most (Article 7).

The provincial government has the following departments :

- (1) Secretariat,
- (2) Civil Affairs Department,
- (3) Finance Department,
- (4) Education Department,
- (5) Reconstruction Department.

Whenever necessary, it may have an Industry Department and other special organs (Article 8). The secretariat has a secretary-general who takes care of the secretariat under orders from the chairman of the provincial government (Article 15). Each of the regular departments has a commissioner, to be selected from among members of the provincial commission and appointed by the National Government at the instance of the Executive Yuan (Article 16). In case of dispute over competence among the various departments, the provincial

government petitions the Executive Yuan for decision (Article 18). By-laws of the various departments are to be decided by the provincial commission (Article 20).

OFFICE OF THE SPECIAL ADMINISTRATIVE INSPECTOR

Most of China's provinces are unusually large. In order to facilitate administration, the office of special administrative inspector has been created to serve as an additional link between the provincial government and *hsien* (county) governments under its jurisdiction. The existing regulations governing the office of the Special Administrative Inspector were promulgated by the Executive Yuan on March 25, 1936, and were subsequently revised on October 13 of the same year. These regulations were drawn up after careful study of the experience gained during the years of the bandit-suppression campaign in Central China provinces. Since conditions in the various provinces differ to a certain extent, the regulations are worded with due elasticity.

According to these regulations, the special administrative inspector is appointed by the Executive Yuan at the instance of the provincial government. Often a magistrate himself, he is empowered to investigate, direct and supervise the functioning of *hsien* (county) governments within his jurisdiction under the guidance of the provincial government. He has the right to suggest to the provincial government reforms or the undertaking of new functions by *hsien* within his jurisdiction. He may send confidential reports to the provincial government for the rewarding of the worthy and punishment of the unworthy among local officials. He is concurrently commander of the police and peace preservation corps in his area.

The special administrative inspector makes frequent tours in the various *hsien* (county) under his control. He is authorized to convene administrative conferences of magistrates, functionaries of local self-governing organs and representatives of public bodies for the purpose of discussing ways and means of improving local administration and in order to lay out working program for the various units.

The Standing Committee of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee at its meeting on May 31, 1938, adopted the Regulations to Unify Administration in the War Areas. When his area falls into enemy hands,

the special administrative inspector may set up a secret provisional office at a suitable place and continue to lead the various *hsien* under his jurisdiction in resistance activities (Article 2). If the original special administrative inspector cannot participate in such secret resistance activities, a proper man, preferably one having had military training and administrative experience, should be appointed to replace him (Articles 3, 4). All party and political workers, local self-defense units, and small units of regular troops in the area concerned, should take orders from the special administrative inspector (Article 7). The special administrative inspector or the *hsien* magistrates under him are to be rewarded for meritorious service or court-martialled for failure in duty (Article 9). The special administrative inspector and those working under him should keep in close contact with personnel assigned to similar secret work in neighboring areas (Article 10).

THE MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

The existing *Organic Law of Municipality* was promulgated by the National Government on May 20, 1930. In accordance with this law, there are two kinds of municipalities, special and ordinary. Special municipalities, so called because they are under the direct control of the Executive Yuan, comprise (1) the national capital, (2) cities that have a population of over 1,000,000, and (3) cities that possess special political, economic and cultural importance. There are at present seven special municipalities, namely, Nanking, Shanghai, Peiping, Tientsin, Tsingtao (all five now under Japanese military occupation), Chungking and Sian (both are auxiliary capitals).

Ordinary municipalities, coming under the provincial governments concerned comprise (1) seats of provincial governments, (2) cities that have a population of over 200,000, and (3) cities that possess special political, economic and cultural importance and have a population of over 100,000. The following cities are ordinary municipalities: Lienyung, Hangchow, Nanchang, Kiukiang, Hankow, Wuchang, Amoy, Canton, Swatow, Tsinan, Paotow (all 11 now under Japanese military occupation), Changsha, Chengtu, Kweiyang, Kunming, Lanchow, Hengyang, Kweilin, Nanning, Kukong (Shaokwan) and Tzeliutsing.

A municipality, either special or ordinary, is divided into a number of

chu (district); a *chu* comprises 10 to 20 *pao*; a *pao* comprises 10 to 30 *chia*; and a *chia* comprises 10 to 30 households.

The demarcation of municipal areas is decided, in the case of special municipalities, by the National Government at the instance of the Executive Yuan and in the case of ordinary ones by the National Government at the instance of the Executive Yuan upon the recommendation of the provincial governments concerned. Chinese of either sex, above 20 years of age, having resided in a municipality for over one year or having established domicile there for over two years, may, after having taken an oath to be loyal to the Republic and faithful to the Three People's Principles, become citizens of that particular municipality. They have the right to attend the Residents' General Meeting and exercise the powers of election, recall, initiative and referendum. These rights, however, are denied to people who fall within the following five categories:

- (1) Those who were opposed to the Revolution and have been found guilty and sentenced accordingly,
- (2) Corrupt officials and debased gentry who have been found guilty and sentenced accordingly,
- (3) Those who have been deprived of their civic rights,
- (4) Those prohibited by law from owning property,
- (5) Those who smoke opium or use its substitutes.

Within the scope set by laws and orders issued by the Central Government and superior organs, the municipality may undertake the following matters:

- (1) Census-taking and personnel registration,
- (2) Relief of orphans, oldsters, paupers and victims of famines,
- (3) Storage and regulation of food supplies,
- (4) Agricultural, industrial and commercial reform and protection,
- (5) Labor administration,
- (6) Afforestation, reclamation, animal husbandry, fishing and hunting, and measures for their protection and the suppression of harmful practices,
- (7) Supervision of privately-owned public utilities,
- (8) Organization and direction of cooperatives and mutual-help enterprises,
- (9) Customs reforms,

- (10) Educational and other cultural activities,
- (11) Public safety,
- (12) Fire prevention service,
- (13) Public health,
- (14) Establishment of hospitals, marts, abattoirs, and places of public amusements and the suppression of harmful practices,
- (15) Compilation of financial receipts and expenditures, preliminary and final budgetary estimates,
- (16) Management of public property and its disposal,
- (17) Undertaking and management of public enterprises,
- (18) Land administration,
- (19) Building of public houses, parks, public athletic grounds and public cemeteries and their repairs,
- (20) Direction to the people in house-construction and the suppression of illegal practices,
- (21) Building of roads, bridges, sewage system, embankment and other public works of civil engineering,
- (22) Management of rivers, harbors, and navigation,
- (23) Matters assigned by superior organs,
- (24) Other matters which, according to laws and orders, should be undertaken by the municipality.

The receipts of the municipality come from the following:

- (1) Land tax,
- (2) House tax,
- (3) Business tax,
- (4) License tax,
- (5) Advertising tax,
- (6) Income from public property,
- (7) Income from public enterprises,
- (8) Other taxes and levies authorized by law.

In the case of the first two items of income, various stipulations of law, if any, shall be adhered to. The municipality may issue reconstruction bonds in accordance with law.

In accordance with law, the municipal government takes charge of all administrative affairs in the municipality and

supervises its subordinate organs and self-governing bodies. The municipality may issue ordinances and regulations so long as they are not incompatible with laws and orders. The municipal government is headed by a mayor. In the case of a special municipality, the mayor is appointed by the National Government at the instance of the Executive Yuan and is of the selected rank (2nd class). In the case of an ordinary municipality, the mayor is appointed by the National Government at the instance of the Executive Yuan upon the recommendation of the provincial government concerned, and is of the recommended rank (3rd class).

The municipal government has the following bureaus:

- (1) Social Affairs Bureau,
- (2) Public Safety Bureau (now known as Police Bureau),
- (3) Finance Bureau,
- (4) Public Works Bureau.

Whenever necessary, the municipal government, upon approval by its superior organ, may have the following additional bureaus:

- (1) Education Bureau,
- (2) Public Health Bureau,
- (3) Land Bureau,
- (4) Public Utilities Bureau,
- (5) Harbor Bureau.

Both in the national capital and in seats of provincial governments, no separate public safety bureaus are necessary, as all police matters are to be undertaken by the Metropolitan Police Department or by the provincial-capital police organs. Whenever necessary, the ordinary municipality may reduce the size of all bureaus except the public safety bureau, or even change them into sections.

Helping the mayor are one secretary-general, two counsellors, and the directors of the various bureaus. If necessary, the municipal government may employ a number of technical personnel.

The municipal affairs council, composed of the mayor, counsellors, and directors of the various bureaus, meets once a month. In cities where municipal representative councils have been formed, these councils may elect from among themselves from three to five delegates to attend the municipal affairs council meetings.

THE HSIEN GOVERNMENT

The organization of the *hsien* government and various units in the *hsien* is stipulated in the *Organic Outline of Various Graded Units in the Hsien* which was promulgated by the National Government on September 19, 1939.

The *hsien* (county) is a unit of local self-government, and it shall retain its existing area (Article 1). There shall be from three to six classes of *hsien*, depending on their area, population, economic conditions, cultural status and communication facilities (Article 2). Under the *hsien* there shall be *hsiang* (in rural areas) or *chen* (in urban areas) and the *hsiang* (or *chen*) shall be further sub-divided into *pao* (borough) and *chia* (ward), and if a *hsien* is unusually large and has special conditions, it may be first divided into a number of *chu* (district) each under a *chu* office (Article 4). Both the *hsien* and the *hsiang* (or *chen*) are legal persons (Article 5). All citizens of the Republic of China over twenty years of age, irrespective of sex, having lived within a *hsien* for over six months or having had a domicile there for over one year, are citizens of the *hsien* concerned, and may, in accordance with law, exercise the rights of election, recall, initiative and referendum; persons within any one of the following categories cannot qualify as citizens:

- (a) Those who have been deprived of their civic rights.
- (b) Those who have defaulted with public funds.
- (c) Those who have been punished for bribery or embezzlement.
- (d) Those who have been prohibited from owning property.
- (e) Those who consume opium and its substitutes (Article 6).

Each *hsien* government shall have a magistrate, who shall administer all affairs of *hsien* self-government under the supervision of the provincial government, and execute, under the direction of the provincial government, all orders of the Central Government and the provincial government (Article 7). In the *hsien* government there shall be sections to handle civil affairs, finance, education, reconstruction, military affairs, land administration, and social welfare (Article 8). The *hsien* government shall be staffed by secretaries, section heads, directors (school inspectors), police officers, section members, technicians, assistant technicians, clerks, and police

sergeants (Article 9). In the *hsien* government there shall be a *hsien* affairs council meeting once every two weeks to discuss and decide resolutions to be presented to the *hsien* representative council and other important affairs concerning *hsien* administration (Article 11). The *hsien* administrative council may continue to meet pending the formation of the *hsien* representative council (Article 12).

In each *hsien* there shall be a *hsien* representative council which shall be formed by delegates elected by the *hsiang* (or *chen*) councils at the rate of one delegate from each *hsiang* (or *chen*), and legally organized professional groups may also send delegates but their number shall not exceed three-tenths of the total (Article 15). In principle, the *hsien* representative council shall elect its own speaker (Article 16).

The receipts of the *Hsien* come from the following:

- (a) Part of the land tax (the whole of all *hsien* land surtaxes in case of *hsien* where the Land Law has not yet been enforced).
- (b) Surplus of land tax and of its surtax after the completion of land registration.
- (c) Thirty per cent of the stamp tax set aside by the Central Government to help finance *hsien* administration.
- (d) Tax on improvements on land (or house tax in case of *hsien* where the Land Law has not yet been enforced).
- (e) Part of the business tax (or the entire butchery tax and over twenty per cent of all other business taxes pending the revision in rates in accordance with the Business Tax Law).
- (f) Income from *hsien* public property.
- (g) Income from *hsien* public enterprises.
- (h) Other legally permitted taxes and levies (Article 18).

Expenses incurred for national or provincial affairs shall be defrayed by the national treasury or the provincial treasury. The *hsien* government will not be ordered to raise funds locally to meet such expenses; in a financially self-sufficient *hsien*, its administrative and enterprise expenses shall be paid by the *hsien* treasury; in the case of

hsien whose income is not enough to meet its expenses, it shall receive a certain amount of financial subsidy from the provincial treasury; in the case of a sparsely populated *hsien*, funds needed for its development shall be paid by the provincial treasury, and any further deficiency shall be met by the national treasury (Article 19). In order to meet reconstruction needs, the *hsien* government, upon the resolution of the *hsien* representative council and with the approval of the provincial government, may in accordance with law issue *hsien* loans (Article 20). Pending the formation of the *hsien* representative council, *hsien* preliminary and final budgetary estimates shall be examined and approved by the *hsien* administrative council first and then presented by the magistrate to the provincial government for approval (Article 22).

In its organization, the *chu* shall in principle have from fifteen to thirty *hsiang* (or *chen*) (Article 24). The *chu* office shall be an auxiliary organ of the *hsien* government. It shall represent the *hsien* government in supervising and directing the various *hsiang* (or *chen*) in executing administrative and self-government matters (Article 25). In the *chu* office there shall be a *chu* chief and from two to five directors separately in charge of civil affairs, finance, reconstruction, education and military affairs (Article 26). At the seat of the *chu* office there shall be a police bureau which shall be subject to the direction of the *chu* in carrying out police functions in the locality (Article 27). A *chu* reconstruction committee may be established by inviting noted residents in the *chu* to serve as members (Article 28).

In its organization the *hsiang* (or *chen*) shall in principle have ten *pao*; there shall not be fewer than six *pao* or more than fifteen (Article 29). In each *hsiang* (or *chen*) there shall be a *hsiang* (or *chen*) chief and from one to two deputy chiefs (Article 31). In the *hsiang* (or *chen*) there shall be four divisions in charge of civil affairs, police and defense matters, economic affairs and cultural matters, each having a division head and several junior secretaries (Article 32). The tenure of office of both the *hsiang* (or *chen*) chief and deputy chiefs is two years and they shall be eligible for re-election (Article 33). For the time being the *hsiang* (or *chen*) chief, the principal of the *chung-hsin* (central) school and captain of the *hsiang* (or *chen*) able-

bodied men's corps shall be one and the same man but in economically and educationally progressive places, the principal of the *hsiang* (or *chen*) *chung-hsin* school shall be a full-time man (Article 34). Matters initiated directly by the *hsiang* (or *chen*) shall be approved by the *hsiang* (or *chen*) affairs council before their execution (Article 35).

Delegates of the *hsiang* (or *chen*) representative council shall be elected by the *pao* general assembly at the rate of two delegates from each *pao* (Article 38). If a *hsiang* (or *chen*) chief is elected by the *hsiang* (or *chen*) representative council, he may become concurrently chairman of the *hsiang* (or *chen*) representative council.

The receipts of the *hsiang* (or *chen*) come from the following:

- (a) Such income as authorized by law.
- (b) Income from *hsiang* (or *chen*) property.
- (c) Income from *hsiang* (or *chen*) public enterprises.
- (d) Subsidies.
- (e) Provisional levies adopted by the *hsiang* (or *chen*) assembly, with the approval of the *hsien* government (Article 41).

Income from *hsiang* (or *chen*) property shall be made the subject of general budgetary estimates by the *hsiang* (or *chen*) office and presented to the *hsien* government for approval and inclusion in the *hsien* general budgetary estimates (Article 44).

Each *pao* shall in principle have ten *chia*, but the number of constituent *chia* shall not be fewer than six or more than fifteen (Article 43). In densely populated places such as a village or a street which forms a natural and indivisible unit, two or three *pao* may jointly establish a *kuo-min* (people's) school, a cooperative, a granary and other organs, and one of the *pao* chiefs shall be elected as the presiding *pao* chief, but the able-bodied men's corps, however, shall still be organized on individual *pao* basis (Article 46). In each *pao* there shall be an office headed by a *pao* chief and a deputy chief to be elected by the *pao* assembly from among its citizens (Article 47). The tenure of office of the *pao* chief and deputy chief is two years and they shall be eligible for re-election (Article 48). For the time being, the *pao* chief, the principal of the *pao kuo-min* (people's) school and the

captain of the *pao* able-bodied men's corps shall be one and the same man, but in economically and educationally developed areas, the principal of the *kuo-min* (people's) school shall in principle be a full-time worker (Article 49). In the *pao* office there shall be from two to four junior secretaries separately in charge of civil affairs, police-defense matters, economic affairs and cultural matters; these posts shall be filled by the *pao* deputy chief and teachers in the *kuo-min* (people's) school (Article 50). Each household may send a delegate to the *pao* general assembly (Article 52). Each *chia* shall in principle comprise

ten households; the number of households shall not be fewer than six or more than fifteen (Article 53). Each *chia* shall have a *chia* chief, who shall be elected by the household heads' council (Article 54). In the *chia* there shall be a household heads' council; and whenever necessary, a *chia* residents' meeting may be held (Article 55).

This *Organic Outline* shall become effective on the date of its promulgation (Article 59). When it goes into effect, such parts of laws and orders as are contradictory with it shall be temporarily suspended (Article 60).

TABLE SHOWING ENFORCEMENT OF THE NEW HSIEN SYSTEM IN
VARIOUS PROVINCES

PROVINCE	Number of Hsien			Hsien government structure readjusted in accordance with the new system	Chu offices readjusted in accordance with the new system		Hsiang (Chen) offices organized in accordance with the new system	Pao offices organized in accordance with the new system	Number of Pao and Chia organized in accordance with the new system		Number of Chungshin and Kuomin Schools Established		Health Organizations Established			Number of Co-operatives Established			Militiamen Trained		
	Total	Hsien where the new system has been enforced	Hsien where the new system has not yet been enforced		Number Existing	Number Abolished			Chia	Pao	Chungshin	Kuomin	Hsien Health Institute	Chu and Hsiang (Chen) Health Stations	Hsien Co-ops.	Hsiang (Chen) Co-ops	Pao Co-ops	Militiamen given general training	Militiamen given intensive training	Staff officers of militiamen trained	
Anhui	62	34	28	34	120	74	2,018	23,143	23,780	264,551	2,858	9,279	36	10	215	750	23,608	6,560	
Chekiang	76	76	..	76	278	..	3,132	42,971	42,971	447,410	1,291	7,031	60	19	319	761	46,010	34,066	
Chinghai	17	11	6	11	38	..	234	937	937	10,018	
Fukien	64	64	..	64	183	..	1,428	15,514	15,640	164,320	2,318	8,599	64	125	..	1	24	342	50,646	27,118	
Honan	111	67	44	67	27	200	1,212	6,787	31,930	360,140	1,675	11,433	57	3	10	..	10	..	2,201,784	1,081	
Hunan	75	46	29	75	1,609	20,422	20,422	289,376	1,603	18,819	75	92	2	8	502	1,792,983	85,128	1,896	
Hupeh	70	61	9	61	72	173	1,381	32,888	36,543	355,621	466	8,467	17	1	26	195	124,127	10,318	
Kansu	67	18	49	64	209	..	246	2,503	2,503	23,987	532	2,492	20	19,551	472	
Kiangsi	83	69	14	69	229	..	1,847	18,346	18,346	124,777	905	3,256	83	17	63	314	23,252	71,043	
Kiangsu	61	21	40	23,992	238,323	2,163	18,534	26	18,337	..	
Kwangsi	99	74	25	99	28	46	2,343	23,992	23,992	238,323	2,163	18,534	26	2	17	719	719	815,445	18,337	961	
Kwangtung	97	39	58	63	120	56	2,185	30,898	59,864	560,687	1,664	13,689	73	620	108	1,819	1,819	171,555	162,896	102,617	
Kweichow	80	12	68	12	25	..	278	15,301	15,301	155,464	609	830	76	39	47	102	102	301,595	20,848	26,303	
Ningsia	13	13	..	13	131	642	642	8,471	2	57	
Shantung	107	12	95	
Shensi	92	74	18	92	884	6,550	6,550	133,012	502	4,000	54	..	6	230	230	628,186	81,648	8,487	
Sikang	46	4	42	4	79	1,086	2,666	24,889	1	..	5	9,473	6,143	4,166	
Szechwan	137	137	..	137	241	233	4,638	62,843	62,843	723,372	3,709	27,838	65	1	54	66	66	1,048,835	185,989	123,909	
Yunnan	112	112	..	112	1,424	13,544	13,544	146,447	1,011	8,328	77	6	21,990	7,158	
TOTAL	1,469	944	525	1,053	1,570	782	25,069	318,367	378,474	4,030,865	21,306	142,595	783	905	122	1,144	5,548	9,029,722	912,860	426,155	

Table prepared by the Ministry of Interior.

Source : Reports submitted by various provincial governments up to December, 1941

WAR-AREA HSIEN ADMINISTRATION

Following the outbreak of the war in July, 1937, and the spread of hostilities over a wide area, numerous *hsien* became war areas. To guide the activities of such *hsien* governments, the Executive Yuan stipulated that if a *hsien* in the war area is cut off from the provincial government, the office of special administrative inspector in that area may direct and supervise affairs of the *hsien* concerned; when the *hsien* is cut off even from the office of the special administrative inspector in charge, a similar office in a neighboring area may take over the direction and supervision; if the *hsien* is cut off from all superior organs, the magistrate may exercise discretionary powers (Article 2). If a *hsien* is threatened with enemy penetration, the *hsien* government may, in advance, select a suitable place within its jurisdiction and, with the approval of the office of the special administrative inspector of the area, establish a provisional *hsien* office there; if the enemy actually invades the *hsien*, the *hsien* government may, upon the approval of the office of the special administrative inspector in charge, move to the provisional *hsien* office, and if the *hsien* government cannot carry on its functions from places within its jurisdiction, it may establish a provisional office either on the border or in a neighboring *hsien*, and report to military and political authorities on the spot afterwards; if the place where the *hsien* government intends to set up its provisional office is garrisoned, approval from the garrison commander must be secured first (Article 3).

The organization of a war-area *hsien* government is to be simplified as much as possible. The *hsien* magistrate may reduce or amalgamate his staff in any way he deems fit (Article 4). The *hsien* magistrate may also abolish or merge organs and enterprises having no bearing on the prosecution of war (Article 5). Men experienced not only in *hsien* administration but in military affairs should be selected to serve as magistrates of war-area *hsien* (Article 7), who shall be concurrently commanders of self-defense units to be composed of all able-bodied men's corps, police force, peace preservation corps, militia and other self-defense units in the *hsien* (Article 8).

When planning to establish a provisional office, a war-area *hsien* government

should submit plans on the following matters to the office of the special administrative inspector in charge for approval and to the provincial government for record:

- (1) Organization and personnel in the provisional *hsien* office,
- (2) Defense of the original seat of the *hsien* government,
- (3) Command of the people's self-defense units in the *hsien*,
- (4) Summoning and reinforcement of able-bodied men,
- (5) Evacuation of old and weak, women and children and their accommodation,
- (6) Personnel remaining in occupied areas to do secret work,
- (7) Evacuation and summoning of staff workers in subordinate organs of the *hsien* government,
- (8) Custody of *hsien* public funds and store of foodstuffs,
- (9) Removal and custody of *hsien* government seal, accounts, and documents,
- (10) Disposal of military installations and commodities useful to the enemy,
- (11) Disposal of prisoners in the *hsien* jail,
- (12) Disposal of cultural and educational organs (Article 11).

During removal, the *hsien* government should keep in close contact with the national troops operating in the area and should co-ordinate its action with military movements (Article 12). Foodstuffs which cannot be easily moved should be distributed among the people (Article 13). The *hsien* magistrate in charge of a provisional *hsien* office should supervise and direct all subordinate organs and self-defense units under him to engage in the following activities:

- (1) To start guerilla warfare behind the enemy lines,
- (2) To assist the troops in building roads, digging trenches, and transporting military supplies,
- (3) To collect intelligence about the enemy and to destroy traitorous organizations,
- (4) To rescue wounded soldiers and to succor war refugees,
- (5) To organize and train able-bodied men as reserves for the troops,

- (6) To do propaganda and political work in connection with the war (Article 19). When its original seat is recovered, the *hsien* government should move back (Article 21).

HSIEN ADMINISTRATION IN THE WAR AREAS, JANUARY 1942

<i>Province</i>	A	B	C	D	E
Anhwei	33	6	21	2	...
Chekiang	51	2	22
Fukien	61	1	...
Honan	64	4	39	1	3
Hunan	73	...	2
Hupei	31	4	25	4	6
Kiangsi	71	2	3	7	...
Kiangsu	4	1	40	...	16
Kwangtung	61	6	16	14	...
Shansi	5	6	70	13	11
Shantung	2	2	81	7	15
Suiyuan	3	...	5	...	8
TOTAL	459	33	324	49	59

Source :—Reported by the statistical office of the Executive Yuan.

Notes :—A. Administration intact.

B. The magistrate remains to exercise his duties while the *hsien* is partially occupied by the enemy.

C. *Hsien* occupied by the enemy but the magistrate continues to exercise his duties in the rural area.

D. The magistrate continues to attend to his duties in a neighboring *hsien*.

E. *Hsien* under enemy control.

Various municipalities in these provinces are not included in this table.

REPRESENTATIVE BODIES

THE PEOPLE'S POLITICAL COUNCIL

When major hostilities broke out in Shanghai in August, 1937, an advisory council, composed of leaders of different political parties, was created under the Supreme National Defense Conference. As this was found inadequate, the Kuomintang National Congress, meeting in Hankow in March, 1938, in an extraordinary session, decided that a People's Political Council should be formed "to utilize the best minds in national affairs and to rally all elements in the country in time of war."

The first P.P.C. was organized in July the same year with 200 members, all selected by the Kuomintang. It had the power to receive government reports, interpellate the government, and make proposals to the government. Before putting into execution any important measure concerning domestic and foreign affairs, the government was required to submit it to the P.P.C. for consideration and endorsement. In case of emergency, however, the chairman of the Supreme National Defense Council may issue decrees. The first P.P.C. held altogether five plenary sessions: first session, July 6-15, 1938; second session, October 28-November 6, 1938; third session, February 12-21, 1939; fourth session, September 9-18, 1939; fifth session, April 1-10, 1940.

Early in 1941, the second P.P.C. met with 240 members, 40 more than in the first P.P.C. Instead of all being selected by the Kuomintang, 90 of the members were elected by the various provisional provincial and municipal assemblies both on regional and on professional basis. In addition to the powers enjoyed by the first council, the second P.P.C. could conduct investigations of matters entrusted to it by the government. The second P.P.C. held two plenary sessions: first session, March 1-10, 1941; second session, November 17-26, 1941. The third P.P.C. was organized in the summer of 1942. Out of a total 240 members, 164 were elected by provisional provincial and municipal assemblies. The third P.P.C. held its first plenary session, October 22-31, 1942.

As before, members of the third P.P.C. are divided into four groups. Group A members, totalling 164, were chosen from among those who have served in

government organs, public bodies and various private institutions in the provinces and municipalities for more than three years.

Group B members comprise five from Mongolia and three from Tibet. There are eight Group C members to represent overseas Chinese communities. Group D members, 100 in all in the first P.P.C., were increased to 138 in the second P.P.C. but reduced to 60 in the third P.P.C. They were chosen from among those who have served for more than three years in representative cultural and economic bodies or have been long devoted to political activities.

Twice as many candidates for Group B and Group C members as there are seats were nominated by the Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission and the Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission, respectively. The names were presented by the Supreme National Defense Council to the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee which made the formal selection. Candidates for Group D members were nominated by the Supreme National Defense Council and appointed by the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee.

When each plenary session adjourns, the council elects 25 members to form a resident committee, which, during the recess of the council, is competent to listen to government reports, check up on the enforcement of the council's resolutions by the government and exercise the power of investigation within the scope set by the council itself.

The council functions in a democratic way. Only a majority quorum is necessary to the holding of a plenary session. Only a majority vote of all those present at such a session is required for the adoption of a resolution. The councillors have absolute freedom of speech in the conference rooms. Outside of it, however, they are answerable to the same laws as ordinary citizens with regard to public utterances and writings.

The council has five committees to examine government reports and resolutions from the floor. These five sub-committees deal with military affairs and matters pertaining to national defense, foreign affairs and international events, domestic affairs, financial and economic problems, and finally, educational and cultural issues.

Whenever necessary, the council may organize special committees to look into special problems or to draft special reports. The councillors may make any proposal so long as it concerns China's war of resistance and program of reconstruction, and is not incompatible with Dr. Sun Yat-sen's Three People's Principles.

The tenure of office of each council is one year. Whenever necessary, the government may lengthen it. Plenary sessions are to be held once every six months, each session lasting ten days or longer, if necessary.

ORGANIC LAW OF THE PEOPLE'S POLITICAL COUNCIL

(Promulgated on April 1, 1938, and revised on March, 16, 1942.)

Article 1. The National Government, in order to utilize the best minds in national affairs and to rally all elements in the country in time of war, shall specially form a People's Political Council.

Article 2. Citizens of the Chinese Republic, of either sex and above 30 years of age and fulfilling either one of the four conditions listed below, may become members of the People's Political Council.

Article 3. The People's Political Council shall have altogether 240 members, whose allocation shall be as follows:

Group A. One hundred and sixty-four members shall be chosen from among those who have served with distinction for more than three years in any government organ, public body or private institution in the various provinces and municipalities (such as come under the direct control of the Executive Yuan); the number of councillors the various provinces and municipalities may each send to the People's Political Council shall be in accordance with the attached table; the councillors from the various provinces and municipalities shall not be confined to those having domicile in the respective areas.

Group B. Eight (five for Mongolia and three for Tibet) members shall be chosen from among those who have served with distinction for more than three years in any government organ, public body or private institution in Mongolia and Tibet, or those who have an intimate knowledge of the political and social conditions in these two places and have a high reputation.

Group C. Eight members shall be chosen from among those who have worked with distinction for more than three years in overseas Chinese communities, or those who have an intimate knowledge of the livelihood conditions of overseas Chinese and have a high reputation.

Group D. Sixty members shall be chosen from among those who have served with distinction for more than three years in important cultural or economic organizations, or those who have a high reputation for devotion to national affairs.

Article 4. The selection of members of the People's Political Council shall be in accordance with the following procedure:

- (1) Group A councillors shall be elected by the provisional representative councils in the various provinces and municipalities; unsigned ballots shall be used and those winning a greater number of votes are elected. Election by correspondence may be used when the National Government summons the People's Political Council, if the next session of the provisional people's assemblies in the various provinces and municipalities is so distant that the election cannot be completed before the convocation of the People's Political Council.
- (2) In the case of Group A councillors from provinces and municipalities where provisional representative councils have not yet been formed, the Party offices in these regions shall nominate twice as many candidates as their allocated number of councillors, and submit the names to the Supreme National Defense Council for selection by the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee.
- (3) In the case of Group B and Group C councillors, the Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission and the Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission shall, respectively, nominate twice as many candidates as their allocated number of councillors, and submit the names to the Supreme National Defense Council for selection by the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee.
- (4) In the case of Group D councillors, the Supreme National Defense Council shall nominate twice as many candidates as the allocated number of councillors, and submit the names to the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee for selection.

Article 5. The Supreme National Defense Council shall appoint a People's Political Council

Membership Qualification Examination Committee of from nine to eleven members and shall designate one of the members to serve as chairman. The committee shall examine the following matters :

- (1) If the qualifications of any councillor chosen in accordance with provision No. 1 of Article 4 are found not in conformity with its stipulations, the committee may petition the Supreme National Defense Council to cancel his councillorship and pass the seat thus vacated to the one who won the next largest number of votes in that particular province or municipality.
- (2) If the qualifications of candidates nominated in accordance with provisions Nos. 2, 3, and 4 of Article 4 are found not in conformity with its stipulations, the committee may petition the Supreme National Defense Council to cancel their status as candidates.

Article 6. During the war of resistance, the government shall be required to submit all of its important measures regarding domestic and foreign affairs to the People's Political Council for consideration before putting them into execution. Resolutions adopted, after their approval by the Supreme National Defense Council, shall be handed, according to their nature, to the government organs concerned to be made into laws, or to become the subject matter of government mandates for general enforcement. In case of emergency or special circumstances, the chairman of the Supreme National Defense Council may, in accordance with the statute governing the organization of the Supreme National Defense Council, issue such ordinances as are necessary to meet the situation without being subject to the restriction embodied in the first two provisions of this Article.

Article 7. The People's Political Council may make proposals to the government.

Article 8. The People's Political Council shall have the right to listen to administrative reports by the government, and to interpellate the government.

Article 9. The People's Political Council may form investigation committees to investigate such matters as are entrusted to it by the government. The People's Political Council may submit the result of its investigation to the government for consideration and action.

Article 10. The tenure of office of members of the People's Political Council shall be one year. It may be prolonged whenever the government deems it necessary.

Article 11. The People's Political Council shall meet once every six months, each session lasting for ten days. Whenever it deems it

necessary, the government may prolong the period of a session, or summon an extraordinary session.

Article 12. During its recess, the People's Political Council shall form a Resident Committee of twenty-five members, to be chosen by members of the presidium and members of the council from among themselves. The functions of the Resident Committee shall be as follows :

- (1) To receive various kinds of reports from the government, /
- (2) To hasten the enforcement of the Council's resolutions by the government and from time to time to investigate into the conditions of enforcement,
- (3) To exercise the rights of making proposals and conducting investigations on behalf of the council so long as it does not exceed the scope set by resolutions of the council.

Article 13. The People's Political Council may hold meetings when more than half of its members are in attendance.

Article 14. The presidents of the various Yuan, and heads of the various ministries and commissions may attend meetings of the People's Political Council but they shall not take part in voting.

Article 15. Those holding government posts are not eligible to be members of the People's Political Council. This, however, does not apply to those working in local organs of self-government, and educational and academic institutions. Present members of the provisional representative councils in the provinces and municipalities are not eligible to be members of the People's Political Council.

Article 16. The People's Political Council shall have a presidium to be formed of from five to seven persons elected by the council. The members of the presidium do not have to be members of the People's Political Council. When the People's Political Council or its Resident Committee meets, members of the presidium shall choose one of their members to act as chairman,

Article 17. These Regulations may be revised by government mandates whenever necessary.

Article 18. These Regulations shall go into force on the date of their promulgation.

ALLOCATION OF MEMBERS OF THE PEOPLE'S POLITICAL COUNCIL.

Group A. Eight councillors each from Szechwan, Hunan, Chekiang, Kiangsu, Kwangtung, Anhwei, Hopei, Shantung, Honan, Hupeh and Kiangsi ; six councillors each from Shensi, Fukien, Kwangsi, and Yunnan ; four councillors each from

Kweichow, Shansi, Kansu, Liaoning, and Kirin; three councillors each from Chahar, Suiyuan, Sinkiang, Shanghai and Chungking; two councillors each from Chinghai, Sikang, Ningsia, Heilungkiang, Jehol, Nanking and Peiping; one councillor each from Tientsin, Tsingtao and Sian.

Group B. Eight councillors (five for Mongolia and three for Tibet).

Group C. Eight councillors (for overseas Chinese).

Group D. Sixty councillors.

PROVISIONAL PROVINCIAL COUNCIL

In September, 1938, two months after the First People's Political Council had held its inaugural session, the National Government promulgated the *Organic Regulations of the Provisional Provincial Council*. Up to the end of 1942, such councils had been formed in 17 provinces, namely, Szechwan, Yunnan, Kweichow, Hunan, Hupeh, Kiangsi, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Ningsia, Chekiang, Anhwei, Honan, Shensi, Kansu, Chinghai, Fukien and Sikang.

The existing organic regulations of the Provisional Provincial Council were revised and promulgated by the National Government on April 14, 1941. In establishing these councils the National Government was motivated "by a desire to utilize the best minds for the promotion of administration" in all provinces during the time of war (Article 1). All Chinese, over 25 years of age, irrespective of sex and with a middle school education or its equivalent, are eligible to become councillors, so long as they fulfil either one of two qualifications: first, they must be natives of the provinces concerned and have served with distinction for more than two years in public or private organizations in the said provinces; second, they, though not natives, must have served with distinction for more than two years in important cultural and economic organizations in the said provinces (Article 2).

The ratio of councillors chosen on geographical basis and on occupational basis is set at 6 to 4 (Article 3). Group A candidates for the provincial councils are nominated by the county governments in consultation with the local Kuomintang offices and leading civic bodies, and their names are submitted to the provincial government; twice

as many Group B candidates as the allotment are nominated by the provincial governments. Both lists are then submitted to the Executive Yuan for decision by the Supreme National Defense Council (Article 4). The Supreme National Defense Council may select councillors whose names are not on the two lists, but the number of such councillors must not exceed 20 per cent of the entire council (Article 5).

Before putting into execution any important administrative measures, the provincial government is required to present it to the provisional provincial council for discussion and decision. If the council is in recess, the provincial government must secure approval from the Executive Yuan for any action taken to cope with an emergency and report the matter to the council at its next session (Article 6). The council has power to make proposals to the provincial government, to listen to reports from the provincial government and to interpellate the provincial government (Articles 7, 9, 10). If the provincial government should find any resolution of the council impossible to execute, it may ask for reconsideration at its next session, but if two-thirds of the council present should decide to uphold or revise the original decision, the provincial government, unless authorized to do otherwise by the Executive Yuan, is obligated to put the measure into execution (Article 8).

The term of office of the councillors is one year, but it may be prolonged whenever the Executive Yuan should deem it necessary (Article 11). The council meets once every six months, each session lasting for two weeks; the provincial government may prolong the session or call a special session whenever it should deem it necessary (Article 12). More than half of the councillors constitute a quorum and a majority vote by those present is necessary for the passing of any resolution (Article 13). During its recess, the council has a resident committee of five to nine members, elected by the councillors from among themselves, to listen to reports from the provincial government and to check up on the enforcement of council resolutions (Article 14). Officials in the provincial government, including the chairman, commissioners and members, may attend council sessions but they have no vote (Article 15). Those engaged in local self-government work or teaching in schools, however,

do not come under this ruling (Article 16). The council has a speaker and a deputy-speaker, selected by the Executive Yuan from among the councillors for decision by the Supreme National Defense Council (Article 17). Councillors draw no salary, they get only travelling expenses for coming to the meeting (Article 19).

The size of the existing 17 provisional provincial councils ranges from 50 as maximum to 20 as minimum. It is proportionate to the population of each province. The assemblies in Szechwan, Hunan, Kwangtung and Honan have 50 members each. Those in Hupeh and Anhwei have 45 members each. Those in Chekiang and Kiangsi have 40 members each. Those in Fukien, Kwangsi and Yunnan have 35 members each. Those in Kweichow and Shensi have 30 members each. That in Kansu has 25 members and those in Ningsia, Chinghai and Sikang have 20 councillors each. Councils meet in the provincial capitals, or, in the case of war-area provinces, they meet wherever the provincial governments concerned happen to be located.

PROVISIONAL MUNICIPAL COUNCIL

Chungking is the only city which comes under the *Organic Regulations of the Provisional Municipal Council*, which were first promulgated by the National Government in September, 1938, and were later revised and promulgated on April 14, 1941. All essential provisions in these regulations are identical with those in the *Organic Regulations of the Provisional Provincial Council*. The purpose of the municipal council, the classification and qualifications of councillors, their method of selection, the competency of the council and the regularity of its session, are all identical with those of the provincial council. There are only three differences: First, the size of the municipal council is fixed at 25; second, the number of councillors which the Supreme National Defense Council may appoint other than candidates submitted by the municipal government, must not exceed 10 per cent of the entire council; and third, the ratio of councillors chosen by the citizens at large and by professional groups organized in accordance with law is 7 to 3

THE Hsien (COUNTY) COUNCIL

The existing *Provisional Organic Regulations of the Hsien Assembly* were promulgated by the National Government on August 9, 1941. The *hsien* council

shall be the representative organ of people in the entire *hsien* (Article 1). Its powers and functions (Article 2) are as follows:

- (1) To decide various matters concerning the completion of local self-government,
- (2) To decide *hsien* preliminary budgetary estimates, and to examine *hsien* final budgetary estimates,
- (3) To decide *hsien* ordinances and regulations,
- (4) To decide *hsien* taxes, bonds, and other matters concerning the increase of outlay of the *hsien* treasury,
- (5) To decide matters concerning the management and disposal of *hsien* property,
- (6) To decide on suggestions of the magistrate,
- (7) To suggest new projects and reforms in *hsien* administration,
- (8) To listen to the *hsien* government's reports and to interpellate the *hsien* government,
- (9) To receive petitions from the people,
- (10) To exercise other powers and functions as endowed by law. Decisions of the *hsien* council must not be incompatible with laws and orders of the Central Government (Article 3).

The *hsien* council is to be formed by delegates elected by the *hsiang* (or *chen*) councils in the *hsien* (Article 4). Each *hsiang* (or *chen*) is to elect one delegate; professional groups in the *hsien* may also elect their own delegates but their number must not exceed 30 per cent of the entire *hsien* council (Article 5). The term of office of *hsien* councillors is two years, and they are eligible for re-election (Article 6). Their original electorate *hsiang* (or *chen*) council or professional group may recall them by a two-thirds vote at meetings attended by more than half of their members (Article 7). The *hsien* council speaker and deputy-speaker are to be elected by *hsien* councillors from among themselves with unsigned ballots (Article 10).

The *hsien* council is to meet once every three months, each session lasting from three to seven days; the session may be lengthened whenever necessary (Article 11). A majority quorum is

required for *hsien* council sessions and a majority vote is required for decisions (Article 14). The *hsien* council may ask the *hsien* magistrate, *hsien* secretary and section chiefs in the *hsien* government to be present at its sessions either to render reports or to give explanations wanted (Article 16). The *hsien* councillors are not to be held responsible by any external authorities for their utterances or votes in the council (Article 19), and without the consent of the *hsien* council itself, no councillors may be arrested or detained (Article 20).

The *hsien* council forwards its decisions to the *hsien* magistrate for enforcement, and if the magistrate should delay in their enforcement or should enforce them improperly, the *hsien* council may demand for explanation, and if it should deem his explanation unsatisfactory, it may submit the matter to the provincial government for decision (Article 21). On the other hand, if the *hsien* magistrate should deem any resolution by the *hsien* council as improper, he may give reasons and ask the *hsien* council to reconsider it, and if he should consider the result still improper after reconsideration, he may petition the provincial government for instructions (Article 22). If the *hsien* council should pass any resolution contradictory to the Three People's Principles or contradictory to the national policy, the provincial government may submit the case to the Ministry of Interior, and with the approval of the Executive Yuan, it may dissolve the *hsien* council in question and call for the election of a new council (Article 23).

The National Government promulgated on the same day (August 9, 1941) a set of regulations governing the election of *hsien* councillors. *Hsien* citizens above 25 years of age, upon passing the examination for *hsien* council candidates or found qualified by other means, are eligible to be elected *hsien* councillors (Article 1). Only three classes of people, namely, public functionaries in the *hsien*, those in active military or police service, and students, have no right to be elected (Article 2). Those who have the right to elect and to be elected both on geographical and professional bases should participate on the geographical basis (Article 4). Geographically, each *hsiang* (or *chen*) is to elect one delegate to the *hsien* council. In *hsien* having more than 100 *hsiang* (or *chen*), several *hsiang* (or *chen*) may jointly elect one delegate; in *hsien* having less than seven *hsiang* (or *chen*), they

may still have seven members in the *hsien* council (Article 7). The election is to take place at a public *hsiang* (or *chen*) meeting and those receiving majority votes of all those present are elected (Article 8). Professionally, each group is to elect one delegate to the *hsien* council, but the number of professional delegates must not exceed more than 30 per cent of the entire council (Article 10). Six professional groups are recognized, namely, associations of farmers, fishermen, laborers, merchants, teachers, and those in free professions, and the methods of election to be used, either direct or indirect, depend on various conditions (Article 13). The civil affairs commissioner in each province is the election supervisor in that province (Article 3) and in him rests the power of interpreting the election regulations (Article 37).

The *Hsiang* (or *Chen*) Council

Also on August 9, 1941, the National Government promulgated the *Provisional Organic Regulations of Hsiang (or Chen) Council*. Each *hsiang* (or *chen*) shall have a representative council to be composed of two delegates from each component *pao*, elected by the *pao* residents' meetings (Article 7). The powers and functions of the *hsiang* (or *chen*) council (Article 8) are as follows:

- (1) To decide preliminary *hsiang* (or *chen*) budgetary estimates and to examine final *hsiang* (or *chen*) budgetary estimates,
- (2) To decide the management and disposal of *hsiang* (or *chen*) public property and public enterprises,
- (3) To decide *hsiang* (or *chen*) local self-government rules and regulations,
- (4) To decide agreements with other *hsiang* (or *chen*),
- (5) To decide on suggestions of the *hsiang* (or *chen*) chiefs,
- (6) To elect or recall the *hsiang* (or *chen*) chiefs,
- (7) To elect or recall its delegates to the *hsien* council,
- (8) To listen to reports from the *hsiang* (or *chen*) office and to interpellate the *hsiang* (or *chen*) office,
- (9) To decide new projects and reforms within the *hsiang* (or *chen*).

The term of office of *hsiang* (or *chen*) councillors is two years and they are eligible for re-election, and if they should violate laws or are malfeasant in their

duty they are to be recalled by a *pao* residents' meeting of their original electorate (Article 9). The *hsiang* (or *chen*) council meeting takes place once every two months (Article 15) and it must be attended by more than half of the councillors and its resolutions must be carried by majority votes; in recalling the *hsiang* (or *chen*) delegates to the *hsien* council, however, a vote by two-thirds of those present at the meeting shall be required (Article 16). The qualifications of *hsiang* (or *chen*) councillors and the method of their election, as stipulated in a set of regulations also promulgated on August 9, 1941, are the same as those of *hsien* councillors.

The *Pao* General Council

Each *pao* shall have a *pao* Council to be composed of one delegate each from its component households (Article 41) and it has the following functions and powers:

- (1) To decide *pao* and *chia* regulations within its jurisdiction,
- (2) To decide agreements with other *pao*,
- (3) To decide on drafting or recruiting *pao* people for labor service,
- (4) To decide on suggestions of the *pao* chief or of more than five *pao* residents,
- (5) To elect or recall *pao* chief and deputy chiefs,
- (6) To elect or recall *pao* delegates to the *hsiang* (or *chen*) council,
- (7) To listen to reports of the *pao* office and to interpellate it,
- (8) To decide on new *pao* projects or reforms.

The *pao* council meeting takes place once every month (Article 42), and it must be attended by more than half of the councillors and its resolutions must be carried by a majority vote of those present (Article 43).

The *Chia* Council

The *chia* has two representative organs. First is the *chia* council composed of the various household heads (Article 63) and it has the following functions and powers:

- (1) To elect and recall the *chia* chief,
- (2) To enforce laws and orders,
- (3) To inspect and report census changes in the *chia*,

- (4) To decide sanitation and health matters in the *chia*,
- (5) To suggest new projects or reforms in the *chia*.

The *chia* council meets once a month.

The second one is the *chia* residents' meeting. Whenever the *chia* chief should deem it necessary, or whenever more than ten *chia* residents should so request, the *chia* residents may be summoned to a mass meeting to decide on important projects or to effect essential changes in the *chia* administration (Article 68).

THE CONSTITUTIONAL MOVEMENT

The history of the Chinese constitutional movement dates back at least to the first Sino-Japanese War of 1894-1895. Since then various constitutions have been drafted and adopted. Among these may be mentioned the *Outline of 1905*, the *Nineteen Articles of 1911*, the *Provisional Compact of 1912*, the *Tien Tan Draft of 1913*, the so-called *Tsao Kun Constitution of 1923*.

The National Government which came into power in 1928 took the constitutional problem in a more serious manner. In accordance with Dr. Sun Yat-sen's teachings, the course of national revolution is divided into three stages of military operations, political tutelage, and constitutional government. In October, 1928, the Kuomintang to which the National Government was and is responsible, adopted a *Program of Political Tutelage*. Its principal contents were later incorporated in the *Provisional Constitution for the Period of Political Tutelage of 1931*.

At its third plenary session, in December, 1932, the fourth Kuomintang Central Executive Committee resolved that the Legislative Yuan should draw up a draft permanent constitution as soon as possible. The work got under way in 1933. The final draft was promulgated by the National Government on May 5, 1936 and a People's Congress was scheduled to meet in November, 1937, to adopt the draft and enact it as the permanent constitution. The war, which broke out in July that year, made it impossible to hold a general election of members to the People's Congress.

The fifth Kuomintang Central Executive Committee at its fourth session in November, 1939, decided to call the People's Congress in November, 1940, also for the purpose of adopting a permanent constitution. Dislocation in transportation caused by widespread

hostilities made it impracticable for about 2,000 delegates of the People's Congress to arrive in Chungking in time for the congress from areas including those under enemy occupation. As a result, another postponement became necessary.

PROGRAM OF POLITICAL TUTELAGE

(Adopted by the Standing Committee of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee on October 3, 1928.)

The Kuomintang, seeking the realization of Tsungli's Three People's Principles, enacts this *Program for the Period of Political Tutelage*, during which, in accordance with the *Program of National Reconstruction*, the people will receive training in the exercise of their political powers until the commencement of constitutional government and the complete attainment of democracy by the entire people.

Article 1.—With the Republic of China entering upon its Period of Political Tutelage, the National Congress of the Kuomintang will, in the place of the People's Congress, lead the people in exercising their political powers.

Article 2.—When the Kuomintang National Congress is in recess, it entrusts the governing power to its Central Executive Committee which will exercise it in its place.

Article 3.—The people should receive training gradually to exercise their four powers of election, recall, initiative and referendum in accordance with Tsungli's stipulations in the *Program of National Reconstruction*, in order to lay the foundation for a constitutional government.

Article 4.—The exercise of the five administrative powers, executive, legislative, judicial, examination, and control, is to be entrusted to the National Government, in order to lay the foundation for a popularly elected government.

Article 5.—The task of directing and supervising the National Government in administering important national affairs is to be undertaken by the Political Committee of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee.

Article 6.—The revision and interpretation of the *Organic Law of the National Government* is to be decided by the Political Committee of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee.

PROVISIONAL CONSTITUTION FOR THE PERIOD OF POLITICAL TUTELAGE

(Adopted on May 12, 1931, by the National People's Convention, and promulgated on June 1, 1931.)

PREAMBLE

The National Government, in order to rebuild the Republic of China on the basis of the Three People's Principles and the Quintuple-Power

Constitution, which form the underlying principle of the Revolution, having now brought the Revolution from the Military to the Political Tutelage Period, deems it necessary to promulgate a Provisional Constitution for general observance, so that the realization of the Constitutional Government may be accelerated and political power restored to a popularly-elected Government and further, in pursuance of the Last Will of our late Leader, has called at the National Capital the National People's Convention.

The said National People's Convention does hereby enact and ordain the following Provisional Constitution for enforcement during the Political Tutelage Period:

I. GENERAL PRINCIPLES

Article 1.—The territory of the Republic of China consists of the various provinces and Mongolia and Tibet.

Article 2.—The sovereignty of the Republic of China is vested in the people as a whole.

All persons who, according to law, enjoy the nationality of the Republic of China shall be citizens of the Republic of China.

Article 3.—The Republic of China shall be a unified republic forever.

Article 4.—The national flag of the Republic of China shall have a red background with a "blue sky and white sun" in the upper left corner.

Article 5.—The National Capital of the Republic of China shall be at Nanking.

II. RIGHTS AND DUTIES OF THE PEOPLE

Article 6.—All citizens of the Republic of China shall be equal before the Law, irrespective of sex, race, religion or caste.

Article 7.—Citizens of the Republic of China shall, according to the stipulation in Article 8 of the *Fundamentals of National Reconstruction* enjoy in all completely autonomous *hsien* (counties) the rights of election, initiative, recall and referendum as provided in Article 9 of the *Fundamentals of National Reconstruction*.

Article 8.—Except in accordance with law, no person shall be arrested, detained, tried or punished.

When a person is arrested or detained on a criminal charge, the organ responsible for his (or her) arrest or detention shall send him (or her) to the competent court for trial not later than 24 hours. The party concerned may himself petition, or some other person may petition on his behalf that he be brought (before the court) for trial within 24 hours.

Article 9.—Except in accordance with law, no person other than those in active military service, shall be subject to trial by a military court.

Article 10.—Except in accordance with law, no private houses of the people shall be subject to forcible entry, search or sealing.

Article 11.—All persons shall have liberty of conscience.

Article 12.—All persons shall be free to choose and change their residence; such freedom shall not be denied or restricted except in accordance with law.

Article 13.—All persons shall have the right to the privacy of correspondence and telegraphic communications; such right shall not be denied or restricted except in accordance with law.

Article 14.—All persons shall have the freedom of assembly and formation of associations; such freedom shall not be denied or restricted except in accordance with law.

Article 15.—All persons shall have the freedom of speech and publication; such freedom shall not be denied or restricted except in accordance with law.

Article 16.—Except in accordance with law, no private property shall be sealed or confiscated.

Article 17.—The exercise of the right of ownership by any private owner of property, in so far as it does not conflict with the public interest, shall be protected by law.

Article 18.—Where public interest necessitates, the property of the people may be expropriated in accordance with law.

Article 19.—All persons shall have the right to inherit property in accordance with law.

Article 20.—All persons shall have the right of petition (to the government).

Article 21.—All persons shall have the right to institute judicial proceedings at the courts of justice in accordance with law.

Article 22.—All persons shall have the right to submit petitions, and institute administrative proceedings (at the administrative court) in accordance with law (for the redress of wrongs done by government administrative organs).

Article 23.—All persons shall have the right to compete in civil service examinations in accordance with law.

Article 24.—All persons may, according to law, hold public posts.

Article 25.—All persons shall have the duty of paying taxes in accordance with law.

Article 26.—All persons shall have the duty of performing military service and compulsory labor (for the State) in accordance with law.

Article 27.—All persons shall have the duty to obey the measures adopted by government organs in the performance of their duties according to law.

III. ESSENTIALS OF POLITICAL TUTELAGE

Article 28.—The political policies and programs during the Period of Political

Tutelage shall be in accordance with the *Fundamentals of National Reconstruction*.

Article 29.—The system of district autonomy shall be enforced in accordance with the provisions of the *Fundamentals of National Reconstruction* and the *Law Governing the Institution of Hsien Autonomy*.

Article 30.—During the Period of Political Tutelage, the National Congress of Kuomintang shall exercise the governing powers on behalf of the National People's Congress. During the adjournment of the National Congress the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee shall exercise the said powers.

Article 31.—The National Government shall train and guide (the citizens) in the exercise of the four political rights of election, initiative, recall and referendum.

Article 32.—The National Government shall exercise the five governing powers, namely, executive, legislative, judicial, examination, and control.

IV. PEOPLE'S LIVELIHOOD

Article 33.—In order to develop the people's economic welfare, the State shall afford every encouragement and protection to the productive enterprises of the people.

Article 34.—In order to develop rural economy, to improve the living conditions of farmers and to promote the well-being of peasants, the State shall take active steps for the carrying out of the following measures:—

- (1) Reclamation of all wasteland in the country and development of farm irrigation;
- (2) Establishment of agricultural banks and encouragement of co-operative enterprises in the rural communities;
- (3) Enforcement of the (public) granary system for the prevention of famine and other calamities and replenishment of the people's food supplies;
- (4) Development of agricultural education with special emphasis on scientific experiments, extensive development of agricultural enterprises, and increase of agricultural produce;
- (5) Encouragement of road-building in the rural villages to facilitate the transportation of agricultural products.

Article 35.—The State shall open and develop all coal, gold and iron mines; and shall also encourage and protect private mining enterprises.

Article 36.—The State shall undertake and inaugurate State shipping enterprises; and shall also encourage and protect private shipping enterprises.

Article 37.—All persons shall be free to choose their profession or occupation. But when it is contrary to the public interest, the State may, by law, restrict or deny such freedom.

Article 38.—All persons shall be free to make contracts ; such freedom in so far as it is not in conflict with the public interest or with good morals, shall be protected by law.

Article 39.—In order to better the economic well-being and to promote closer co-operation between capital and labor, the people may form occupational organizations in accordance with law.

Article 40.—Both capital and labor shall develop productive enterprises in accordance with the principle of cooperation and mutual benefit.

Article 41.—In order to improve the living conditions of labor, the State shall put into effect various laws for the protection of labor and shall afford special protection to child and women workers in respect of their age and health.

Article 42.—In order to safeguard and relieve peasants as well as workers who shall be unable to work on account of accidents, sickness, disability or old age, the State shall put into effect a labor insurance system.

Article 43.—In order to promote the economic interests of the people, the State shall encourage and promote various cooperative enterprises.

Article 44.—The State may control or regulate the production or sale as well as the market price of daily necessities of the people.

Article 45.—Laws shall be enacted for the prohibition of usury, and exorbitant rents for the use of immovable properties.

Article 46.—The State shall give appropriate relief to those members of the national forces who are disabled in the course of active service.

V. EDUCATION OF THE CITIZENS

Article 47.—The Three People's Principles shall be the basic principles of education in the Republic of China.

Article 48.—Both sexes shall have equal opportunity for education.

Article 49.—All public and private educational institutions in the country shall be subject to the supervision of the State, and shall likewise be responsible for the carrying out of the educational policies adopted by the State.

Article 50.—All children of school age shall receive free education. Details shall be separately provided by law.

Article 51.—Those who have not had free education (in their youth) shall receive special adult education. Details shall be separately provided by law.

Article 52.—The Central and local government shall provide adequate funds for necessary educational expenses, and shall also safeguard the security of funds which are, by law, specially set apart (for educational purposes).

Article 53.—The State shall give encouragement or grants to private educational institutions which have achieved particularly meritorious results.

Article 54.—Encouragement and grants shall be given for the education of overseas Chinese.

Article 55.—The State shall encourage and safeguard members of the administrative or teaching staffs of schools who hold satisfactory records and have been long in service.

Article 56.—All public and private educational institutions in the country shall establish scholarships and prizes for the encouragement of deserving but needy students.

Article 57.—The State shall encourage and protect research and discoveries in science or the arts.

Article 58.—The State shall protect and preserve historic remains and ancient relics which have historical, cultural or artistic value.

DIVISION OF POWER BETWEEN THE CENTRAL AND LOCAL GOVERNMENTS

Article 59.—The principle of equilibrium shall be adopted in the division of power between the Central and local governments, as stipulated in Article 17 of the *Fundamentals of National Reconstruction*.

Article 60.—The various local governments may, within their respective spheres of authority, enact and ordain local laws and regulations. Where such laws and regulations are in conflict with those promulgated by the Central Government, they shall be null and void.

Article 61.—The demarcation of central and local revenues shall be separately determined by law.

Article 62.—The Central Government may restrict, by law, any local tax when :

- (1) It is contrary to public interest ;
- (2) It encroaches upon the source of national revenue ;
- (3) It constitutes overlapping taxation ;
- (4) It is detrimental to communications ;
- (5) It is unjustifiably imposed upon goods imported from other localities for the sole benefit of the locality concerned ;
- (6) It is in the nature of a transit duty on commodities in circulation among various localities.

Article 63.—The power of granting patents and monopolies is vested in the Central Government.

Article 64.—When one of the provinces reaches the Period of Constitutionalism, the division of power between the Central and the local governments shall be defined in detail by law in accordance with the *Fundamentals of National Reconstruction*.

VII. ORGANIZATION OF THE GOVERNMENT

SECTION 1. THE CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

Article 65.—The National Government shall exercise all the governing powers of the Republic of China.

Article 66.—The National Government shall have supreme command over the land, naval and air forces.

Article 67.—The National Government shall have the power to declare war, to negotiate peace and to conclude treaties.

Article 68.—The National Government shall exercise the power of granting amnesties, pardons, reprieves, and restitution of civil rights.

Article 69.—The National Government shall exercise the power of conferring medals and decorations of honor.

Article 70.—The National Government shall compile and publish a budget and financial statement of the national revenues and expenditures for each fiscal year.

Article 71.—The National Government shall be composed of the following five Yuan: The Executive Yuan, the Legislative Yuan, the Judicial Yuan, the Examination Yuan and the Control Yuan; as well as various Ministries and Commissions.

Article 72.—The National Government shall have a chairman and an appropriate number of State Councillors, who shall be selected and appointed by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang. The number of State Councillors shall be separately determined by law.

Article 73.—The chairman of the National Government shall represent the nation both internally and internationally.

Article 74.—The presidents of the five Yuan and the heads of the various Ministries and Commissions shall be appointed or dismissed in accordance with law by the National Government at the instance of the chairman of the National Government.

Article 75.—All laws shall be promulgated and mandates issued upon the signature of the chairman of the National Government according to law.

Article 76.—The various Yuan, Ministries, or Commissions may, according to law, issue orders.

Article 77.—The organization of the National Government and of various Yuan, Ministries and Commissions shall be separately determined by law.

SECTION 2. THE LOCAL GOVERNMENTS

Article 78.—In each province, a Provincial Government shall be established, which shall attend to the administration of provincial affairs

under the direction of the National Government. Its organization shall be separately determined by law.

Article 79.—When, as stipulated in Article 16 of the *Fundamentals of National Reconstruction*, a Province reaches the period of Constitutionalism, the (Provincial) Assembly of People's Delegates may elect a Provincial Governor.

Article 80.—The system of local government in Mongolia and Tibet shall be determined separately by law in the light of the local conditions.

Article 81.—In each *hsien* a *Hsien* Government shall be established, which shall attend to the administration of district affairs under the direction of the Provincial Government. Its organization shall be separately determined by law.

Article 82.—In each of the *hsien* a *Hsien* Autonomy Preparatory Committee shall be organized to carry out the preparations as provided in Article 8 of the *Fundamentals of National Reconstruction*. Its organization shall be separately determined by law.

Article 83.—Municipalities may be established in localities where industry and commerce, population or other special conditions warrant. The organization of such Municipalities shall be separately determined by law.

VIII. ANNEX

Article 84.—All laws which are in conflict with this Provisional Constitution shall be null and void.

Article 85.—The power of interpreting this Provisional Constitution shall be exercised by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang.

Article 86.—A draft of the Permanent Constitution shall be prepared by the Legislative Yuan on the basis of the *Fundamentals of National Reconstruction* as well as the achievements during the Political Tutelage and Constitutional Periods. The said draft shall be duly made known to the people at large in preparation for its adoption and enforcement at the opportune moment.

Article 87.—When a majority of the provinces in the country reach the period of Constitutionalism—that is, when *hsien* autonomy has been completely instituted throughout each of such provinces—then the National Government shall immediately summon a National People's Convention to decide upon the adoption and promulgation of the Permanent Constitution.

Article 88.—The present Provisional Constitution shall be enacted by the National People's Convention and forwarded to the National Government for promulgation.

Article 89.—The present Provisional Constitution shall come into force on the date of its promulgation.

THE FINAL DRAFT CONSTITUTION OF THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA

(Published May 5, 1936.)

By virtue of the mandate received from the whole body of citizens and in accordance with the bequeathed teachings of Dr. Sun Yat-sen, Founder of the Republic of China, the People's Congress of the Republic of China hereby ordains and enacts this Constitution and causes it to be promulgated throughout the land for faithful and perpetual observance by all.

PART I.—GENERAL PROVISIONS

Article 1.—The Republic of China is a *San Min Chu I* Republic.

Article 2.—The sovereignty of the Republic of China is vested in the whole body of citizens.

Article 3.—Persons having acquired the nationality of the Republic of China are citizens of the Republic of China.

Article 4.—The territory of the Republic of China comprises areas originally constituting Kiangsu, Chekiang, Anhwei, Kiangsi, Hunan, Hupeh, Szechwan, Sikang, Hopei, Shantung, Shansi, Honan, Shensi, Kansu, Chinghai, Fukien, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Yunnan, Kweichow, Liaoning, Kirin, Heilungkiang, Jehol, Chahar, Suiyuan, Ningsia, Sinkiang, Mongolia and Tibet.

The territory of the Republic of China shall not be altered except by resolution of the People's Congress.

Article 5.—All races of the Republic of China are component parts of the Chinese Nation and shall be equal.

Article 6.—The national flag of the Republic of China shall have a red background with a blue sky and white sun in the upper inside corner.

Article 7.—The National Capital of the Republic of China shall be at Nanking.

PART II.—RIGHTS AND DUTIES OF CITIZENS

Article 8.—All citizens of the Republic of China shall be equal before the law.

Article 9.—All citizens shall have personal liberty and, except in accordance with law, may not be arrested, detained, tried or punished.

When a citizen is arrested or detained on suspicion of having committed a criminal act, the authority responsible for such action shall immediately inform the citizen himself and his relatives of the cause for his arrest or detention and shall, within twenty-four hours, send him to a competent court for trial.

The citizen so arrested or detained, or any one else, may also petition the court to demand from the authority responsible for such action the surrender, within twenty-four hours, of his person to the court for trial.

The court shall not reject such a petition, nor shall the responsible authority refuse to execute such a writ as mentioned in the preceding paragraph.

Article 10.—No one, except those in active military service, may be subject to the jurisdiction of a court martial.

Article 11.—Every citizen shall have the freedom of domicile; no private abode may be forcibly entered, searched or sealed except in accordance with law.

Article 12.—Every citizen shall have the freedom to change his residence; such freedom shall not be restricted except in accordance with law.

Article 13.—Every citizen shall have the freedom of speech, writing and publication; such freedom shall not be restricted except in accordance with law.

Article 14.—Every citizen shall have the freedom of secrecy of correspondence; such freedom shall not be restricted except in accordance with law.

Article 15.—Every citizen shall have the freedom of religious belief; such freedom shall not be restricted except in accordance with law.

Article 16.—Every citizen shall have the freedom of assembly and forming associations; such freedom shall not be restricted except in accordance with law.

Article 17.—No private property shall be requisitioned, expropriated, sealed or confiscated except in accordance with law.

Article 18.—Every citizen shall have the right to present petitions, lodge complaints and institute legal proceedings in accordance with law.

Article 19.—Every citizen shall have the right to exercise, in accordance with law, the powers of election, recall, initiative and referendum.

Article 20.—Every citizen shall have the right to compete, in accordance with law, in State examinations.

Article 21.—Every citizen shall, in accordance with law, be amenable to the duty of paying taxes.

Article 22.—Every citizen shall, in accordance with law, be amenable to the duty of performing military service and labor service.

Article 23.—Every citizen shall, in accordance with law, be amenable to the duty of rendering public service.

Article 24.—All other liberties and rights of the citizens which are not detrimental to the social order or public welfare shall be guaranteed by the Constitution, and except in accordance with law, shall not be restricted.

Article 25.—Only laws imperative for safeguarding national security, averting a national crisis, maintaining social order or promoting public welfare may restrict a citizen's liberties and rights.

Article 26.—Any public functionary who illegally infringes upon any private liberty or right shall, besides being subject to disciplinary punishment, be responsible under criminal and civil law. The injured person may also, in accordance with law, claim indemnity from the State for damages sustained.

PART III. THE PEOPLE'S CONGRESS

Article 27.—The People's Congress shall be constituted of delegates elected as follows:—

- (1) Each *hsien*, municipality or area of an equivalent status shall elect one delegate, but in case its population exceeds 300,000, one additional delegate shall be elected for every additional 500,000 people. The status of areas to be equivalent to a *hsien* or municipality shall be defined by law.
- (2) The number of delegates to be elected from Mongolia and Tibet shall be determined by law.
- (3) The number of delegates to be elected by Chinese citizens residing abroad shall be determined by law.

Article 28.—Delegates to the People's Congress shall be elected by universal, equal, and direct suffrage and by secret ballots.

Article 29.—Citizens of the Republic of China having attained the age of twenty years shall, in accordance with law, have the right to elect delegates. Citizens having attained the age of twenty-five years shall, in accordance with law, have the right to be elected delegates.

Article 30.—The term of office of delegates to the People's Congress shall be six years.

When a delegate is found guilty of violation of a law or neglect of his duty, his constituency shall recall him in accordance with law.

Article 31.—The People's Congress shall be convened by the President once every three years. Its sessions shall last one month, but may be extended another month when necessary.

Extraordinary sessions of the People's Congress may be convened at the instance of two-fifths or more of its members.

Extraordinary sessions of the People's Congress may be convened by the President.

The People's Congress shall be held at the seat of the Central Government.

Article 32.—The powers and functions of the People's Congress shall be as follows:—

- (1) To elect the President and Vice-President of the Republic, the President and Vice-President of the Legislative Yuan, the President and Vice-President of the Control Yuan, the Members of the Legislative Yuan and the Members of the Control Yuan.
- (2) To recall the President and Vice-President of the Republic, the President and Vice-President of the Legislative Yuan, the President and Vice-President of the Judicial Yuan, the President and Vice-President of the Examination Yuan, the President and Vice-President of the Control Yuan, the Members of the Legislative Yuan and the Members of the Control Yuan.
- (3) To initiate laws.
- (4) To hold referenda on laws.
- (5) To amend the Constitution.
- (6) To exercise such other powers as are conferred by the Constitution.

Article 33.—Delegates to the People's Congress shall not be held responsible outside of the Congress for opinions they may express or votes they may cast at the meeting of the Congress.

Article 34.—Without the permission of the People's Congress, no delegate shall be arrested or detained during the session except when apprehended in *flagrante delicto*.

Article 35.—The organization of the People's Congress, the election as well as recall of its delegates, and the rules of procedure governing the exercise of its powers and functions shall be determined by law.

PART IV. THE CENTRAL GOVERNMENT CHAPTER 1.—THE PRESIDENT

Article 36.—The President is the head of the State and represents the Republic of China in foreign relations.

Article 37.—The President shall command the land, sea and air forces of the whole country.

Article 38.—The President shall, in accordance with law, promulgate laws and issue mandates with the counter-signature of the President of the Yuan concerned.

Article 39.—The President shall, in accordance with law, exercise the power of declaring war, negotiating peace and concluding treaties.

Article 40.—The President shall, in accordance with law, declare and terminate a state of emergency.

Article 41.—The President shall, in accordance with law, exercise the power of granting amnesties, special pardons, remission of sentences and restitution of civil rights.

Article 42.—The President shall, in accordance with law, appoint and remove civil and military officials.

Article 43.—The President shall, in accordance with law, confer honors and award decorations.

Article 44.—In case of an emergency or a serious economic change which requires immediate steps to be taken, the President may, by resolution of the Executive Meeting, issue emergency mandates necessary to cope with the situation; provided that such mandates shall, within three months after issue, be submitted to the Legislative Yuan for confirmation.

Article 45.—The President may summon a meeting of the presidents of the five Yuan for the purpose of consultation or discussion of matters appertaining to two or more Yuan.

Article 46.—The President shall be responsible to the People's Congress.

Article 47.—Citizens of the Republic of China having attained the age of forty years may be elected President or Vice-President of the Republic.

Article 48.—The election of the President and Vice-President shall be provided for by law.

Article 49.—The President and Vice-President shall hold office for a term of six years and may be re-elected for a second term.

Article 50.—The President shall, on the day of his inauguration, take the following oath:—

“ I do solemnly and sincerely swear before the people that I will observe the Constitution faithfully, perform my duties, promote the welfare of the people, safeguard the security of the State and be loyal to the trust of the people. Should I break my oath, I will submit myself to the most severe punishment the law may provide.”

Article 51.—In case of the President's office becoming vacant, the Vice-President shall succeed to the presidency; in case the President is incapacitated by any cause, the Vice-President shall discharge the duties of his office. In case both the President and the Vice-President are incapacitated, the President of the Executive Yuan shall discharge the duties of the President's office.

Article 52.—The President shall retire from office on the day his term expires. If by that time a new President has not been inaugurated, the President of the Executive Yuan shall discharge the duties of the President's office.

Article 53.—The period for the President of the Executive Yuan to discharge the duties of the President's office shall not exceed six months.

Article 54.—Except in case of an offence against the internal or external security of the State,

the President shall not be liable to criminal prosecution until he has been recalled or has retired from office.

CHAPTER 2.—THE EXECUTIVE YUAN

Article 55.—The Executive Yuan is the highest organ through which the Central Government exercises its executive powers.

Article 56.—In the Executive Yuan there shall be a President, a Vice-President and a number of Executive Members to be appointed and removed by the President.

The number of Executive Members as mentioned in the preceding paragraph, excluding the Ministers and Chairmen of Commissions, shall not exceed half the total number of Ministers and Chairmen of Commissions as provided for in the first paragraph of Article 58.

Article 57.—In the Executive Yuan, there shall be various Ministries and Commissions which shall separately exercise their respective executive powers.

Article 58.—The Ministers of the various Ministries and the Chairmen of the various Commissions shall be appointed by the President from among the Executive Members.

The President and Vice-President of the Executive Yuan may concurrently serve as Ministers and Chairmen of Commissions as mentioned in the preceding paragraph.

Article 59.—The President and the Vice-President of the Executive Yuan, the Executive Members, the Ministers of the various Ministries and the Chairmen of the various Commissions shall be individually responsible to the President.

Article 60.—In the Executive Yuan there shall be Executive Meetings composed of the President and Vice-President of the Executive Yuan and the various Executive Members, to be presided over by the President of the Executive Yuan.

Article 61.—The following matters shall be decided at an Executive Meeting:—

- (1) Statutory and budgetary bills to be submitted to the Legislative Yuan.
- (2) Bills concerning a state of emergency and amnesty to be submitted to the Legislative Yuan.
- (3) Bills concerning declaration of war, negotiation of peace, conclusion of treaties and other important international affairs to be submitted to the Legislative Yuan.
- (4) Matters of common concern to the various Ministries and Commissions.
- (5) Matters submitted by the President or President of the Executive Yuan.
- (6) Matters submitted by the Vice-President of the Executive Yuan, the Executive Members, the various Ministries and Commissions.

Article 62.—The organization of the Executive Yuan shall be determined by law.

CHAPTER 3. THE LEGISLATIVE YUAN

Article 63.—The Legislative Yuan is the highest organ through which the Central Government exercises its legislative powers. It shall be responsible to the People's Congress.

Article 64.—The Legislative Yuan shall have the power to decide on measures concerning legislation, budgets, a state of emergency, amnesty, declaration of war, negotiation of peace, conclusion of treaties and other important international affairs.

Article 65.—In the discharge of its duties the Legislative Yuan may interrogate the various Yuan, Ministries and Commissions.

Article 66.—In the Legislative Yuan there shall be a President and a Vice-President each of whom shall hold office for a term of three years and may be eligible for re-election.

Article 67.—Members of the Legislative Yuan shall be elected by the People's Congress from a list of candidates separately nominated by the delegates of the various provinces, Mongolia, Tibet, and citizens residing abroad. The candidates need not be delegates to the People's Congress. The respective number of candidates shall be proportioned as follows :—

- (1) A province with a population of less than 5,000,000 shall nominate four candidates. A province with a population of more than 5,000,000 but less than 10,000,000 shall nominate six candidates. A province with a population of more than 10,000,000 but less than 15,000,000 shall nominate eight candidates. A province with a population of more than 15,000,000 but less than 20,000,000 shall nominate ten candidates. A province with a population of more than 20,000,000 but less than 25,000,000 shall nominate twelve candidates. A province with a population of more than 25,000,000 but less than 30,000,000 shall nominate fourteen candidates. A province with a population of more than 30,000,000 shall nominate sixteen candidates.
- (2) Mongolia and Tibet shall each nominate eight candidates.
- (3) Citizens residing abroad shall nominate eight candidates.

Article 68.—Members of the Legislative Yuan shall hold office for a term of three years and may be eligible for re-election.

Article 69.—The Executive Yuan, Judicial Yuan, Examination Yuan, and Control Yuan may submit to the Legislative Yuan measures concerning matters within their respective jurisdiction.

Article 70.—The President may, before promulgation or execution of a legislative measure adopted by the Legislative Yuan, request the said Yuan to reconsider it.

If the Legislative Yuan, after reconsideration, decides to confirm the original measure so referred to it in accordance with the preceding paragraph by a vote of two-thirds or more of its members present, the President shall immediately promulgate or execute the said measure ; provided that measures concerning legislation and conclusion of treaties may be submitted to the People's Congress for reference.

Article 71.—The President shall promulgate a measure presented by the Legislative Yuan for promulgation within thirty days after its receipt.

Article 72.—Members of the Legislative Yuan shall not be held responsible outside of the said Yuan for opinions they may express and votes they may cast during the session.

Article 73.—Without the permission of the Legislative Yuan, no member may be arrested or detained except when apprehended in *flagrante delicto*.

Article 74.—No Member of the Legislative Yuan may concurrently hold any other public office or engage in any business or profession.

Article 75.—The election of Members of the Legislative Yuan and the organization of the Legislative Yuan shall be determined by law.

CHAPTER 4.—THE JUDICIAL YUAN

Article 76.—The Judicial Yuan is the highest organ through which the Central Government exercises its judicial powers. It shall attend to the adjudication of civil, criminal and administrative suits, and judicial administration.

Article 77.—In the Judicial Yuan there shall be a President and a Vice-President, each of whom shall hold office for a term of three years. He shall be appointed by the President.

The President of the Judicial Yuan shall be responsible to the People's Congress.

Article 78.—Matters concerning special pardons, remission of sentence and restitution of civil rights shall be submitted to the President for action by the President of the Judicial Yuan in accordance with law.

Article 79.—The Judicial Yuan shall have the power to unify the interpretation of statutes and ordinances.

Article 80.—Judicial officials shall, in accordance with law, have perfect independence in the conduct of trials.

Article 81.—No judicial official may be removed from office unless he has been subject to criminal or disciplinary punishment or declared an interdicted person ; nor may a judicial official be suspended or transferred, or have his salary reduced except in accordance with law.

Article 82.—The organization of the Judicial Yuan and the various Courts of Justice shall be determined by law.

CHAPTER 5.—THE EXAMINATION YUAN

Article 83.—The Examination Yuan is the highest organ through which the Central Government exercises its examination powers. It shall attend to the selection of civil service candidates by examination and to the registration of persons qualified for public service.

Article 84.—In the Examination Yuan there shall be a President and a Vice-President each of whom shall hold office for a term of three years, to be appointed by the President.

The President of the Examination Yuan shall be responsible to the People's Congress.

Article 85.—The Examination Yuan shall, in accordance with law, by examination and registration determine the following qualifications:—

- (1) For appointment as a public functionary.
- (2) For candidacy to public office.
- (3) For practice in specialized professions and as technical experts.

Article 86.—The organization of the Examination Yuan shall be determined by law.

CHAPTER 6.—THE CONTROL YUAN

Article 87.—The Control Yuan is the highest organ through which the Central Government exercises its censorial powers. It shall attend to impeachment and auditing and be responsible to the People's Congress.

Article 88.—In the discharge of its censorial powers, the Control Yuan may, in accordance with law, interrogate the various Yuan, Ministries and Commissions.

Article 89.—In the Control Yuan, there shall be a President and a Vice-President each of whom shall hold office for a term of three years and may be eligible for re-election.

Article 90.—Members of the Control Yuan shall be elected by the People's Congress from candidates, separately nominated by the delegates of the various provinces, Mongolia, Tibet and Chinese citizens residing abroad. Each group of delegates shall nominate not more than two candidates. The candidates need not necessarily be delegates to the Congress.

Article 91.—Members of the Control Yuan shall hold office for a term of three years and may be eligible for re-election.

Article 92.—When the Control Yuan finds a public functionary in the Central or local government guilty of violation of a law or neglect of his duty, an impeachment may be instituted upon the proposal of one or more Members and the endorsement, after due investigation, of five or more Members. Impeachment against the President or Vice-President, the President

or Vice-President of the Executive Yuan, Legislative Yuan, Examination Yuan or Control Yuan may be instituted only upon the proposal of ten or more Members and the endorsement, after due investigation, of one-half or more of the Members of the entire Yuan.

Article 93.—When an impeachment is instituted against the President or Vice-President or the President or Vice-President of the Executive Yuan, Legislative Yuan, Judicial Yuan, Examination Yuan or Control Yuan in accordance with Article 92, it shall be brought before the People's Congress. During the adjournment of the People's Congress, the delegates shall be requested to convene in accordance with law an extraordinary session to decide whether the impeached shall be removed from office.

Article 94.—Members of the Control Yuan shall not be held responsible outside of the said Yuan for opinions they may express and votes they may cast while discharging their duties.

Article 95.—Without the permission of the Control Yuan, no Member of the Control Yuan may be arrested or detained except when apprehended in *flagrante delicto*.

Article 96.—No Member of the Control Yuan may concurrently hold any other public office or engage in any business or profession.

Article 97.—The election of the Members of the Control Yuan and the organization of the Control Yuan shall be determined by law.

PART V.—SYSTEM OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT CHAPTER I.—THE PROVINCES

Article 98.—In the province, there shall be a Provincial Government which shall execute the laws and orders of the Central Government and supervise local self-government.

Article 99.—In the Provincial Government there shall be a Governor who shall hold office for a term of three years. He shall be appointed and removed by the Central Government.

Article 100.—In the province, there shall be a Provincial Council which shall be composed of one member from each district or municipality to be elected by the district or municipal council. Members of the Provincial Council shall hold office for a term of three years and may be eligible for re-election.

Article 101.—The organization of the Provincial Government and the Provincial Council as well as the election and recall of the Members of the Provincial Assembly shall be determined by law.

Article 102.—The government of areas not yet established as provinces shall be determined by law.

CHAPTER II.—Hsien

Article 103.—The *hsien* is the unit of local self-government.

Article 104.—Any matter of a local nature shall be under the jurisdiction of a local self-government.

All matters pertaining to local self-government shall be determined by law.

Article 105.—Citizens of the *hsien* shall, in accordance with law, exercise the powers of initiative and referendum in matters concerning district self-government, as well as the powers of election and recall of the *Hsien* Magistrate and other elective officials in the service of district self-government.

Article 106.—In the *hsien*, there shall be a *Hsien* Council the members of which shall be directly elected by the citizens in the *Hsien* General Meeting. Members of the *Hsien* Council shall hold office for a term of three years and may be eligible for re-election.

Article 107.—*Hsien* laws and regulations which are in conflict with the laws and ordinances of the Central or Provincial Government shall be null and void.

Article 108.—In the *hsien*, there shall be a *Hsien* Government with a *Hsien* Magistrate who shall be elected by the citizens at the *Hsien* General Meeting. The Magistrate shall hold office for a term of three years and may be eligible for re-election.

Only those persons found qualified in the public examinations held by the Central Government or adjudged qualified by the Ministry of Personnel Registration may be candidates for the office of *Hsien* Magistrate.

Article 109.—The *Hsien* Magistrate shall administer the affairs of the *hsien* in accordance with the principles of self-government and under the direction of the Provincial Governor, execute matters assigned by the Central and Provincial Governments.

Article 110.—The organization, powers and functions of the *Hsien* Council and *Hsien* Government as well as the election and recall of the *Hsien* Magistrate and the Members of the *Hsien* Council shall be determined by law.

CHAPTER III.—THE MUNICIPALITIES

Article 111.—In addition to the provisions of this chapter, the provisions governing self-government and administration of the *hsien* shall apply *mutatis mutandis* to the municipality.

Article 112.—In the municipality, there shall be a Municipal Council the members of which shall be directly elected by the citizens in the Municipal General Meeting. One-third of the members shall retire and be replaced by election annually.

Article 113.—In the municipality, there shall be a Municipal Government with a Mayor to be directly elected by the citizens in the Municipal General Meeting. He shall hold office for a term of three years and may be eligible for re-election.

Only those persons found qualified in the public examinations held by the Central Government or adjudged qualified by the Ministry of Personnel Registration may be candidates for the office of Mayor.

Article 114.—The Mayor shall administer the affairs of the municipality in accordance with the principles of municipal self-government and, under direction of the competent supervising authority, executive matters assigned by the Central or Provincial Government.

Article 115.—The organization of the Municipal Council and Municipal Government as well as the election and recall of the Members of the Municipal Council and the Mayor shall be determined by law.

PART VI. NATIONAL ECONOMIC LIFE

Article 116.—The economic system of the Republic of China shall be based upon the *Min Sheng Chu I* (Principle of Livelihood) and shall aim at national economic sufficiency and equality.

Article 117.—All land within the territorial limits of the Republic of China belongs to the people as a whole. Any part thereof the ownership of which has been lawfully acquired by an individual or individuals shall be protected by, and subject to, the restrictions of law.

The State may, in accordance with law, tax or expropriate private land on the basis of the value declared by the owner or assessed by the Government.

Every landowner is amenable to the duty of utilizing his land to the fullest extent.

Article 118.—All subterranean minerals and natural forces which are economically utilizable for public benefit, belong to the State and shall not be affected by private ownership of the land.

Article 119.—The unearned increment shall be taxed by means of a land-value-increment tax and devoted to public benefit.

Article 120.—In readjusting the distribution of land, the State shall be guided by the principle of aiding and protecting the landowning farmers and the land-utilizing owners.

Article 121.—The State may, in accordance with law, regulate private wealth and enterprises when such wealth and enterprises are considered detrimental to the balanced development of national economic life.

Article 122.—The State shall encourage, guide and protect the citizens' productive enterprises and the nation's foreign trade.

Article 123.—All public utilities and enterprises of a monopolistic nature shall be operated by the State, except in case of necessity when the State may specially permit private operation.

The private enterprises mentioned in the preceding paragraph may, in case of emergency

for national defense, be temporarily managed by the State. The State may also, in accordance with law, take them over for permanent operation upon payment of due compensation.

Article 124.—In order to improve the workers living conditions, increase their productive ability and relieve unemployment, the State shall enforce labor protective policies.

Women and children shall be afforded special protection in accordance with their age and physical condition.

Article 125.—Labor and capital shall, in accordance with the principles of mutual help and cooperation, develop together productive enterprises.

Article 126.—In order to promote agricultural development and the welfare of the farming population, the State shall improve rural economic and living conditions and increase farming efficiency by employment of scientific farming.

The State may regulate the production and distribution of agricultural products in both kind and quantity.

Article 127.—The State shall accord due relief or compensation to those who suffer disability or loss of life in the performance of military or public service.

Article 128.—The State shall give suitable relief to the aged, feeble, or disabled who are incapable of earning a living.

Article 129.—While the following powers appertain to the Legislative Yuan in the case of the Central Government, they may be exercised by the legally designated organ if, in accordance with law, such matters may be effected independently by a province, *hsien* or municipality :—

- (1) To impose or alter the rate of taxes and levies, fines, penalties, or other imposts of a compulsory nature.
- (2) To raise public loans, dispose of public property or conclude contracts which increase the burden of the public treasury.
- (3) To establish or cancel public enterprises, monopolies, franchises or any other profit-making enterprise.
- (4) To grant or cancel monopolies, franchises or any other special privileges.

Unless specially authorized by law, the government of a province, *hsien* or municipality shall not raise foreign loans or directly utilize foreign capital.

Article 130.—Within the territorial limits of the Republic of China all goods shall be permitted to circulate freely. They shall not be seized or detained except in accordance with law.

Customs duty is a Central Government revenue. It shall be collected only once when the goods enter or leave the country.

The various grades of government shall not collect any dues on goods in transit within the country.

The right to impose taxes and levies on goods belongs to the Central Government and shall not be exercised except in accordance with law.

PART VII. EDUCATION

Article 131.—The educational aim of the Republic of China shall be to develop a national spirit, to cultivate a national morality, to train the people for self-government and to increase their ability to earn a livelihood, and thereby to build up a sound and healthy body of citizens.

Article 132.—Every citizen of the Republic of China shall have an equal opportunity to receive education.

Article 133.—All public and private educational institutions in the country shall be subject to State supervision and amenable to the duty of carrying out the educational policies formulated by the State.

Article 134.—Children between six and twelve years old are of school age and shall receive elementary education free of tuition.

Article 135.—All persons over school age who have not received an elementary education shall receive supplementary education free of tuition.

Article 136.—In establishing universities and technical schools, the State shall give special consideration to the needs of the respective localities so as to afford the people thereof an equal opportunity to receive higher education, thereby hastening a balanced national cultural development.

Article 137.—Educational appropriations shall constitute no less than 15 per cent of the total amount of the budget of the Central Government and no less than 30 per cent of the total amount of the provincial, *hsien* and municipal budgets, respectively.

Educational endowment funds independently set aside in accordance with law shall be safeguarded.

Educational expenditures in needy provinces shall be subsidized by the national treasury.

Article 138.—The State shall encourage or subsidize the following persons or enterprises :—

- (1) Educational enterprises established by private persons within the State, with a high record of achievement.
- (2) Educational enterprises for Chinese citizens residing abroad.
- (3) Those who have made academic or technical inventions or discoveries.
- (4) Teachers who have made good records of long service.
- (5) Students who achieve high scholastic attainments and show good conduct but are unable to receive further education.

PART VIII. ENFORCEMENT AND AMENDMENT OF THE CONSTITUTION

Article 139.—The term "Law" as used in the Constitution means whatever may be passed by the Legislative Yuan and promulgated by the President as law.

Article 140.—Laws in conflict with the Constitution shall be null and void.

The Control Yuan may, within six months after a law has been enforced, request the Judicial Yuan for interpretation to determine whether or not such law is in conflict with the Constitution. Detailed provisions governing such procedure shall be provided by law.

Article 141.—Administrative orders in conflict with the Constitution or laws shall be null and void.

Article 142.—The Constitution shall be interpreted by the Judicial Yuan.

Article 143.—Where the number of provinces in which self-government has been completely effected does not exceed half the total number of provinces, the Members of the Legislative and Control Yuan shall be elected and appointed in accordance with the following provisions:—

- (1) One-half the number of Members of the Legislative Yuan shall be elected by the People's Congress from half the number of candidates, as prescribed in Article 67, and separately nominated by the delegates of the various provinces, Mongolia, Tibet and Chinese citizens residing abroad. The other half of the Members shall be appointed by the President at the instance of the President of the Legislative Yuan.
- (2) One-half the number of Members of the Control Yuan shall be elected by the People's Congress from half the number of candidates, as prescribed in Article 90, and separately nominated by the delegates of the various provinces, Mongolia, Tibet and Chinese citizens residing abroad. The other half of the Members shall be appointed by the President at the instance of the President of the Control Yuan.

Article 144.—Where self-government has not been completely effected in a *hsien*, the *Hsien* Magistrate shall be appointed and removed by the Central Government.

The provision prescribed in the preceding paragraph applies *mutatis mutandis* in respect to municipalities where self-government has not been completely effected.

Article 145.—The procedure governing the establishment of local self-government shall be prescribed by law.

Article 146.—The People's Congress which enacts this Constitution shall exercise the powers and functions of the First People's Congress.

Article 147.—No amendment to the Constitution may be made unless it shall have been proposed by not less than one-fourth of the delegates to the People's Congress and passed by at least two-thirds of the delegates present at a meeting having a quorum of not less than three-fourths of the entire Congress.

A proposed amendment to the Constitution shall be made public by the proposer or proposers one year before the assembling of the People's Congress.

Article 148.—Such matters as are provided in the Constitution which require separate enforcement rules shall be prescribed by law.

NATIONAL GENERAL MOBILIZATION

THE NATIONAL GENERAL MOBILIZATION ACT

Promulgated by the National Government on March 29, 1942, and put into effect on May 5, 1942.

Article I.—For the purpose of concentrating and employing the entire nation's human and material power in time of war to bolster national defense and to attain the war aims, the National Government hereby enacts this National General Mobilization Act.

Article II.—The term "government" used in this Act refers to the National Government and all administrative organs under it.

Article III.—The term "National General Mobilization materials" used in this Act refers to the following items: (1) military weapons, ammunition and other war equipment and supplies; (2) food, fodder, clothing material, army blankets and other supplies; (3) drugs, medical equipment and supplies and other public health equipment and supplies; (4) ships, vehicles, horses, and other transportation equipment and supplies; (5) construction materials and building apparatus; (6) electric power and fuel; (7) communication equipment and supplies; (8) all necessary materials and machines for the manufacture, repair, apportionment, replenishment and storage of the above-listed equipment and supplies; (9) and any other such materials as the Government may designate in the future.

Article IV.—The term "National General Mobilization affairs" used in this Act refers to the following items: (1) test and research necessary for the manufacture, repair, apportionment, replenishment, export and import, and storage of all National General Mobilization materials; (2) monopolistic sale of daily necessities; (3) banking and currency; (4) transportation and communication; (5) public health and the rescue-protection of wounded soldiers and refugees; (6) intelligence work; (7) the evacuation and relief of women and children, the aged and weak and others in need of such attention; (8) the construction of defense works; (9) education, training and publicity; (10) compulsory purchasing, and priority in purchasing and

transportation; (11) the maintenance of peace and order in the rear and the protection of transportation-communication organs and air defense; (12) and any such functions as the Government may designate in the future.

Article V.—After this Act goes into force, the Government, whenever necessary, may compulsorily purchase or requisition part of or all National General Mobilization materials.

Article VI.—After this Act goes into force, the Government, whenever necessary, may order the producer, trader or importer of National General Mobilization materials to store a fixed quantity of such materials, and the latter, without approval of the government organs concerned, shall not freely dispose of them within a specified period of time.

Article VII.—After this Act goes into force, the Government, whenever necessary, may direct, manage, restrict or ban the production, sale, use, repair, storage, consumption, removal or transfer of National General Mobilization materials. The above-mentioned direction, management, restriction or banning, whenever necessary, may be applicable to the people's daily necessities other than National General Mobilization materials.

Article VIII.—After this Act goes into force, the Government, whenever necessary, may institute a system of control over the price and quantity involved in transactions of National General Mobilization materials and the people's daily necessities.

Article IX.—After this Act goes into force, the Government, whenever necessary, without hampering the enforcement of the Conscription Act, may use the service of the people and other organized bodies in assisting the Government or public organizations in the handling of National General Mobilization affairs.

Article X.—In conscripting the people for National General Mobilization affairs, the Government should make appropriate distribution in accordance with their age, sex, physique, education, skill, experience and their original occupations.

Article XI.—After this Act goes into force, the Government, whenever necessary, may restrict or readjust the acceptance or resignation of positions, restrict employment and unemployment, salaries and wages.

Article XII.—After this Act goes into force, the Government, whenever necessary, may restrict the number of staff members and workers employed by government organs, public bodies, firms and shops and private households.

Article XIII.—After this Act goes into force, the Government, whenever necessary, may order the people to report to the government organs concerned the duties and abilities of

people in their service or in their employment, and may conduct investigations.

Article XIV.—After this Act goes into force, the Government, whenever necessary, may issue ordinances to prevent or settle labor disputes, and may strictly prohibit lockouts, strikes, go-slow strikes and other acts hampering production.

Article XV.—After this Act goes into force, the Government, whenever necessary, may regulate the distribution of farm land, the apportionment of farm labor power and the relations between the landowners and tenants, and may order the reclamation of wasteland within a specified period of time.

Article XVI.—After this Act goes into force, the Government, whenever necessary, may restrict the area in which currency circulates and remittance is possible, the exercise of creditor's rights and the performance of obligations by the debtor.

Article XVII.—After this Act goes into force, the Government, whenever necessary, may control the employment of assets by banks, trust companies, insurance firms and other firms and shops.

Article XVIII.—After this Act goes into force, the Government, whenever necessary, may restrict the establishment and merger of banks, companies, factories and other organized bodies, firms and shops, the change of their business objectives, the flotation of bonds and the distribution of bonuses, the fulfilment of loan obligations and the employment of assets.

Article XIX.—After this Act goes into force, the Government, whenever necessary, may encourage, restrict or prohibit the export or import of a certain commodity, and may also raise, lower or exempt export duties.

Article XX.—After this Act goes into force, the Government, whenever necessary, may restrict the transportation and storage expenses, the insurance fees, repair fees and rentals, of National General Mobilization materials.

Article XXI.—After this Act goes into force, the Government, whenever necessary, may order people to report and experiment on their inventions, patents, such devices, maps and charts, and models and equipment as are exclusively owned by them, and may also order the original proprietors to furnish trained skilled personnel.

Article XXII.—After this Act goes into force, the Government, whenever necessary, may restrict or stop the establishment of newspapers and news agencies, the recording in newspapers, news services and other printed literature, or may order them to print a specific recording.

Article XXIII.—After this Act goes into force, the Government, whenever necessary, may

restrict the people's freedom of speech, publication, writing, correspondence, assembly and organization.

Article XXIV.—After this Act goes into force, the Government, whenever necessary, may requisition the people's land, houses and other structures, or make alterations thereon.

Article XXV.—After this Act goes into force, the Government, whenever necessary, may order those dealing in National General Mobilization materials or engaged in National General Mobilization affairs to prepare plans of general mobilization in their respective fields, and conduct necessary demonstrations.

Article XXVI.—After this Act goes into force, the Government, whenever necessary, may order those engaged in production or repair of National General Mobilization materials to conduct necessary tests and research, or stop them from changing their enterprises with a view to the production and repair of designated materials.

Article XXVII.—After this Act goes into force, the Government, whenever necessary, may order those dealing in National General Mobilization materials and engaged in National General Mobilization affairs of the same category to form guilds or other professional associations, or order them to join the existing guilds or other professional associations. Government organs concerned should from time to time supervise, readjust and improve the afore-mentioned guilds or other professional associations.

Article XXVIII.—After this Act goes into force, the Government, whenever necessary, may give compensation or relief to people who suffer losses as a result of National General Mobilization; it may also organize a Compensation Committee. When the enforcement of this Act comes to its end, the original owners of property and rights or their successors have the right to claim back their original rights.

Article XXIX.—During the enforcement of this Act, a machinery shall be organized for its administration and propagation. The by-laws of this machinery will be provided in a separate act. All National General Mobilization materials and affairs are to remain with the original government organs concerned for management and enforcement.

Article XXX.—During the enforcement of this Act, the above-mentioned machinery of administration and propagation, with a view to increasing the efficiency of National General Mobilization, may petition for the change or readjustment of the organization, budgets and powers of the government organs in charge of its enforcement.

Article XXXI.—After this Act goes into force, the Government may impose penalties on those who violate or hamper the National General Mobilization laws and orders and affairs. Such penalties will be stipulated by law.

Article XXXII.—The promulgation, enforcement and termination of this Act will be mandated by the National Government.

FUNDAMENTALS GOVERNING THE ENFORCEMENT OF THE NATIONAL GENERAL MOBILIZATION ACT

(Promulgated by the Executive Yuan on June 22, 1942.)

I. THE PURPOSE OF THE ENFORCEMENT OF THE NATIONAL GENERAL MOBILIZATION ACT

The purpose of the National General Mobilization Act is to concentrate the nation's entire manpower and material resources as a step toward the successful prosecution of the war. This is to be done through the increase of production and the restriction of consumption and use of the commodities thus increased and saved in a concentrated manner. Therefore, the control of production, apportionment, trade, storage, compulsory purchase, and requisition are imperative measures.

All aspects of the National General Mobilization Act should be put into effect simultaneously, for they are closely inter-related. To fulfil this purpose a wholesale plan for the mobilization of manpower and material resources is necessary for co-ordinating the efforts and labor of the people, the production, trade and consumption of commodities, and finance, currency and banking, transportation and other activities and directing them towards a common goal.

The National General Mobilization Act should be enforced in all parts of the country. As our territory is vast, however, social conditions, the distribution of commodities, requirements for production, economic organization and administrative measures, being subject to restrictions imposed by natural environment, are often not evenly developed. To facilitate matters, such National General Mobilization materials and affairs as are national in character should be enforced simultaneously throughout the country, while materials and affairs of a special character should be separately enforced in different localities in order to correlate efforts and to avoid disturbances.

II. ORGANIZATIONS FOR THE ENFORCEMENT OF THE NATIONAL GENERAL MOBILIZATION ACT AND DIVISION OF WORK

A.—ORGANIZATIONS IN CHARGE OF NATIONAL GENERAL MOBILIZATION AFFAIRS IN THE CENTRAL GOVERNMENT AND THEIR RESPECTIVE FUNCTIONS

National General Mobilization affairs should be separately undertaken by the ministries, commissions, administrations and bureaus concerned. Whenever necessary, additional personnel may be employed. If affairs do not fall within the sphere of any existing organ, the Executive Yuan, whenever necessary, may assign them

to certain organs or establish special organs to be in charge. Affairs relating to two or more than two organs are to be divided, after discussion, among those concerned. The President of the Executive Yuan may designate one of the organs concerned to do the co-ordination. The National General Mobilization Council shall be responsible for the integrated management, promotion, correlation, scrutinization and examination of all National General Mobilization affairs. Affairs regulated by the National General Mobilization Act shall be apportioned among the principal organs concerned in accordance with the following regulations. Whenever necessary, the Executive Yuan may order the participation of other organs concerned.

1. The Ministries of Food, War, Finance, and Communications, the Transportation Control Board and the National Health Administration shall be in charge of the enforcement of Article V, providing compulsory purchase or requisition of National General Mobilization materials.

2. The Ministries of Economic Affairs, Food, War, Finance, and Communications, the Transportation Control Board, and the National Health Administration shall be in charge of the enforcement of Article VI, providing that the Government, whenever necessary, may order the producer, trader or importer of National General Mobilization materials to store a fixed quantity of such materials and not to dispose of them freely within a specific period of time unless approved by the government organ directly in charge of these materials.

3. The Ministries of Economic Affairs, Food, War, Finance, and Communications, the Transportation Control Board, and the National Health Administration shall be in charge of the enforcement of the first part of Article VII, providing that the Government, whenever necessary, may direct, regulate, restrict or ban the production, sale, use, repair, storage, consumption, removal or transfer of National General Mobilization materials.

4. With regard to the latter part of Article VII, providing that whenever necessary, the direction, regulation, restriction or banning, shall be given to daily necessities other than National General Mobilization materials, the Ministry of Food shall be in charge of food, the Ministry of Finance in charge of salt, sugar, matches and other monopolized goods, and the Ministry of Economic Affairs in charge of other daily necessities.

5. The Ministries of Economic Affairs, Food, War, Finance, and Communications, the Transportation Control Board, and the National Health Administration shall be in charge of the enforcement of Article VIII, providing that the Government, whenever necessary, may regulate and control the sale of National General Mobilization materials as well as their prices and quantities.

With regard to the regulation and control of the sale of daily necessities as well as their prices and quantities, the Ministry of Food shall be in charge of food, the Ministry of Finance in charge of salt, sugar, matches and other monopolized goods, and the Ministry of Economics Affairs in charge of other daily necessities.

6. The Ministries of Social Affairs, Economic Affairs, War, Agriculture and Forestry, Food, Finance, Education, Communications, the Transportation Control Board, and the National Health Administration shall be in charge of the enforcement of Article IX, providing that the Government, whenever necessary, without hampering the enforcement of the Conscription Act, may ask the people and other organized bodies to assist the Government or public organizations in carrying on National General Mobilization affairs; and shall also be in charge of the enforcement of Article X, providing that in conscripting the people for National General Mobilization affairs, the Government should make appropriate distribution in accordance with age, sex, physique, education, skill, experience and original occupations.

7. The Ministries of Social Affairs, Economic Affairs, Finance, Agriculture and Forestry, War, and Communications, and the Transportation Control Board shall be in charge of the enforcement of Article XI, providing that the Government, whenever necessary, may restrict or readjust the acceptance or resignation of positions, employment and unemployment, salaries and wages.

8. The Ministries of Social Affairs, Economic Affairs, Finance, and Communications shall be in charge of the enforcement of Article XII, providing that the Government, whenever necessary, may restrict the number of staff members and workers employed by government organs, public bodies, firms and shops. The Ministry of Social Affairs shall be in charge of the restriction of the number of workers employed by private households.

9. The Ministry of Social Affairs shall be in charge of the enforcement of Article XIII, providing that the Government, whenever necessary, may order the people to report to government organs concerned the duties and abilities of people in their service or in their employment, and may conduct investigations.

10. With regard to Article XIV, providing that the Government, whenever necessary, may issue ordinances to prevent or settle labor disputes and may strictly prohibit lockouts, strikes, go-slow strikes and other acts hampering production, the Ministry of War shall be in charge of state-managed enterprises belonging to the Ministry of War and other military organs, while the Ministry of Social Affairs, with the assistance of organizations directly concerned,

shall be in charge of state-managed and privately-owned enterprises belonging to other ministries, commissions, administrations and bureaus.

11. The National Land Administration, the Ministries of Agriculture and Forestry, Finance, Food, and Social Affairs shall be in charge of the enforcement of Article XV, providing that the Government, whenever necessary, may regulate the distribution of farm land, the apportionment of farm labor, and the relations between land-owners and tenants, and may order the reclamation of wasteland within a specified period of time.

12. The Ministry of Finance and the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks shall be in charge of the enforcement of Article XVI, providing that the Government, whenever necessary, may restrict the area in which currency circulates and remittance is possible, while the Ministry of Finance shall be in charge of the restriction of the exercise of creditor's rights and the performance of obligations by the debtor.

13. The Ministries of Finance and Economic Affairs, and the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks shall be in charge of the enforcement of Article XVII, providing that the Government, whenever necessary, may control the employment of assets by banks, trust companies, insurance firms and other firms and shops.

14. The Ministries of Finance and Economic Affairs, and the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks shall be in charge of the enforcement of Article XVIII, providing that the Government, whenever necessary, may restrict the establishment and merger of banks, companies, factories and other organized bodies, firms and shops, the change of their business objectives, the flotation of bonds and the distribution of bonuses, the fulfilment of loan obligations and the employment of assets.

15. The Ministries of Economic Affairs and Finance shall be in charge of the enforcement of Article XIX, providing that the Government, whenever necessary, may encourage, restrict or prohibit the export or import of a certain commodity, and may also raise, lower or exempt export duties.

16. The Ministries of Communications, War, Economic Affairs, Finance, and Food, and the Transportation Control Board shall be in charge of the enforcement of Article XX, providing that the Government, whenever necessary, may restrict transportation and storage expenses, insurance fees, repair fees and rentals of National General Mobilization materials.

17. The Ministries of Economic Affairs, War, Education, Communications, Agriculture and Forestry, and Social Affairs, the Transportation Control Board, the National Health Administration and the National Conservancy Commission shall be in charge of the enforcement of Article XXI, providing that the Government, whenever necessary, may order people to report and experi-

ment on their inventions, patents, such devices, maps and charts, and models and equipment as exclusively owned by them, and may also order the original proprietors to furnish trained personnel.

18. The Ministry of Interior, the Wartime News Censorship Bureau of the National Military Council and the National Books and Periodicals Examination Committee of the Executive Yuan shall be in charge of the enforcement of Article XXII, providing that the Government, whenever necessary, may restrict or stop the establishment of newspapers and news agencies, the recording in newspapers, news services and other printed literature, or may order them to print a specific recording.

19. The Ministry of Interior, the Wartime News Censorship Bureau of the National Military Council, the National Books and Periodicals Examination Committee of the Executive Yuan, and the Postal and Telegraphic Censorship Bureau of the National Military Council shall be in charge of the enforcement of Article XXIII, providing that the Government, whenever necessary, may restrict the people's freedom of speech, publication, writing and correspondence. The Ministries of Interior and Social Affairs shall be in charge of the restriction of the people's freedom of assembly and organization.

20. The National Land Administration, the Ministries of Interior and War shall be in charge of the enforcement of Article XXIV, providing that the Government, whenever necessary, may commandeer the people's land, houses and other structures, or make alterations thereon.

21. Competent ministries, commissions, administrations and bureaus shall be in charge of the enforcement of Article XXV, providing that the Government, whenever necessary, may order those dealing in National General Mobilization materials and engaged in National General Mobilization affairs to prepare plans for general mobilization in their respective fields, and conduct necessary demonstrations.

22. The Ministries of Economic Affairs, War, and Communications, and the Transportation Control Board shall be in charge of the enforcement of Article XXVI, providing that the Government, whenever necessary, may order those engaged in the production or repair of National General Mobilization materials to conduct necessary tests and research, or stop them from changing their enterprises with a view to the production and repair of designated materials.

23. The Ministries of Social Affairs, Economic Affairs, Finance, Communications, Agriculture and Forestry, and Food, the Transportation Control Board and the National Health Administration shall be in charge of the enforcement of Article XXVII, providing that the Government, whenever necessary, may order those dealing in

National General Mobilization materials and engaged in National General Mobilization affairs of the same category to form guilds or other professional associations, or order them to join the existing guilds or professional associations, and that government organs concerned should from time to time supervise, readjust and improve the afore-mentioned guilds and other professional associations.

24. The Executive Yuan, whenever necessary, shall establish a committee to be in charge of the enforcement of the first part of Article XXVIII, providing that the Government, whenever necessary, may give compensation or relief to people who suffer losses as a result of National General Mobilization and it may also organize a compensation committee. Government organs carrying out compulsory purchase or requisition shall be in charge of the enforcement of the latter part of Article XXVIII, providing that when the enforcement of this Act comes to an end, the original owners of property and rights or their successors have the right to claim back their original rights.

25. The National Health Administration shall be in charge of the enforcement of Section 5 of Article IV, relating to general health affairs. The Ministry of War shall be in charge of the rescue and relief of wounded soldiers. The National Relief Commission shall be in charge of the rescue and relief of refugees.

26. Local governments shall be in charge of the evacuation of women, children, the aged and the weak and others who have to evacuate as provided in Section 7 of Article IV. The Ministry of Social Affairs and the National Relief Commission shall be in charge of their relief.

27. The inspection organs of the National General Mobilization Council shall help the government organs directly in charge in enforcing National General Mobilization laws, in prosecuting those violating National General Mobilization laws and in carrying out inspection concerning National General Mobilization affairs.

28. The Ministry of Finance shall prevent the smuggling of National General Mobilization materials, and provide inspection and protection for special goods in transit.

The division of work as provided by the National General Mobilization Act is generally listed as above. Affairs stipulated in Article IV shall be taken care of by government organs in charge. The implications are so obvious as not to need any specification here. The National General Mobilization Council, whenever necessary, shall on the basis of Article XXX propose to the Executive Yuan to alter or readjust the division of work. The various ministries, commissions, administrations and bureaus in charge may also submit proposals to the Executive Yuan for the alteration or readjustment of affairs. These proposals shall be put into force after being

examined and approved by the National General Mobilization Council.

B.—PROVINCIAL AND MUNICIPAL ORGANIZATIONS IN CHARGE OF NATIONAL GENERAL MOBILIZATION AFFAIRS AND THEIR POWER AND RESPONSIBILITY

Provincial, municipal and *hsien* governments shall be the organizations in charge of National General Mobilization affairs and should, in accordance with various mobilization plans formulated by competent organs in the Central Government and laws and orders promulgated by the Central Government, engage in mobilization affairs and supervise the enforcement of the Act by their subordinate organs. Provincial, municipal and *hsien* governments and their subordinate organs shall secure approval of the Executive Yuan before taking on additional personnel needed for the execution of National General Mobilization affairs, but can not establish new offices. Central Government organs functioning in various provinces and municipalities shall accept the direction and supervision of the provincial and municipal governments in National General Mobilization affairs, and shall closely co-ordinate with local organizations. Provincial, municipal and *hsien* mobilization committees shall be in charge of promotion, correlation, scrutinization and examination.

For the enforcement of mobilization plans, laws and orders promulgated by the Central Government, provincial and municipal governments directly under the Executive Yuan, whenever necessary, may enact and promulgate separate ordinances and regulations which shall be studied first by respective provincial and municipal mobilization committees and then, in accordance with legal provisions and usual procedure, submitted to the Executive Yuan, and ministries or commissions concerned, for approval.

Hsien and municipal governments shall strictly carry out the stipulations in outlines, plans, laws and orders promulgated by the Central Government and stipulations in separate ordinances and regulations promulgated by the provincial governments, and shall not enact separate municipal or *hsien* ordinances and regulations.

III. ESSENTIAL POINTS IN THE NATIONAL GENERAL MOBILIZATION PLAN

1. Concerning human, material and financial power, the various ministries, commissions, administrations, and bureaus in charge shall re-arrange and appraise the results of investigations made and statistics compiled by various organizations in the past and use them as the basis of planning, and at the same time shall conduct necessary investigations.

2. Concerning military needs, military organs, in accordance with combat conditions and the requirements of a growing army, shall formulate

separate supply plans for manufactured war items to be secured through compulsory purchase, and production plans for other military needs; and shall also work out comprehensive estimates of manufactured war products, raw materials, production tools, and the necessary amount of labor.

3. All organizations in need of commodities shall present details stating their minimum requirements and labour estimates.

4. Organizations in charge, without hampering the enforcement of the Conscription Act, shall map out plans for the employment of labor and technical personnel.

5. Organizations in charge of commodities in agreement with various organs concerned, shall formulate plans for the production, storage, and supply and demand of commodities with reference to estimates presented by military and other organs. The National General Mobilization Council shall make the final decision in case no agreement is reached because of a shortage of commodities.

6. Concerning financial power, plans shall be formulated to increase revenue, reduce unnecessary outlays, and institute necessary measures for the control of banking activities, and concerning funds to finance the supply and demand of commodities, rational regulations shall be laid down in consideration of effects on price fluctuations.

7. Organs in charge of transportation, in accordance with actual needs, shall seek for greater efficiency in transportation and make plans for effective joint land and water transportation.

8. In accordance with their kinds and production conditions, National General Mobilization materials, in principle, shall first be evenly distributed to meet the needs of various localities near the production centres. For such materials as are required to meet needs in other places, adequate transportation preparations shall be made.

9. Plans shall be mapped out for increasing the national strength through cultural means on the basis of the supreme principle of Spiritual Mobilization, i.e., oneness of purpose and unity of strength.

10. The various organs in charge, within a specified period of time, shall submit their plans to the National General Mobilization Council.

11. The National General Mobilization Council, in accordance with both military and civilian needs and supply of raw materials, shall carefully study the plans and map out a general plan for mobilization of the nation's resources. The general plan shall be submitted, through the Executive Yuan, to the Supreme National Defense Council for adoption.

12. Prior to the completion of the general mobilization plan, the various organs in charge shall propose to the National General Mobilization Council, for approval and adoption, important measures that shall be put into force immediately.

IV. ECONOMIC ORGANIZATIONS ENGAGED IN NATIONAL GENERAL MOBILIZATION

1. Public or private companies, factories, firms and shops, shall abide by the *Regulations Governing the Control of Industrial and Commercial Enterprises and Organizations in Time of Emergency*, and register with the government within a specified period of time; they shall organize trade guilds, within a specified period of time and participation in these guilds shall be made compulsory.

2. Small business enterprises which are legally exempt from registration with the Government, but work on government orders or deal in daily necessities either permanently or temporarily, shall register with their respective trade guilds and accept their restrictions in fulfilling their duties as stipulated in the *Regulations Governing the Control of Industrial and Commercial Enterprises and Organizations in Time of Emergency*.

3. Whenever necessary, government organs of various grades may order trade guilds different in kind and in locality to organize joint offices, in order to facilitate the regulating of National General Mobilization. The various trade guilds may also voluntarily petition to have such joint organizations. Regulations to this effect shall be drafted by organs in charge and others concerned.

4. Municipal and *hsien* governments, apart from abiding by the *Fundamentals Governing the Organization of Cooperative Societies in Various Units in the Hsien*, in order to complete the organization of cooperative societies, should lay emphasis upon the organization of consumers' cooperatives, and production and marketing cooperatives. Organs of various grades in charge of cooperatives, within a specified period of time, shall organize *hsien*, provincial and nation-wide associations of cooperative societies.

5. Government organs of various grades may order the aforementioned economic organizations to participate in National General Mobilization affairs, or authorize them to undertake the management of general mobilization and to report to the Government economic activities that violate general mobilization laws and orders.

6. Government organs of various grades, from time to time, shall supervise and examine the aforementioned economic organizations, and may summon their personnel for trading or direct and assist them in training their own members.

7. The objective in enacting the National General Mobilization Act is to increase the nation's strength through increasing the production of all enterprises. The application of Article V relating to the requisition of privately owned factories shall be confined to those factories violating general mobilization laws and orders and to those the operation of which lies beyond private means. Direction and assistance shall be given to those which have already yielded good results.

V. PEOPLE'S ORGANIZATIONS CONCERNED WITH NATIONAL GENERAL MOBILIZATION AFFAIRS

1. Administrative offices of various grades in charge of social affairs, within a specified period of time, shall complete the formation of all kinds of trade guilds, free professional organizations and other people's organizations concerned with National General Mobilization affairs and shall compel or persuade every individual to join an organization.

2. In case of people's organizations concerned with National General Mobilization affairs which are authorized by law to form higher joint associations, government organs in charge shall compel the organization of such higher joint bodies and the participation of all lower bodies within a specified period of time.

3. Government organs of various grades in charge of social affairs may, in accordance with the National General Mobilization Act, or upon request from organs in charge of general mobilization, apportion among the people's organizations the various kinds of National General Mobilization affairs, and may authorize them to undertake designated work for general mobilization.

4. Government organs of various grades in charge of social affairs may despatch officials to direct, supervise and examine the people's organizations, and may direct the practice of general mobilization plans, or call members of the organizations for training purpose or direct and assist them to train members of the organizations. The authorities may also appoint secretaries to professional organizations or grant subsidies.

5. The registration, investigation and readjustment of such professional organizations as engineers, doctors, accountants, pharmacists and journalists, having an important bearing on general mobilization affairs, shall be conducted from time to time to prepare for conscription whenever necessary.

PROVISIONAL REGULATIONS GOVERNING PENALTIES FOR VIOLATORS OF THE NATIONAL GENERAL MOBILIZATION ACT

(Promulgated on June 29, 1942, and put into force on August 1, 1942.)

Article I.—Those violating or obstructing the National General Mobilization Act shall be punished in accordance with these regulations.

Article II.—Heavier penalties provided by laws and orders of economic control enforced prior to the promulgation of these regulations shall remain in force.

Article III.—Violators of these regulations shall be tried by organs endowed with powers of a military tribunal and their sentences shall be carried out upon approval of the highest military organ.

Article IV.—Existing laws and orders governing mobilization materials and affairs which provide organs of trial and procedure shall remain in force; cases particularly serious in nature or having special conditions, if so decided by the National General Mobilization Council, may be tried by organs applying military laws.

Article V.—Persons committing any one of the following offenses shall be sentenced to imprisonment for not more than seven years and also be liable to a fine of not more than \$100,000:

(a) Those violating or obstructing orders issued on the basis of Articles V, XVII, and XVIII of the National General Mobilization Act.

(b) Those violating or obstructing orders of regulation, conservation or prohibition issued on the basis of the first part of Article VII of the National General Mobilization Act.

(c) Those violating or obstructing orders of control issued on the basis of Article VIII of the National General Mobilization Act.

(d) Those violating or obstructing orders of prohibition issued on the basis of Article XIV of the National General Mobilization Act.

(e) Those violating or obstructing orders of restriction and prohibition issued on the basis of Article XIX of the National General Mobilization Act.

Imports and exports involved in the offense of category (e), no matter whether they belong to the offenders or not, shall be confiscated.

Article VI.—Persons committing any one of the following offenses shall be sentenced to imprisonment for not more than three years and also be liable to a fine of not more than \$50,000.

(a) Those violating or obstructing orders issued on the basis of Articles VI, XX, XXIV and the latter part of Article XXVI of the National General Mobilization Act.

(b) Those violating or obstructing orders of regulation, conservation and prohibition issued on the basis of part two of Article VII of the National General Mobilization Act.

(c) Those violating or obstructing orders issued in accordance with the first part of Article XXVII of the National General Mobilization Act.

Article VII.—Serious offenders of the two previous articles, involving obstruction of military

operations, destruction of peace and order, causing disturbance of currency stability, shall be sentenced to either death or life imprisonment, and their property may be confiscated.

Article VIII.—Persons committing any one of the following offenses shall be sentenced to imprisonment of not more than a year, forced labor or a fine of not more than \$30,000 :

(a) Those resisting inspection stipulated by Article XIII of the National General Mobilization Act.

(b) Those violating orders issued on the basis of the first part of Article XXI of the National General Mobilization Act and refusing the uses (of their inventions, patents, and processes) to the government.

(c) Those violating or obstructing orders issued on the basis of Articles IX, XI, XII and XXIII of the National General Mobilization Act.

Article IX.—Persons committing any one of the following offenses shall be sentenced to imprisonment for not more than six months' hard labor or a fine of not more than \$10,000 :

(a) Those violating the provision in Article XIII of the National General Mobilization Act by delaying their reports or making false reports.

(b) Those violating orders issued on the basis of Article XVI of the National General Mobilization Act.

(c) Those violating the provision in the first part of Article XXI of the National General Mobilization Act by refusing to report or to experiment, or violating the provision in the latter part of the same article in failing to provide experienced technical personnel and workmen.

(d) Those violating or obstructing orders issued on the basis of Article XXV or the first part of Article XXVI of the National General Mobilization Act.

Article X.—For those violating orders issued on the basis of Article XXII of the National General Mobilization Act, the penalties shall be meted out in accordance with the Laws of Publication ; whenever necessary, the penalties may be increased by fifty per cent.

Article XI.—Those revealing or stealing for their own use secrets of National General Mobilization affairs shall be sentenced to imprisonment for not more than three years. Such offenders, if they are public functionaries engaged in National General Mobilization affairs, shall be sentenced to imprisonment for not less than six months and not more than five years.

Article XII.—Violators of these regulations, if they have been entrusted by the Government to engage in National General Mobilization affairs, shall be punished in the same way as public functionaries.

Article XIII.—Public functionaries who abuse their authority and issue orders in the name of the National General Mobilization for personal motives, thereby causing losses to others, shall be sentenced to imprisonment from three to ten years. Serious offenders shall be sentenced to either death or life imprisonment.

Article XIV.—The penalties for public functionaries who shield offenders of these regulations shall be increased by fifty per cent.

Article XV.—The promulgation, enforcement and termination of these regulations shall be mandated by the National Government.

CHAPTER IV

FOREIGN RELATIONS

CHINESE DOCUMENTS CONCERNING JAPANESE INVASION AND THE CREATION OF PUPPET REGIMES

STATEMENT ON INVASION

The National Government issued the following statement on the responsibility for the war on August 15, 1937:

During recent years the Chinese Government and people have devoted their united efforts to the building of a modern China capable of realizing her ardent aspirations for achieving a status of independence and equality in the family of nations.

Internally, China's efforts have been directed toward economic and cultural rehabilitation, while externally she has upheld the principles of peace and justice. Believing in the harmony of her aspirations for national independence and co-existence with other nations, she has scrupulously observed all international treaties to which she is a signatory, such as the Covenant of the League of Nations, the Nine-Power Treaty and the Paris Peace Pact.

Unfortunately, since September 18, 1931, Japan has seized from China the four North-eastern provinces and plunged the important port of Shanghai into a devastating conflict. Launching further attacks from Jehol, she indulged in indiscriminate killing and extensive incendiaryism along the Great Wall. She has set up and is in full control of the puppet regime in East Hopei. She has caused bandits and irregulars to disturb peace and order in north Chahar.

In addition to such grave assaults upon China's territorial integrity, she has further violated our aerial sovereignty by causing her military and other airplanes to make innumerable flights over different parts of China. She has acquiesced and lent support in the organization of smuggling by her nationals on an unprecedented scale, causing enormous loss to China's national revenue as well as to the legitimate trade of other countries. Nor did she hesitate to stoop to such unscrupulous practices as the encouragement of the illicit drug traffic and the supply of arms to bandits and robbers. She has magnified and made use of all kinds of incidents, real or imaginary, by presenting preposterous demands upon China and also using them as pretexts for taking unilateral action.

Although none of these aggressions could be tolerated by any nation in the world without endangering its independence and existence,

China has time and again endured the intolerable, hoping all the while that Japan might realize her mistakes. But even this last ray of hope has been shattered by the incident which Japan created at Lukouchiao.

The outbreak of the Lukouchiao incident must be fundamentally attributed to the excessive increase of the Japanese garrison at Tientsin and the frequent maneuvers unlawfully held at places not permitted under the Treaty of 1901. Such actions were sufficient to cause the outbreak of incidents almost at any moment in the area involved.

Late in the night of July 7, the Japanese troops chose again to hold such unlawful maneuvers at Lukouchiao and followed them up with a sudden attack upon the city of Wanping. The Chinese garrison there was constrained to take defensive measures, and the subsequent hostilities resulted in the destruction of thousands of Chinese lives and an immense amount of property by Japanese gunfire. All these facts are now well known to the world.

The actions on the part of the Japanese after the outbreak of the Lukouchiao incident are further worthy of note. While repeatedly giving assurances that the Japanese Government did not desire to aggravate the situation, large numbers of additional troops with several squadrons of airplanes, tanks and other ultra-modern implements of war, poured into Hopei province from Manchuria, Korea and Japan Proper. Such acts of systematic armed aggression cannot be obscured by mere verbal professions.

Anxious to seek a peaceful settlement, the Chinese authorities in a most conciliatory spirit entered into discussions with the Japanese with a view to averting the imminent danger of a catastrophe. On July 12, the Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs suggested to the Counsellor of the Japanese Embassy the immediate cessation of military movements on both sides, but received no response from the Japanese Government.

On July 19, the Chinese Government formally renewed its proposal in writing for the simultaneous cessation of troop movements and mutual withdrawal of troops to their respective original positions on a date to be agreed upon by both sides. It was also unequivocally stated that for the settlement of the unfortunate affair, the Chinese Government was prepared to accept

any pacific means recognized by international law and treaties, such as direct negotiations, good offices, mediation, or arbitration. Unfortunately, all these demarches failed to elicit any response from Japan.

Meanwhile the Chinese local authorities, actuated by the desire to maintain peace, had accepted certain terms of a settlement proposed by the Japanese to which the Chinese Government, with the greatest forbearance, did not raise objection. But no sooner had such a settlement been effected than the Japanese troops, without any pretext, directed further attacks on the Chinese positions at Lukouchiao, Langfang and other places.

An ultimatum was delivered on July 26, demanding among other things the withdrawal of Chinese troops from Peiping, which was entirely outside the terms of the settlement already reached. Such demands being absolutely impossible of acceptance, the Japanese troops, without even waiting for a reply, before the expiration of the time limit set in the ultimatum, started a fierce offensive against Peiping and Tientsin, centers of Chinese culture and international trade, respectively, in North China. Chinese troops stationed in the environs of Nanyuan suffered tremendous casualties as the result of sudden attacks by Japanese bombing airplanes and tanks.

In the course of a bloody assault on Tientsin an immense number of Chinese civilians were mercilessly killed or injured, while public buildings, shops, dwelling-houses, and educational and cultural institutions were deliberately destroyed by artillery and aerial bombardment. After having committed these atrocities, the Japanese forces are now advancing toward southern Hopei and carrying the war scourge into Chahar with fierce attacks on Nankow. Thus the Japanese have been consistently provoking hostilities and extending their war operations, while at the same time making magnificent professions of their desire to effect a local settlement and to avoid further aggravation of the situation.

While hostilities were raging in North China, the Chinese Government, solicitous of the immense commercial and other interests, both foreign and Chinese, concentrated in the important metropolis of Shanghai, repeatedly ordered the municipal authorities of Greater Shanghai and the Peace Preservation Corps there to take special precautions against the occurrence of any untoward incident. On the evening of August 9, however, a Japanese officer, accompanied by a seaman, attempted to force an entry into the Chinese military airdrome at Hungjiao, regardless of Chinese warnings, and thus precipitated an incident resulting in the death of the two Japanese and a Chinese sentry belonging to the Peace Preservation Corps.

The Chinese municipal authorities proposed that an equitable settlement be sought through diplomatic channels, but the Japanese Government has dispatched to Shanghai a large number of warships and additional armed forces and, at the same time, presented various demands calculated to undermine or reduce Chinese strength for self-defense.

Japanese airplanes have flown over Shanghai, Hangchow, Ningpo and other cities near the Kiangsu and Chekiang coasts, undoubtedly with a view to commencing military operations. On the 13th instant, Japanese armed forces launched vigorous attacks on the Chinese Civic Center at Shanghai.

Such action, together with the dispatch of immense numbers of Japanese troops into Hopei after the outbreak of the Lukouchiao incident, clearly shows that Japan is bent on executing her traditional policy of continental expansion and conquest.

Using the Shanghai Armistice Agreement of May 5, 1932, as a pretext, Japan has sought to prevent China from taking legitimate measures of self-defense during the present acute emergency. It must be borne in mind that the aim and spirit of the agreement were to insure that, within a specified area, both parties would exercise self-restraint and moderation in order to avoid any armed clash prejudicial to the progress of peaceful negotiations. If one party, after having violated its undertakings by advancing troops at its own will, attempted to impose on the other party restrictions of such a nature as to render it completely powerless against aggression, such an attempt was indeed based on a perversion of the agreement which could not be justified either legally or morally.

The Chinese Government now solemnly declares that China's territorial integrity and sovereign rights have been wantonly violated by Japan in glaring violation of such peace instruments as the Covenant of the League of Nations, the Nine-Power Treaty and Paris Peace Pact. China is in duty bound to defend her territory and her national existence as well as the sanctity of the above mentioned treaties. We will never surrender any part of our territory. When confronted with aggression we cannot but exercise our natural right of self-defense. If Japan did not entertain territorial designs on China she should use her efforts to seek a rational solution of Sino-Japanese problems and at the same time cease all her armed aggression and military movements in China. In the event of such a happy change of heart, China would, in conformity with her traditional policy of peace, continue her efforts to avert a situation pregnant with dangerous possibilities both for East Asia and for the world at large.

In this our supreme fight not only for a national but for a world cause, not only for the preservation of our own territory and sovereignty but

for the maintenance of international justice, we are confident that all friendly nations, in addition to showing sympathy with us, will be conscious of their obligations under the international treaties to which they have solemnly subscribed.

NOTE ON PUPPET REGIMES

Following is an English translation of an identical note signed by Dr. Wang Chung-hui, Minister of Foreign Affairs, and presented to the foreign embassies and legations in China on March 30, 1940, and simultaneously delivered to the foreign governments through Chinese envoys accredited to them:

Since her invasion of China, Japan has used all sorts of means in attempting to accomplish her object of conquest and domination in Asia and in the Pacific. Massacre, rape, pillage, indiscriminate aerial bombings, and other barbarous acts have caused untold damage and suffering to the civilian population and, contrary to Japan's expectations, only strengthened China's will of resistance in defense of justice and humanity.

After nearly three years of China's resistance, the Japanese militarists, finding themselves in despair, have caused to be established at Nanking an organization purporting to be the "National Government of the Republic of China." It is nothing more than a puppet organization created and controlled by Japanese militarists as an instrument for usurping China's sovereign rights and destroying her independence and territorial and administrative integrity. It will also be used by the Japanese to overthrow international law and order, to nullify the Nine-Power Treaty, and to eliminate all commerce and interests of third Powers in China.

Needless to say, those men who compose the puppet organization are but a gang of slaves of the Japanese—persons of utter moral depravity, having lost all sense of decency and patriotism. They endanger the safety of their own country by aiding and abetting Japanese aggression and have therefore been condemned by the Chinese Government and people as traitors of the worst type deserving the severest penalty of the law.

The Chinese Government desires to take this opportunity to repeat most emphatically the declaration already made on several occasions that any act done by such an unlawful organization as has just been set up at Nanking or any other puppet body that may exist elsewhere in China, is *ipso facto* null and void and shall never be recognized by the Chinese Government and people. The Chinese Government is convinced

that all self-respecting States will uphold law and justice in the conduct of international relations and will never accord *de jure* or *de facto* recognition to Japan's puppet organization in China. Any manifestation of such recognition, in whatever form or manner, would be a violation of international law and treaties and would be considered as an act most unfriendly to the Chinese nation, for the consequences of which the recognizing party would have to bear full responsibility.

Whatever Japan may attempt to do in China, the Chinese Government and people are as determined as ever to continue their resistance until Japanese troops have been completely driven out of Chinese territory and until right triumphs over might.

DECLARATION OF DECEMBER 1, 1940

On December 1, 1940 the National Government of China issued the following declaration:

The conclusion by Japan with the puppet organization at Nanking of what purports to be a treaty is but an aggressive act on her part designed to overthrow law and order not only in China, but in the whole Pacific. Having set up a regime to suit their own purposes, the Japanese have now signed with it the so-called treaty to facilitate the execution of their policy of domination and expansion in the Far East. Such a regime is in reality a part of the Government at Tokyo planted on Chinese soil, to be used by the Japanese militarists as an instrument for the realization of their scheme.

The National Government of the Republic of China has repeatedly declared, and desires to reiterate most emphatically, that Wang Ching-wei is the arch-traitor of the Republic and that the puppet regime at Nanking is an illegal organization whose acts of whatever character are null and void in respect of all Chinese citizens and all foreign countries. The so-called treaty just signed at Nanking is totally devoid of legality and has no binding force whatever.

Should any foreign country choose to accord recognition to the puppet organization, the Government and people of China would consider it a most unfriendly act and would be constrained to discontinue their normal relations with such a country.

Whatever Japan may attempt or conspire to do in China or in the Pacific, China is determined to fight on till victory is won, and she is confident of victory because to freedom and right and justice victory inevitably belongs.

CHINA'S APPEAL TO THE LEAGUE AND SIGNATORIES OF THE NINE-POWER TREATY

On August 30, 1937, the Chinese Government sent a statement to the League of Nations secretary-general on the events which had taken place since July 7, with the request that it be

forwarded to states members and non-members of the League represented on the Far Eastern Advisory Committee set up by the League Assembly in February, 1933. In this statement

China charged Japan with having violated the fundamental principles of the League Covenant, the Paris Pact of 1928 and the Nine-Power Treaty of 1922. On September 12, the Chinese Government addressed two supplementary statements to the secretary-general. In the first statement the political and military aspects of the issue were discussed. In the second the Chinese Government invoked the application of Articles X, XI and XVII of the Covenant and appealed to the League Council to take appropriate action.

In the League Assembly on September 15, Dr. V. K. Wellington Koo, China's chief delegate, urged that Japan's aggression in flagrant violation of international law should be clearly denounced. He called on the League to take immediate action. On September 16, the League Council requested the secretary-general to arrange for a meeting of the Advisory Committee, which was composed of representatives of Belgium, Bolivia, the United Kingdom, Canada, Colombia, Czechoslovakia, Ecuador, France, Hungary, Iran, Italy, Peru, Poland, Portugal, Rumania, Sweden, Switzerland, the U. S. S. R., and the United States of America.

The Advisory Committee met on September 22, and invited China and Japan, as parties to the dispute, and also Germany and Australia, as interested states, to participate in the work. The invitation was accepted by China and Australia but declined by Germany and Japan.

On September 27, the Council voted a resolution concerning the indiscriminate Japanese air bombing of China, declaring that "no excuse can be made for such acts." This resolution was accepted by the League Assembly on September 28.

The Advisory Committee appointed a sub-committee consisting of representatives of Australia, Belgium, the United Kingdom, China, Ecuador, France, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Poland, Sweden, and the U.S.S.R., to examine the situation arising out of the Sino-Japanese conflict, to discuss questions involved and to submit to the Committee such proposals as it might think fit. On October 5, the sub-committee made two reports to the Advisory Committee. In the first report it gave a general outline of events in China since July 7, examined the treaty obligations of the parties to the dispute, and maintained that the military operations carried on by Japan against China were out of all proportion to the incident that occasioned the conflict and could be justified neither on the basis of existing legal instruments nor by the right of self-defense, and that it was in contravention of Japan's treaty obligations under the Nine-Power Treaty of 1922 and under the Pact of Paris. In the second report it suggested that since Japan was not a member of the League and had, in relation to the work of the Advisory

Committee, expressly declined to cooperate with the League in political matters, League members who were parties to the Nine-Power Treaty should initiate such consultation as provided for by Article VII of the treaty at the earliest convenience. The two reports were approved by the Advisory Committee which decided to forward them to the League Assembly, the members of the League and the Government of the United States of America. The Assembly considered these reports and adopted the following resolution on October 6:

"The Assembly adopts as its own the reports submitted to it by its Advisory Committee on the subject of the conflict between China and Japan; approves the proposals contained in the second of the said reports and requests its president to take the necessary action with regard to the proposed meeting of the members of the League which are parties to the Nine-Power Treaty signed at Washington on February 6, 1922; expresses its moral support for China and recommends that members of the League should refrain from taking any action which might have the effect of weakening China's resistance and thus of increasing her difficulties in the present conflict and should also consider how far they can individually extend aid to China; decides to adjourn its present session and to authorize the president to summon a meeting if the Advisory Committee so requests."

The delegations of Poland and Siam abstained from voting. The secretary of state of the United States of America, in a public declaration which was communicated to the League of Nations, stated that the American Government had been forced to the conclusion that Japan's action in China was inconsistent with the principles which should govern the conduct of international relations and was contrary to the provisions of the Nine-Power Treaty, as well as those of the Pact of Paris.

THE BRUSSELS CONFERENCE

In accordance with the resolution of the Assembly, the president of the Assembly sent letters to the governments of the members of the League who were parties to the Nine-Power Treaty, inviting them to initiate the consultation provided for under Article VII of the treaty. This appeal resulted in the meeting on November 3, of the Conference at Brussels. With the exception of Japan, all of the signatories of and adherents to the Nine-Power Treaty accepted the invitation. The Chinese Government, in accepting the invitation, stated that its present military operations were purely in resistance to armed invasion by Japan, and that it was willing to accept a peace based on the principles of the Nine-Power Treaty and to collaborate wholeheartedly with the other Powers in support of the principle of the sanctity of treaties.

On November 7, 1937, the Conference sent, through the Belgian Government, a communication to the Japanese Government inquiring whether it would be willing to send a representative or representatives to exchange views with representatives of a small number of Powers to be chosen for that purpose, the exchange of views to take place within the framework of the Nine-Power Treaty. On November 12, the Japanese Government replied, insisting that its present action did not come within the scope of the Nine-Power Treaty and that there was no justification for discussing the applicability of that treaty.

On November 15, the Conference in the name of the representatives of the Union of South Africa, the United States of America, Australia, Belgium, Bolivia, Canada, China, France, the United Kingdom, India, Mexico, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Portugal, and the U.S.S.R., adopted a declaration. First, the Conference regretted the Japanese Government's refusal to enter into an exchange of views. Second, the Conference considered the Sino-Japanese conflict of concern to all countries party to the Nine-Power Treaty and the Pact of Paris. Third, the Conference maintained that, contrary to the Japanese view, if the matter were left entirely to Japan and China the armed conflict would continue indefinitely, and found it difficult to understand Japan's refusal to an exchange of views which might lead to the negotiation of a satisfactory settlement.

The representatives of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark abstained from voting on the text of this declaration on the ground that their respective governments did not possess the same political interests in the Far East as certain other Powers. The representative of Italy stated that the declaration would lead to serious complications and therefore Italy expressed her definitely contrary vote.

On November 24, the Conference adopted a resolution which said in part: "The Conference is convinced that force itself can provide no just and lasting solution for disputes between nations. It continues to believe that it would be to the immediate and ultimate interest of both parties to the present dispute to avail themselves of the assistance of others in an effort to bring hostilities to an early end as a necessary preliminary to the achievement of a general and lasting settlement. It further believes that a satisfactory settlement cannot be achieved by direct negotiation between the parties to the conflict alone, and that only by consultation with other Powers principally concerned can there be achieved an agreement the terms of which will be just, generally acceptable and likely to endure. This Conference strongly affirms the principles of the Nine-Power Treaty as being among the basic principles which are

essential to world peace and orderly progressive development of national and international life."

At the same meeting Dr. Koo, the chief Chinese delegate, stated that a mere reaffirmation of certain general principles as was being done could not be considered as a satisfactory result of the Conference, because it was not adequate to deal effectively with the grave situation.

SIX LEAGUE COUNCIL SESSIONS

On February 2, 1938, the League Council in a resolution called the serious attention of member states to the Assembly's resolution of October 6, 1937 wherein member states were called upon to refrain from taking any action which might have the effect of weakening China's power of resistance and thus of increasing her difficulties in the present conflict, and also to consider how far they could individually extend aid to China. The Council also expressed the confidence that those states represented on the Council would lose no opportunity of examining, in consultation with other similarly interested Powers, the feasibility of any further steps which might contribute to a just settlement of the conflict in the Far East.

The representatives of Poland and Peru abstained from voting on the resolution.

Dr. Koo said that though the text submitted to the Council was inadequate, his Government was confident that greater effect would be given henceforth to the resolution of the Assembly of October 6, 1937, and that the examination provided for in the last paragraph would be carried out promptly and energetically. He reserved the right of his Government to ask the League to adopt positive measures under the Covenant for the more effective discouragement of Japanese aggression, and reminded the Council that it remained seized of the appeal of his Government under Articles X, XI and XVII of the Covenant.

At the second meeting of the 101st session of the Council held on May 10, 1938, Dr. Koo asked the Council to take more effective action to deal with the matter because of the failure on the part of the League members to carry out the resolution of February 2. He also warned the Council that the Japanese were on the point of using poison gas on a large scale in disregard of international law and convention. He also stated that China expected to receive from the other members of the League material aid and effective cooperation in restraining the forces of aggression, as such aid and co-operation would hasten the termination of the hostilities and insure the defeat of the forces of disorder and violence. The Council decided to set up a Drafting Committee composed of representatives of China, the United Kingdom, France, Rumania, and the U.S.S.R. The

Drafting Committee submitted to the eighth meeting held on May 14, the following resolution:

"The Council, having heard the statement by the representative of China on the situation in the Far East and on the needs of the national defense of China, earnestly urges members of the League to do their utmost to give effect to the recommendations contained in previous resolutions of the Assembly and Council in this matter, and take into serious and sympathetic consideration requests they may receive from the Chinese Government in conformity with the said resolutions; expresses its sympathy with China in her heroic struggle for the maintenance of her independence and territorial integrity, threatened by the Japanese invasion, and in the suffering which is thereby inflicted on her people; recalls that the use of toxic gases is a method of war condemned by international law, which cannot fail, should resort be had to it, to meet with the reprobation of the civilized world; and requests the governments of states who may be in a position to do so to communicate to the League any information that may obtain on the subject."

In accepting the resolution in the name of the Chinese Government, Dr. Koo said that the resolution left much to be desired, but he hoped that the needs of China in her valiant struggle not only to defend her independence and territorial integrity but also to uphold the cause of law and order in the world, would be seriously and sympathetically considered and generously satisfied by all members of the League who may be approached for the purpose, more particularly in assuring her of financial and material aid and of the facilities for purchase, transport, and transit of arms and military supplies, facilities which should in no case be less than those which she enjoyed before the commencement of the hostilities.

The representatives of France, Great Britain and the U.S.S.R., all spoke warmly in support of the resolution which was subsequently adopted, the representative of Poland abstaining as regards Part I of the resolution.

At the 103rd session of the League Council in mid-September, 1938, Dr. Koo sent to the secretary-general a communication wherein, in the name of the Chinese Government, he requested the Council to give immediate effect to Article XVII of the Covenant, which the Council had hitherto failed to apply, but which, in the opinion of the Chinese Government, provides the most relevant procedure for effective action by the League in the case. On September 19, the president of the Council proposed, and the Council approved of, the sending of a telegram to the Japanese Government, extending an invitation provided for by the first sentence of the said Article, to place her dispute with China before the League.

The Japanese Government declined the invitation on September 22, saying that "means such as those laid down in the Covenant cannot provide a just and adequate solution of the present conflict between Japan and China."

At the second meeting held on September 30, 1938, the League Council adopted a resolution, inviting the governments of states represented on the Council and on the Far Eastern Advisory Committee having official representatives in China to investigate through diplomatic channels cases of Japanese poison gas attacks and to submit all relevant reports for examination and consideration. Dr. Koo accepted the resolution on behalf of the Chinese Government without prejudice to China's right to ask the Council to take other action if the proposed method proved ineffective for the purpose.

At the same meeting the Council adopted report which reads as follows:—

- (1) The report of the Far Eastern Advisory Committee, adopted by the Assembly on October 6, 1937, states "that the military operations carried on by Japan against China by land, sea, and air . . . can be justified neither on the basis of existing legal instruments nor on that of the right of self-defense, and that (they are) in contravention of Japan's obligations under the Nine-Power Treaty of February 6, 1922, and under the Pact of Paris of August 27, 1928."
- (2) The Japanese Government, having been invited, under Article XVII, paragraph 1 of the Covenant, to comply with the obligations devolving upon the members of the League for the settlement of their disputes, has declined this invitation.
- (3) Although, in conformity with established practice, it is, in principle, for the members of the League to appreciate in each particular case whether the conditions required for the application of Article XVI and Article XVII, paragraph 3, are fulfilled, in the special case now before the Council, the military operations in which Japan is engaged in China have already been found by the Assembly to be illicit, as mentioned above, and the Assembly's finding retains its full force.
- (4) In view of Japan's refusal of the invitation extended to her, the provisions of Article XVI are, under Article XVII, paragraph 3, applicable in present conditions and the members of the League are entitled not only to act as before on the basis of the said finding, but also to adopt individually the measures provided for in Article XVI.

- (5) As regards coordinated action in carrying out such measures, it is evident, from the experience of the past, that all elements of cooperation which are necessary, are not yet assured.
- (6) The Assembly, by its resolution of October 6, 1937, assured China of its moral support, and recommended that members of the League "should refrain from taking any action which might have the effect of weakening China's power of resistance and thus of increasing her difficulties in the present conflict, and should also consider how far they can individually extend aid to China."

Referring more particularly to this resolution, the Council, on May 14, 1938, earnestly urged members of the League "to do their utmost to give effect to the recommendations contained in previous resolutions of the Assembly and Council . . . and to take into serious and sympathetic consideration requests they may receive from the Chinese Government in conformity with the said resolutions.

- (7) Although the coordination of the measures that have been or may be taken by governments cannot yet be considered, the fact none the less remains that China, in her heroic struggle against the invader, has a right to the sympathy and aid of the other members of the League. The grave international tension that has developed in another part of the world cannot make them forget either the sufferings of the Chinese people, or their duty of doing nothing that might weaken China's power of resistance, or their undertaking to consider how far they can individually extend aid to China.

At the 104th session of the League Council held on January 17, 1939, Dr. Koo renewed the appeal for effective League action against Japan. He asked for financial and economic measures including boycott of Japanese goods, an embargo on supplies to Japan, particularly of the raw materials necessary for Japanese war industries. In the case of airplanes and petroleum, Dr. Koo said an embargo upon them should be recommended by the Council. He also deemed that an assurance for facilities of transit and transport for Chinese war material is as necessary for the continuance of effective resistance to Japanese aggression. In addition, he asked that the Council take steps to institute a committee of coordination in order that the measures taken by the governments of states, whether members of the League or non-members, should produce the maximum effect.

Dr. Koo's proposals were discussed on January 18 and 19, 1939, by a Drafting Committee composed of representatives of Britain, France, U.S.S.R., China, Yugoslavia, and Latvia. On January 20, the Council adopted a resolution, which, *inter alia*, took note of the fact that a number of states had been taking individual action in aiding China, and invited the members of the League, particularly those directly concerned in the Far East, to examine, in consultation, should this appear appropriate, with other similarly interested Powers, the proposals made by the representative of China before the Council on January 17, for the taking of effective measures, especially measures of aid to China. Before the resolution was voted upon, Dr. Koo made a statement, in which he urged the prompt removal of restrictions and interdictions that had been enforced by some nations as regards the transport and transit of Chinese war materials. He added that it must be clear by now, after a year and a half of China's determined resistance that the victory of the Chinese cause would mean at once the salvage of the rights and interests of the countries directly concerned in the Far East on the one hand and on the other hand the vindication of the principles of security in peace and progress in order in the world.

At the 105th session of the League Council held from May 22-27, 1939, Dr. Koo again urged that member states of the League extend financial and material aid to China; refrain from doing anything which might weaken China's power of resistance; withhold from Japan the supply of instruments of war and raw materials necessary for the continuation of her aggression against China, particularly airplanes and oil; restrict the importation of Japanese goods, and adopt other means of retaliation against Japan's deliberate violation of the treaty rights of member states. He also asked that a general committee, or if preferred, a special limited body of the Powers directly interested in the Far East, be organized for the purpose of coordinating the foregoing measures. In the third place, he wanted further implementing of the Assembly and Council resolutions already adopted with a view to extending aid to China and restraining the aggressors.

On May 27, the Council adopted the following two resolutions:

I

The Council,

- (1) Referring to the resolutions and reports hitherto adopted by the Assembly and the Council relating to the appeal of the Chinese Government;
- (2) Having heard the statement of the Chinese representative at the Council's meeting on May 22, 1939;
- (3) Continuing to view with great concern the grave situation in the Far East created by Japanese aggression;

- (4) Renewing its expression of profound sympathy with China in her heroic struggle for the maintenance of her independence and territorial integrity threatened by the Japanese invasion, and in the suffering which is thereby inflicted on her people;
- (5) Deeming it desirable that measures of aid to China, including relief measures, and such other measures as may from time to time be found practicable should be made as effective as possible;
- (6) Following with interest the growing solidarity of action on the part of several states directly concerned in dealing with recent developments in the Far East;
- (7) Noting with satisfaction that a number of states have taken certain measures in aiding China;
- (8) Expresses the hope that such measures will be continued, and that the resolutions previously adopted by the Assembly and the Council will be further implemented;
- (9) Invites the members of the League, particularly those directly concerned in the Far East, in consultation with the Far East Advisory Committee, to examine the possibilities of the practical application of the measures above referred to.

II

The Council,

- (1) Having regard of the resolution of the Assembly of September 28, 1937, solemnly condemning the aerial bombardment of open towns in China by Japanese aircraft;
- (2) Taking note of the statement of the Chinese representative relating to the recent cases of ruthless attacks by Japanese aircraft on Chinese civilian populations resulting in an appalling loss of life;
- (3) Recalling the resolution adopted by the Assembly on September 30, 1938, by which the Assembly, taking note of the Chinese Government's request for the dispatch of an international committee to examine cases of the bombing from the air of civilian populations in China, recommends that the Council should take any such appeal into consideration;
- (4) Takes note with interest of the statement of the Chinese representative that a number of states, not all of them members of the League, have taken steps to discourage or prevent the supply of aircraft to Japan;

- (5) Invites the governments of the states represented on the Council and on the Far East Advisory Committee having official representatives in China to inform themselves as fully as possible as to cases of bombing by Japanese aircraft of civilian populations in China and to furnish without delay to the Council information so obtained.

Before accepting them, Dr. Koo said that the two resolutions before the Council did not mark much progress over the previous ones of the League. He could do nothing but accept them, however, as they were the only possible basis of general agreement among members of the Council. He hoped that the action contemplated in the present resolutions would lead to the adoption of new concrete measures in fuller conformity with the proposals of the Chinese Government, and therefore meeting more effectively the requirements of the situation. He also asked, in the name of the Chinese Government, as he did on previous occasions, that the appeal of the Chinese Government be placed on the agenda of the next session of the Council, and that his acceptance of the two resolutions was subject to this reservation.

The Council did not meet again until December, 1939, when it was convened to consider the Russo-Finnish dispute. The appeal of the Chinese Government was discussed in a private meeting on December 19, when the Chinese representative renewed the request that China's appeal be placed on the agenda of the next session of the Council.

CHINA'S DECLARATION OF WAR ON JAPAN

China's formal declaration of war on Japan was read by Dr. Quo Tai-chi, Minister of Foreign Affairs, on December 9, 1941. The declaration reads;

"Japan's national policy has always aimed at the domination of Asia and the mastery of the Pacific. For more than four years China has resolutely resisted Japan's aggression, regardless of suffering and sacrifice, in order not only to maintain her national independence and freedom but also to uphold international law and justice and to promote world peace and human happiness.

"China is a peace-loving nation. In taking up arms in self-defense, China entertained the hope that Japan might yet realize the futility of her plan of conquest. Throughout the struggle all the other Powers have shown the utmost forbearance, likewise in the hope that Japan might one day repent and mend her ways in the interest of peace in the entire Pacific region.

"Unfortunately, Japan's aggressive propensities have proved to be incorrigible. After her long and fruitless attempt to conquer China, Japan,

far from showing any sign of penitence, has treacherously launched an attack on China's friends, the United States of America and Great Britain, thus extending the theater of her aggressive activities and making herself the arch-enemy of justice and world peace. This latest act of aggression on the part of Japan lays bare her insatiable ambition and has created a situation

which no nation that believes in international good faith and human decency can tolerate.

"The Chinese Government hereby formally declares war on Japan. The Chinese Government further declares that all treaties, conventions, agreements and contracts concerning the relations between China and Japan are and remain null and void."

JOINT DECLARATIONS OF THE UNITED NATIONS

THE JANUARY 1, 1942 DECLARATION

The United States, Britain, China, the Netherlands and twenty-two other anti-Axis nations signed a joint declaration in Washington on January 1, 1942, pledging to use their full resources against the Axis and not to make separate armistice or peace with the enemy.

The signatories include Britain, the United States, the U. S. S. R., China, Australia, Belgium, Canada, Costa Rica, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, the Dominican Republic, Salvador, Greece, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, India, Luxemburg, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Norway, Panama, Poland, South Africa and Yugoslavia.

The text of the joint declaration reads:—

"The Governments signatory hereto, having subscribed to the common program of purposes and principles embodied in the joint declaration of the President of the United States and the Prime Minister of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, dated August 14, 1941, known as the Atlantic Charter,* and being convinced that complete victory over their enemies is essential to decent life, liberty, independence and religious freedom and the preservation of their rights and justice in their own lands as well as in other lands, and that they are now engaged in a common struggle against savage and brutal forces seeking to subjugate the world, declare:

"First, each Government pledges itself to employ its full resources, military or economic, against those members of the Tripartite Pact and its adherents with whom such government is at war.

"Second, each Government pledges itself to cooperate with the Government signatory hereto and not to make separate armistice or peace with the enemies.

"The foregoing declaration may be adhered to by other nations which are or which may be rendering material assistance and contributions in the struggle for victory over Hitlerism.

"Done at Washington on January 1, 1942."

Chinese official quarters, according to a Central News dispatch on January 3, enthusiastically greeted the signing of the Joint Declaration by representatives of America, Britain, Soviet Union, China and twenty-two other countries in Washington on New Year's Day as a definite step toward winning the war and creating a better world order in the future.

The Chinese were particularly gratified because shortly after Japan precipitated the Pacific War, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek proposed to all powers concerned that there should be no separate peace with the enemies and that an agreement to that effect should be concluded.

* "The President of the United States and the Prime Minister, Mr. Churchill, representing His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom, being met together, deem it right to make known certain common principles in the national policies of their respective countries on which they base their hopes for a better future for the world.

"1. Their countries seek no aggrandizement, territorial or other.

"2. They desire to see no territorial changes that do not accord with the freely expressed wishes of the peoples concerned.

"3. They respect the right of all peoples to choose the form of government under which they will live; and they wish to see sovereign rights and self-government restored to those who have been forcibly deprived of them.

"4. They will endeavor, with due respect for their existing obligations, to further enjoyment by all States, great or small victor or vanquished, of access, on equal terms, to the trade and to the raw materials of the world which are needed for their economic prosperity.

"5. They desire to bring about the fullest collaboration between all nations in the economic field, with the object of securing for all improved labor standards, economic advancement, and social security.

"6. After the final destruction of Nazi tyranny, they hope to see established a peace which will afford to all nations the means of dwelling in safety within their own boundaries, and which will afford assurance that all the men in all the lands may live out their lives in freedom from fear and want.

"7. Such a peace should enable all men to traverse the high seas and oceans without hindrance.

"8. They believe all of the nations of the world, for realistic as well as spiritual reasons, must come to the abandonment of the use of force. Since no future peace can be maintained if land, sea, or air armaments continue to be employed by nations which threaten, or may threaten, aggression outside of their frontiers, they believe, pending the establishment of a wider and permanent system of general security, that the disarmament of such nations is essential. They will likewise aid and encourage all other practicable measures which will lighten for peace-loving peoples the crushing burden of armament."

The speedy conclusion of this declaration shows clearly that all powers united against aggression hold absolutely identical views regarding their peace aims and are at same time equally determined to carry the war to a victorious end.

The adherence of Soviet Union to the Joint Declaration provides the last link in the chain of anti-aggression nations. It shows that the peoples of twenty-six countries have all realized that war must be waged against aggression on all fronts if triumph is to be achieved at an early date.

DECLARATION AGAINST DISPOSSESSION

On January 5, 1943, the Chinese Government announced that it had joined with the governments of sixteen other nations and with the French National Committee in declaring their solidarity and determination to do their utmost to defeat the method of dispossession practised by the governments with which they are at war against countries and peoples whom they have so wantonly assaulted and despoiled. The declaration is the result of consultation between the Governments of the United Kingdom, the United States and the British Dominions and was announced in London on January 5, at noon (Greenwich time).

The text of the declaration reads :—

“The Governments of the Union of South Africa, the United States, Australia, Belgium, Canada, China, the Czechoslovakian Republic, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, Greece, India, Luxemburg, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Poland,

U. S. S. R., Yugoslavia, and the French National Committee hereby issue a formal warning to all concerned and in particular to persons in neutral countries that they intend to do their utmost to defeat the method of dispossession practised by the Governments with which they are at war against the countries and peoples whom they have so wantonly assaulted and despoiled. Accordingly the Governments making this declaration and the French National Committee reserve all their rights to declare invalid any transfers of, or dealings with, property, rights and interests of any description whatsoever which are or have been situated in the territories which have come under the occupation or control, direct or indirect, of the Governments with which they are at war or which belong or have belonged to persons, resident in such territories. This warning applies whether such transfers or dealings have taken the form of open looting or plunder or of transactions apparently legal in form even when they purport to be voluntarily effected. The Governments making this declaration and the French National Committee solemnly record their solidarity in this matter.”

The Chinese Government proposed to add in the text after the second sentence a new proviso which reads :—“Without prejudice, however, to the liability of the Governments with which the Allied Nations are at war, to make compensation for the dispossession of the above mentioned property, rights and interests.” At a recent Inter-Allied meeting held in London, it was decided that the Chinese amendment should be recorded in the Procesverbal attached to the Joint Declaration.

JOINT MILITARY OPERATIONS

INTER-ALLIED MILITARY COUNCIL IN CHUNGKING

An Inter-Allied Military Council was created in Chungking on December 23, 1941. It met for three days under the chairmanship of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, Supreme Commander of the China war theater, and was attended by General Sir Archibald Wavell, Commander-in-Chief, India, and General George H. Brett, Chief of the U. S. Air Corps, and numerous other Chinese, British and American military officers.

The following communique was issued by the Chinese Government, on December 26, 1941, announcing the arrival in Chungking of General Sir Archibald Wavell and General George H. Brett :

“General Sir Archibald Wavell, Commander-in-Chief, India, and General George H. Brett, Chief of the U. S. Air Corps, arrived in Chungking from Rangoon on December 22, and on the same evening called on Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, and discussed with him various problems concerning joint war action among the democratic

countries. On December 23, a military council was created in Chungking. On the third day of their stay, having completed their work, both General Wavell and General Brett left Chungking together for Rangoon whence they will proceed to their respective headquarters.”

The following communique was released on the same day by the British Embassy regarding General Wavell's visit to Chungking :

“General Sir Archibald Wavell arrived in Chungking on December 22 for a visit of three days, during which he discussed with Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek and General George H. Brett, Chief of the U. S. Air Corps, who also came specially for the purpose, questions of strategy in the Far East. The Minister of War, the heads of the American and British Military Missions, and several general officers of the Chinese High Command also took part in the discussions. Every aspect, both present and future, of the campaign in the Far East was considered and complete harmony of view and purpose was reached. General Wavell has returned to India.”

GENERALISSIMO ACCEPTS COMMAND FOR CHINA WAR THEATER

The White House announcement, issued on January 3, 1942, appointing supreme regional commands for the southwestern Pacific area, said with reference to China:

"General Chiang Kai-shek has accepted the Supreme Command over all land and air forces of the nations which are now or may in the future, be operating in the Chinese theater, including such portions of Indo-China and Thailand as may become available to troops of the United Nations. United States and British representatives will serve on his joint headquarters planning staff."

UNITED INFORMATION COMMITTEE

Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Chinese Minister of Information, announced the creation of a United Information Committee of the Anti-Aggression Powers in Chungking on January 5, 1942. This committee is composed of the Chinese Minister of Information and the representatives of the British, American, and Dutch diplomatic missions, with the Chinese Minister of Information as chairman. The membership of the committee may be augmented later on by representatives of other anti-aggression powers. The committee meets once a week and seeks to coordinate the efforts of the anti-aggression powers in all matters pertaining to publicity.

STILWELL APPOINTED CHIEF OF STAFF

Lt.-Gen. Joseph W. Stilwell, of the United States Army, was appointed Chief of Staff of the China war theater in March, 1942, by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek who is Supreme Commander of the war theater.

ALEXANDER'S VISIT TO CHUNGKING

While as Commander-in-Chief of the British forces in Burma, Lt.-Gen. Alexander visited Chungking toward the end of March, 1942. Before leaving he issued a statement saying he had come to pay his respects to Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, to inform him of the latest military situation in Burma, and to make sure that he was satisfied with the arrangements made for provisioning and maintaining Chinese troops in that country.

"I have seen many units of the Chinese Army in Burma and I am much impressed with their fitness and toughness. They look happy, they work hard, and their behavior and discipline is excellent."

PACIFIC WAR COUNCIL IN WASHINGTON

President Roosevelt announced the creation of the Pacific War Council in Washington on March 30, 1942. The Council is composed of the United States, China, Great Britain, Canada, the Netherlands, Australia and New Zealand. The President invited the following

to the first meeting on April 1, 1942: T. V. Soong, Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs, Australian Minister Herbert Evatt, Netherlands Minister Alexander Loudon, British Ambassador Lord Halifax, New Zealand Minister Walter Nash and Mr. Hume Wrong, Counsellor of the Canadian Legation.

"It is imperative that all of the United Nations now actively engaged in the Pacific conflict," said Roosevelt's statement, "consider together matters of policy relating to their joint war effort. Effective war can only be prosecuted with the complete cooperation and understanding of all the nations concerned. The new Council will be in intimate contact with the similar body in London."

CHINA DECORATES U. S. AIRMEN

Maj.-Gen. Chu Shih-ming, Chinese Military Attache in Washington, conferred the Military Order of China on July 26, 1942, on three United States army airmen who participated in the April 18 raid against Japanese cities. The presentation ceremony was held at the Army Hospital, Washington, where Captain Harold Watson, Captain Ted Lawich and Lt. Charles McLure were convalescing from injuries received in a subsequent accident.

GENERALISSIMO'S MESSAGE TO CHINESE TROOPS IN INDIA

Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek telegraphed to the officers and men of the Chinese Expeditionary Forces in India on August 4, 1942, ordering them to behave themselves with modesty and courtesy toward the troops of the Allied countries, to show consideration and cordiality toward the Indian people, to avoid involving themselves in political questions or movements and to refrain from unconsidered criticisms or discussions of Indian politics.

Following is an English translation of the Generalissimo's message:

"The high morale and excellent conduct which characterized the Chinese Expeditionary Forces in making their hazardous and difficult way from Burma to India is a matter of pride and gratification to the whole Chinese nation and to me as your Commander-in-Chief.

"My great concern has been over the many wounded and ill among you and over whether suitable provisions have been made for your care. I have, therefore, dispatched Gen. Stilwell to inspect the conditions under which you are living, to ascertain your welfare, to issue orders which, in his opinion, would improve your well-being and would further intensify your training. Gen. Lo Cho-ying is also on his way to you.

"I trust that all of you will continue to conduct yourselves in a manner worthy of our great

country and of the traditions of the Chinese Army. Toward the troops of the Allied countries of whatever nationality with whom you may come into contact you must behave yourselves with modesty and courtesy. Toward the Indian people you must show consideration and cordiality.

"All Chinese soldiers, temporarily stationed for training on the soil of a friendly neighbor, you should scrupulously avoid involving yourselves in political questions or movements, and should judiciously refrain from unconsidered criticisms or discussion of Indian politics. Remember that your sole duty is to take every

advantage of this period of training to prepare yourselves mentally, morally and physically to continue active military service. You should devote special attention to the study of military operations and the highly technical training now made available to you so that you will be enabled in the near future to shoulder worthily your part in the stupendous task of pushing the 'island dwarfs' into the sea, defeat Nazism and win the final great and glorious victory.

"Officers and men of the Chinese Expeditionary Forces, this is the achievement expected of you by your compatriots in your homeland and the world over."

CHINA'S RELATIONS WITH THE UNITED STATES

LAUCHLIN CURRIE'S TRIPS TO CHINA

Dr. Lauchlin Currie, President Roosevelt's administrative assistant, made his first trip to China in February, 1941, to get first-hand information regarding the Chinese economic situation. He was accompanied by Emile Des Pres, senior economist of the Federal Reserve Bank's division of research and statistics. He made his second trip to China in July-August, 1942, to study conditions in China, including her wartime needs, on behalf of President Roosevelt.

LATTIMORE AS GENERALISSIMO'S ADVISER

Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek accepted President Roosevelt's recommendation and announced his appointment of Owen Lattimore as his personal political adviser on June 29, 1941. Dr. Lattimore arrived in Chungking on July 19, and stayed until he left for America on January 15, 1942. He returned to Chungking on October 14, 1942. Shortly afterwards he submitted his resignation to the Generalissimo in order to assume the post of director of the Pacific division of the American Office of War Information in San Francisco. The Generalissimo, however, only gave him leave of absence. Dr. Lattimore left Chungking on November 18, 1942.

TRAINING OF CHINESE AIR CADETS IN U. S.

Arrangements were completed in the latter part of 1941 whereby Chinese air cadets can undergo advanced training in U. S. Army Air Corps fields in various parts of America. The first class of Chinese cadets graduated in March, 1942, after having completed their courses in combat flying. Since then numerous batches of Chinese cadets have gone to America for similar training.

EXCHANGE OF MILITARY MISSIONS

President Roosevelt formally announced on August 26, 1941, that the U. S. Government was preparing to send a military mission to China

which would operate under the direction of Secretary of War Stimson. The President disclosed that the mission would be headed by Brig.-Gen. John Magruder.

The President stated that the decision was in keeping with and along parallel lines to the projected mission to Russia and that the purpose of such missions would be identical except that the mission to Russia would not deal with the Lease-Lend Act.

The function of the mission, said the President, would be to study, in collaboration with the Chinese and other authorities, the military situation and its need for materials, to formulate recommendations regarding the type and quantity of items needed to assist this procurement in the U.S.A. and their delivery to China, and to give advice and suggestions of an appropriate character toward making lease-lend assistance to China as effective as possible in the interest of the United States, China and the world effort in resistance to the movement for conquest by force.

The first batch of seven members of the American military mission to China, headed by Brig.-Gen. John Magruder, arrived in Chungking on October 9, 1941.

In a press interview Gen. Magruder said the mission would remain in China for an indefinite period of time and its headquarters would be in Chungking. The sphere of the mission's activities, according to Gen. Magruder, would include not only Free China but also the Burma Road by which the materials supplied to China under the Lend-Lease Act were to be shipped to the interior.

It was officially announced on March 10, 1942, that the Chinese Government had decided to dispatch a military mission to Washington, which would be led by Gen. Hsiung Shih-hui, member of the National Military Council and until recently Chairman of the Kiangsi Provincial Government. The latter would be accompanied by a staff of officers, including Maj.-Gens. Hsu Pei-keng and Ching Chen and Col. Wang Keng, and participate as Chinese military

representative in war conferences of the United Nations in Washington.

The Chinese military mission, headed by Gen. Hsiung Shih-hui, arrived in Washington on April 13, 1942, to effect closer and fuller collaboration between China and the Allied Joint Staff Board. Gen. Hsiung returned to China in April, 1943, by way of Britain.

WITHDRAWAL OF U. S. MARINES

President Roosevelt announced on November 14, 1941, that he had ordered American Marines to withdraw from Peiping, Tientsin and Shanghai. He said that the withdrawal was to begin shortly.

Four hundred American marines left Shanghai for Manila on November 28, thereby evacuating all American defense forces from China except a few marines guarding the consulate in Shanghai and skeleton crews aboard the Yangtze Patrol gunboats and the contingents in Peiping and Tientsin.

THE US \$500,000,000 LOAN

The White House announced on February 2, 1942, that President Roosevelt had asked Congress to approve a US \$500,000,000 loan to China.

On February 4, 1942, the House of Representatives without debate unanimously passed and sent to the Senate the bill for the \$500,000,000 loan to China.

On February 5, the Senate passed the bill by a vote of 72 to nothing after Senator Connally, Secretary Knox, Secretary Stimson, Mr. Jesse Jones and Secretary Henry Morgenthau requested it as a means to strengthen China's internal economy.

On February 8 President Roosevelt's message to Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek was released:

"It is a source of gratification to me and to the Government and to the people of the United States that the proposal which I made to Congress that the authorization for the purpose of rendering financial aid to China to the amount of \$500,000,000 was passed unanimously by both the Senate and the House of Representatives and has now become law.

"The unusual speed and unanimity with which this measure was acted upon by Congress and the enthusiastic support which it received throughout the United States testify to the whole-hearted respect and admiration which the Government and people of this country have for China. They testify also to our earnest desire and determination to be concretely helpful to our partners in the great battle for freedom.

"The gallant resistance of the Chinese Armies against the ruthless invaders of your country has called forth highest praise from American and all other freedom-loving peoples. The tenacity of the Chinese people both armed and

unarmed, in the face of tremendous odds in carrying on for almost five years resolute defense against an enemy far superior in equipment is an inspiration to fighting men and to all peoples in the other United Nations. The great sacrifices of the Chinese people in destroying the fruits of their soil so they could not be used by the predatory armies of Japan exemplify in a high degree the spirit of sacrifice which is necessary on the part of all to gain the victory toward which we are confidently striving. It is my hope and belief that the use which will be made of the funds now authorized by Congress of the United States will contribute substantially toward facilitating the efforts of the Chinese Government and people to meet economic and financial burdens which have been thrust upon them by invasion and toward the solution of problems of production and procurement which is essential for the success of their armed resistance to what are now our common enemies.

"I send you my personal greetings and best wishes. I extend to you across land and sea the hand of comradeship for the common good of our common goal—the common victory that shall be ours."

The following reply of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek to President Roosevelt was released on February 15:

"A few days ago I arrived in Delhi and while here received your most welcoming telegram informing me of the granting of US \$500,000,000 loan to China. I feel most grateful for your having accepted my suggestion *in toto* and with no conditions attached to the loan. On behalf of the Chinese army and people I wish to convey to you and through you to the Senate and the House of Representatives as well as the American people our deep gratitude for this timely assistance.

"For four and a half years our people have gone through untold pains and privations. The credit you have just secured for China will not only ameliorate our economic situation but will also heighten the morale of our people in the present struggle. The loan and supplies which we have received from you in the past enabled China to continue the war of resistance to the present time and fight side by side with our Allies. Through your timely assistance and support, inspiration and encouragement have been given all the peoples who are fighting for freedom; in a word they have benefited the whole anti-aggression front. Your far-sightedness in this world's greatest crisis is deservedly the envy of all real statesmen.

"Apart from military needs the money will be used principally for strengthening all the economic structure, redemption of legal tender notes, control of issue of currency notes, stabilization of prices of commodities and war-time standard of living and increase of production. I will give

you a detailed report after my return to Chungking.

"I reciprocate most heartily your greetings and best wishes."

MORGENTHAU-SOONG STATEMENT

The following is the text of the joint statement made by Secretary of Treasury, Henry Morgenthau, and Dr. T. V. Soong, in Washington on March 22, 1942:

The United States of America and the Republic of China have to-day entered into an agreement giving effect to the Act of Congress unanimously passed by the Senate and House of Representatives authorizing \$500,000,000 of financial aid to China. The agreement has been approved by President Roosevelt and Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek and signed by Secretary Morgenthau on behalf of the United States and Dr. T. V. Soong on behalf of China.

This financial aid will contribute substantially toward facilitating the great efforts of the Chinese people and their government to meet the financial and economic burdens which have been imposed upon them by almost five years of continuous attack by Japan.

This agreement is one concrete manifestation of the desire and determination of the United States to aid China in our common battle.

The financial determination of terms upon which this \$500,000,000 financial aid given China, including the benefits to be rendered the United States in return, is deferred until progress of events after the war makes clearer the final terms and benefits which will be in the mutual interest of the United States and China and will promote the establishment of a lasting world peace and security.

The text of the agreement follows: "Whereas the United States of America and the Republic of China are engaged together with other nations and peoples of like mind in one cooperative undertaking against common enemies toward the end of laying the basis for a just and enduring world peace, securing order under law for themselves and all nations, and whereas the United States and China are signatories of the declaration of the United Nations on January 1, 1942, which declares each government pledges itself to employ its full resources military or economic against those members of the Tripartite Pact and its adherents with which such governments are at war; and whereas the Congress of the United States in unanimously passing Public Law Number 402 has declared that financial and economic aid to China will increase China's ability to oppose forces of aggression and that the defense of China is of the greatest possible importance and has authorized the Secretary of Treasury of the United States with the approval of the President to give financial aid to China; and whereas such financial aid will enable China

to strengthen greatly its war efforts against common enemies by helping China first, to strengthen its currency, monetary and banking systems; secondly, to finance and promote increased production, acquisition and distribution of necessary goods; thirdly, to retard the rise of prices and promote the stability of the economic relationship and otherwise check inflation; fourthly, to prevent hoarding of foods and other materials; fifthly, to improve the means of transportation and communications; sixthly, to effect further social and economic measures which promote the welfare of the Chinese people; and seventhly, to meet military needs other than those supplied under the Lend-Lease Act and take other appropriate measures in its war effort authorized by their respective governments for that purpose, have agreed as follows:

Article I. The Secretary of Treasury of the United States agrees to establish forthwith on the books of the State's Treasury on credit in the name of the Republic of China in the amount of five hundred million United States dollars. The Secretary shall make transfers from this credit in such amounts and at such times as the Government of the Republic of China shall request through its Minister of Finance to an account or accounts in the Federal Reserve Bank of New York in the name of the Republic of China or any agencies designated by the Minister of Finance. Such transfers may be requested by and such accounts at the Federal Reserve Bank of New York may be drawn upon by the Government of the Republic of China either directly or through such persons or agencies as the Minister of Finance shall authorize.

Article II. The financial determination of terms upon which this financial aid is given including the benefits to be rendered the United States in return is deferred by the two contracting parties until the progress of events after the war makes clear what final terms and benefits will be in the mutual interest of the United States and China and will promote the establishment of lasting world peace and security. In determining the final terms and benefits, full cognizance shall be given the desirability of maintaining one healthy and stable economic and financial situation in China during the post-war period as well as during the war and the desirability of promoting mutually advantageous economic and financial relations between the United States and China and the betterment of world-wide economic and financial relations.

Article III. This agreement shall take effect as from this day's date Signed and sealed at Washington, District of Columbia, in duplicate, this twenty-first day of March, 1942. On behalf of the United States of America, Signed Henry Morgenthau, Secretary of Treasury. On behalf of the Republic of China, T. V. Soong, Minister of Foreign Affairs."

U.S. LOANS TO CHINA SINCE WAR BEGAN

1938	Wood Oil Loan	US \$ 25,000,000
1940	Tin Loan	20,000,000
1940	Wolfram Loan	25,000,000
1941	Currency Stabilization Loan	50,000,000
1941	Credit Loan	50,000,000
1941	Mineral Products Loan	60,000,000
1942	Credit Loan	500,000,000
Total		US \$730,000,000

PRESENTATION OF U.S.S. TUTUILA

The U. S. Government officially handed over its Yangtze gunboat U.S.S. "Tutuila" to the Chinese Government in a ceremony held in Chungking on March 17, 1942. The ship was subsequently rechristened "Mei Yuan" and incorporated into the Chinese fleet.

THE SINO-AMERICAN LEASE-LEND AGREEMENT

The White House announced on June 2, 1942 that lend-lease negotiations with China had been concluded and an agreement was signed at noon that day by Secretary of State, Cordell Hull, and the Chinese Foreign Minister, T. V. Soong. The agreement lay down principles of mutual aid in the prosecution of war. The agreement is the same in all substantial respects as that of the United States and Great Britain.

Following is the full text of the agreement:

Whereas the Governments of the United States and China declare that they are engaged in a cooperative undertaking, together with every other people of like mind, to the end of laying the bases of a just and enduring world peace and of securing order under law to themselves and all nations;

Whereas the Governments of the United States and China as signatories of the declaration by the United Nations on January 1, 1942, subscribed to a common program of purpose and principle embodied in the joint declaration made on August 14, 1941, by the President of the United States of America and the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, known as the Atlantic Charter; and

Whereas the President of the United States of America has determined, pursuant to an act of Congress on March 11, 1941, that the defense of the Republic of China against aggression is vital to the defense of the United States of America; and

Whereas the United States of America has extended and is continuing to extend to the

Republic of China aid in resisting aggression and whereas it is expedient that the final determination of the terms or conditions upon which the Government of China receives such aid and of the benefit to be received by the United States of America in return therefore should be deferred until the progress of events makes clearer the final terms and conditions and benefits which will be in the mutual interest of the United States and China and will promote the establishment and maintenance of world peace; and

Whereas the Governments of the United States and China are mutually desirous of concluding now a preliminary agreement in regard to the provision of defense aid and in regard to certain considerations which shall be taken into account in determining such terms and conditions, and the making of such an agreement has in all respects been duly authorized; and all acts, conditions and formalities which they may have to perform, fulfil or execute prior to making such an agreement in conformity with the law either of the United States of America or China have been performed, fulfilled or executed as required;

The undersigned, being duly authorized by their respective governments for that purpose, have agreed as follows:

Article 1. The Government of the United States of America will continue to supply the Government of China with such defense articles, defense service and defense information as the President of the United States of America shall authorize to be transferred or provided.

Article 2. The Government of China will continue to contribute to the defense of the United States and in strengthening thereof will provide the U. S. with such articles of service, facilities or information as it may be in a position to supply.

Article 3. The Government of China will not, without the consent of the President of the United States of America, transfer the title to or possession of any defense article or defense information transferred to it under the act of March 11, 1941, of Congress of the United States of America or permit the use thereof by anyone not an officer or employee or agent of the Government of China.

Article 4. If, as a result of the transfer to the Government of the Republic of China of any defense article or defense information, it becomes necessary for that government to take any action or make any payment in order fully to protect any of the rights of the citizens of the United States who have patent rights in and to any such defense article or information, the Government of China will take up such action or make such payment when requested to do so by the President of the United States of America.

Article 5. The Government of the Republic of China will return to the United States of America at the end of the present emergency as determined by the President of the United States of America such defense articles transferred under this agreement as shall not have been destroyed, lost or consumed and as shall be determined by the President to be useful in the defense of the United States of America or the Western Hemisphere or to be otherwise of use to the United States of America.

Article 6. In the final determination of the benefits to be provided to the United States of America by the Government of the Republic of China, full cognizance shall be taken of all property, services, information, facilities or other benefits or consideration provided by the Government of the Republic of China subsequent to March 11, 1941, and accepted or acknowledged by the President on behalf of the United States of America.

Article 7. In the final determination of the benefits to be provided, after conferring with the United States of America, by the Government of the Republic of China in return for aid furnished under the Act of Congress of March 11, 1941, the terms and conditions thereof shall be such as not to burden the commerce between the two countries but to promote mutually advantageous economic relations between them and the betterment of worldwide economic relations. To that end, they shall include a provision for agreed-to action by the United States of America and the Republic of China which will be open to participation by all other countries of like mind and which will be directed to the expansion by appropriate international and domestic measures of production or employment and the exchange and consumption of goods which are the material foundation of the liberty and welfare of all peoples, to the elimination of all forms of discriminatory treatment in international commerce to the reduction of tariffs and other trade barriers, and to the attainment of economic objectives which are identical with those set forth in the joint resolution made on August 14, 1941, by the President of the United States of America and the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom.

At an early convenient date, conversation shall be begun between the two governments with a view to determining, in the light of the governing economic conditions, the best means of attaining the above stated objectives by their own agreed-to action.

Article 8. This agreement shall take effect as from this day's date. It shall continue in force until a date to be agreed upon by the two governments

WILLKIE'S VISIT

In his tour of Middle Eastern countries, the Soviet Union and China as President Roosevelt's personal envoy, Wendell L. Willkie entered China in Sinkiang on September 29, 1942, and arrived in Chungking on October 2, 1942, as a guest of the Chinese Government. He stayed until October 7, when he left the Chinese wartime capital to inspect the Yellow river front. Later he returned to Chengtu, where his giant Liberator plane flew him across Siberia to America via Alaska. The day he left Chungking he issued the following statement:

"I have travelled through thirteen countries. I have seen kingdoms, soviets, republics, mandated areas, colonies and dependencies. I have seen an almost bewildering variety of ways of living, and ways of ruling and of being ruled. But I have found four things common to all the countries I have visited and to all the ordinary people in those countries with whom I have talked.

"First, they all want the United Nations to win the war.

"Second, they want the United Nations to get on the offensive now.

"Third, they all want a chance at the end of the war to live in liberty and independence.

"Fourth, they all doubt, in varying degrees, the readiness of the leading democracies of the world to stand up and be counted for freedom for others after the war is over. This doubt kills their enthusiastic participation on our side.

"Now without the real support of these common people, the winning of war will be enormously difficult. The winning of the peace will be nearly impossible. This war is not simply a technical problem for task forces. It is also a war for men's minds. We must organize on our side not simply the sympathies but the active, aggressive, offensive spirit of nearly three-fourths of the people of the world who live in South America, Africa, Eastern Europe and Asia. We have not done this, and at present are not doing this. We have got to do it."

"First of all, everything I have seen on this trip has strengthened my conviction that defense will not win the war. I think we have got to pin this idea in our hats, and look at it often. Defense won't win for us either in a military sense or in a political sense.

"It is my personal opinion that the time has come for an all-out armed offensive everywhere by all the United Nations. We are ready to deliver some knock-out punches, if I can believe what I have seen with my own eyes.

"We can start these punches at home, but they have got to connect if they are going to hurt the enemy. In the United States we have talked a lot to the world about our production

figures. But some of our allies have seen very little of our actual arms. It is only natural for them to wonder where our boasted production has gone. It is only natural for some of them to wonder how much longer they will have to eat like children at the second table.

"Some of the countries I have visited look on the map like the last stop on the line. But in terms of the blows they are delivering to our enemies, they should be the first stops. China and Russia have each contributed to the defeat of the Axis aggressors, some 5,000,000 of their finest men in casualties. Each has engaged and held with heroic tenacity powerful and ruthless enemies. It is both just and wise for us to see to it that they secure an equitable share of our arms production.

"However, men need more than arms to fight and win this kind of war. They need enthusiasm for the future and a conviction that the flags they fight under are in bright, clear colors. The truth is that we as a nation have not made up our minds as to what kind of a world we want to speak for when victory comes.

"Especially here in Asia the common people feel that we have asked them to join us for no better reason, than that Japanese rule would be even worse than Western imperialism. This is a continent where the record of the Western democracies has been long and mixed, but where people—and remember there are a billion of them—are determined no longer to live under foreign control. Freedom and opportunity are the words which have modern magic for the people of Asia, and we have let the Japanese, the most cruel imperialists the modern world has known—steal these words from us and corrupt them to their own uses.

"Most of the people in Asia have never known democracy. They may or may not want our type of democracy. Obviously all of them are not ready to have democracy handed to them next Tuesday on a silver platter. But they are determined to work out their own destiny under governments selected by themselves.

"Even the name of the Atlantic Charter disturbs thoughtful men and women I have been talking to. Do all of those who signed it, these people ask, agree that it applies to the Pacific? We must answer this question with a clear and simple statement of where we stand. And we must begin to sweat over our common problem of translating such a statement into plans which will be concrete and meaningful to the lives of these millions of people who are our allies.

"Some of the plans to which such a statement would lead are already clear, I deeply believe, to most Americans.

"We believe this war must mean an end to the empire of nations over other nations. No foot of Chinese soil, for example, should be or

can be ruled from now on except by the people who live on it. And we must say so now, not after the war.

"We believe it is the world's job to find some system for helping colonial peoples who join the United Nations' cause to become free and independent nations. We must set up firm time-tables under which they can work out and train governments of their own choosing, and we must establish iron-clad guarantees, administered by all the United Nations jointly, that they shall not slip back into colonial status.

"Some say these subjects should be hushed until victory is won. Exactly the reverse is true. Sincere efforts to find progressive solutions now will bring strength to our cause. Remember, opponents of social change always urge delay because of some present crisis. After the war, the changes may be too little and too late.

"We must develop between nations trade and trade routes strong enough to give all people the same vested interest in peace which we in America have had.

"In the United States, we are being asked to give up temporarily our individual freedom and economic liberty in order to crush the Axis. We must recover this freedom and this liberty after the war. The way to make certain we do recover our traditional American way of life with a rising standard of living for all is to create a world in which all men everywhere can be free."

JOHNSON AND GAUSS

Nelson T. Johnson, American ambassador to China, left Chungking on May 14, 1941. He was replaced by Clarence E. Gauss, who presented his credentials to Mr. Lin Sen, Chairman of the National Government on May 26, 1941. Mr. Gauss returned to America in March, 1943.

HU SHIH AND WEI TAO-MING

Dr. Hu Shih, Chinese ambassador to the United States, resigned from his post in September, 1942, and was later made a high adviser to the Executive Yuan of the National Government. Dr. Wei Tao-ming, then Chinese ambassador-designate to Vichy, was appointed China's new ambassador in Washington. Dr. Wei presented his credentials to President Roosevelt on October 6, 1942.

CRIMINAL JURISDICTION OVER U.S. ARMED FORCES IN CHINA

An understanding was reached between Dr. K. C. Wu, Political Vice-Minister in charge of Ministerial Affairs, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, on behalf of the Chinese Government, and Mr. George Acheson, American Charge d'Affaires, on behalf of the United States Government, regarding criminal jurisdiction over

American armed forces temporarily stationed in China, according to a statement issued by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs on May 21, 1943.

The understanding has been placed on record by an exchange of notes to the effect that jurisdiction over criminal offenses committed by members of the armed forces of the United States in China shall be exclusively exercised by the service courts and the military and naval authorities of the United States, and that the United States Government shall make like arrangements to ensure to such Chinese forces as may be stationed in territory under United States jurisdiction a position corresponding to that of the United States forces in China.

The full text of the Notes exchanged is as follows:

Note from American Charge D'Affaires
To The Political Vice-Minister in Charge
of Ministerial Affairs,
Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

May 21, 1943

Excellency;

Confirming the understanding reached in the conversations which have taken place in Chungking between representatives of our two Governments, I have the honor to inform Your Excellency that it is the desire of the Government of the United States that the service courts and authorities of its military and naval forces shall during the continuance of the present conflict against our common enemies exercise exclusive jurisdiction over criminal offenses which may be committed in China by members of such forces.

If cases arise in which for special reasons the service authorities of the Government of the United States may prefer not to exercise the above jurisdiction, it is proposed that in any such case a written statement to that effect shall be sent to the Chinese Government through diplomatic channels, in which event it would be open to the Chinese authorities to assume jurisdiction.

Assurance is given that the service courts and authorities of the United States forces in China will be willing and able to try, and on conviction to punish, all criminal offenses which members of the United States forces may be alleged on sufficient evidence to have committed in China and that the United States authorities will be willing in principle to investigate and deal appropriately with any alleged criminal offenses committed by such forces in China which may be brought to their attention by the competent Chinese authorities or which the United States authorities may find have taken place.

Insofar as may be compatible with military security, the service authorities of the United States will conduct the trial of any member of the

United States forces for an offense against a member of the civilian population promptly in open court in China and within a reasonable distance from the place where the offense is alleged to have been committed so that witnesses may not be required to travel great distance to attend the trial.

The competent United States authorities will be prepared to cooperate with the authorities of China in setting up a satisfactory procedure for affording such mutual assistance as may be required in making investigations and collecting evidence with respect to offenses alleged to have been committed by members of the armed forces of the United States. As a general rule it would probably be desirable that preliminary action should be taken by the Chinese authorities on behalf of the United States authorities where the witnesses or other persons from whom it is desired to obtain testimony are not members of the United States forces. In prosecutions in Chinese courts of persons who are not members of the United States forces, but where members of such forces are in any way concerned, the service authorities of the United States will be glad to render such assistance as is possible in obtaining testimony of members of such forces or in making appropriate investigations.

Inasmuch as the interests of our common cause will best be served by provision that the foregoing arrangement may be placed on a reciprocal basis, the Government of the United States will be ready to make like arrangements to ensure to such Chinese forces as may be stationed in territory under United States jurisdiction a position corresponding to that of the United States forces in China.

It is proposed that the foregoing arrangement shall be in effect during the present war and for a period of six months thereafter.

If the above arrangement is acceptable to the Chinese Government, this note and the reply thereto accepting the provisions outlined shall be regarded as placing on record the understanding between our two Governments.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurances of my highest consideration.

(Signed) George Atcheson, Jr.

Replying Note from the Political Vice-Minister
in charge of Ministerial Affairs, Ministry of
Foreign Affairs, to American Charge
D'Affaires.

May 21, 1943

Monsieur le Charge d'Affaires:

I have the honor to acknowledge receipt of your Note of today's date reading as follows:

(Here the American note is quoted in full.)

I have the honor to inform you that I am authorized to confirm, on behalf of the National Government of the Republic of China, that the understanding arrived at between our respective Governments regarding jurisdiction over criminal offenses which may be committed by members of the United States armed forces in China, with a provision for placing the said understanding on a reciprocal basis to ensure to such Chinese forces as may be stationed in territory under United States jurisdiction a

position corresponding to that of the United States forces in China, is as set forth in your Note under reply.

The present Note and your Note under reply will accordingly be regarded as placing this understanding on record.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to you the assurances of my high consideration.

(Signed) Kuo-cheng Wu.

CHINA'S RELATIONS WITH GREAT BRITAIN

THE S. G. CHENG CASE IN TIENTSIN

The case occurred in Tientsin on April 9, 1939, when S. G. Cheng, a puppet official, was murdered. Whereupon, four Chinese suspects were arrested in the British Concession. When the Japanese demanded their extradition, the British authorities refused on the ground that there had not been enough evidence to prove their guilt. In May the Chinese Government, in reply to its representation, obtained the assurance from the British embassy in Chungking that the four men would not be handed over to any third party. Japanese-engineered, anti-British activities soon broke out in Tientsin and culminated in the blockade of the British Concession beginning June 14. Subsequently, British-Japanese conversations were initiated in Tokyo. In August, the British embassy informed the Chinese Government that as fresh evidence had been produced during the conversations, the British Government considered that a *prima facie* case against the four men had been established and therefore the latter would be handed over to the local "court" in Tientsin for trial. This so-called court, however, was set up by the Japanese military. Consequently, the Chinese Government lodged a vigorous protest with the British embassy in Chungking on August 12. On the same day the spokesman of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs made the following statement:

"The Chinese Government has lodged a formal protest with the British Government against their decision to hand over four Chinese citizens detained in the British Concession at Tientsin to the so-called 'local court' for trial. Such a decision is obviously illegal and contrary to the undertaking made by Great Britain as a member of the League of Nations not to recognize any situation brought about by force. If these men are innocent, they should have been set free. If there had been found evidence to show their complicity in any crime, they should have been turned over to the authorities of the Chinese Government. The whole world knows that the so-called 'local court' is a part of the puppet created by the Japanese aggression against China, and to hand over any Chinese citizens to such a 'court' is equivalent to surrendering them to our enemy whose treat-

ment of innocent civilians is too well known to be imagined. This is indefensible on either legal or moral grounds.

"The decision reached by the British Government in the matter is the more surprising, as the Chinese authorities had been given to understand by the British authorities that the men under custody would continue to be detained in the British Concession, which meant that they would not be handed over to any other parties. After a long delay, in the course of the unusual negotiations at Tokyo, and with the British Concession at Tientsin remaining in the clutches of an unprecedented blockade instituted by Japanese militarists, the British Government began to consider what purported to be additional evidence which, in their opinion, makes it necessary to hand over the unfortunate Chinese to the puppet of the aggressor. It is most regrettable that, while China is putting up heroic resistance against the disturber of world peace, the British Government should have found it expedient to yield to the latter's unjustified demand and to allow their own rights and interests in the Far East to be jeopardized."

On the same day Mr. Quo Tai-chi, Chinese ambassador to the Court of St. James, sent a note to the British Foreign Office urging the British Government to reconsider its decision to hand over the four men. He called attention to Article 21 of the Treaty of Tientsin of 1858 which provides for the delivery of Chinese offenders "on due requisition by the Chinese authorities," and pointed out that in the present case the demand for the delivery of the four men was made not by the competent authority of the Government of China but by the Japanese army and its puppets. Their surrender to the Japanese controlled courts, the note declared, would not be justified on legal grounds and would in fact, be inconsistent with the traditions of British justice, by removing all chances of fair trial. It might furthermore be interpreted as *de facto* recognition of an illegal regime and involve far-reaching political principles and consequences.

On August 25 the British Government replied to the Chinese notes of protest. The following

extract was published by the British Foreign Office:

"The reply emphasizes that the only reason why His Majesty's Government did not approve the surrender of the men immediately when a warrant was issued by the local district court was that adequate evidence connecting the men with the crime alleged was not produced at the time.

"During the conversations, however, which opened in Tokyo on July 24, the Japanese produced evidence, and on the highest legal advice available to His Majesty's Government it was decided that a *prima facie* case had now been established against two of them on a charge of murder and against the other two on a charge of being members of an illegal terrorist organization.

"His Majesty's Government, the reply continues, have always maintained that the case should be dealt with on its own merits and without reference to other issues arising from the situation at Tientsin.

"There could be no question of using the accused men as pawns, or of bartering their disposal against some concession which might accrue to His Majesty's Government.

"With regard to the court to which the men should be handed over, the reply states, the British Municipal Council at Tientsin has been sending persons for trial by, and executing warrants issued by, the *de facto* district court for the past two years, and it would not appear that the execution of the present warrant differs in any way from the many hundreds which preceded it during that period.

"No other course is open to the municipal authorities of the British Concession," the note asserts, "and I trust that Your Excellency will agree, upon reflection, that the alternative suggested in your note that the Chinese offenders should be removed from Tientsin in face of Japanese opposition, in order that they should be handed over to the recognized Chinese authorities in another part of China, is neither practicable nor reasonable.

"At the same time, it is not possible to keep the offenders indefinitely in custody without trial and, therefore, no practical alternative exists but to hand them over to the local authorities.

"His Majesty's Government are unable to agree that the action taken by the British authorities at Tientsin in this or similar cases in the past constitutes recognition of the so-called 'Provisional Government' which, in fact, is recognized neither by them nor, as far as we know, by any other government.

"It has always been the aim of His Majesty's Government that the neutrality of the British Concession at Tientsin should not be in any way a base for hostile activities.

"This attitude has been made clear to the Chinese Government on more than one occasion in the past. For example, in July, 1938, representations were made by His Majesty's ambassador in regard to the use of the British Concession at Tientsin as a base for anti-Japanese activities, and assurances were received from the Chinese Government that activities of this nature would not be allowed to recur.

"In view of the intimation they have made to the Japanese Government (that, in their opinion, a *prima facie* case has been made out), the reply concludes, 'His Majesty's Government consider it no longer possible to refuse the surrender of the men to the local Chinese authorities at Tientsin, and the British Municipal Council has been advised to that effect.'"

On August 30, the Chinese ambassador sent another note to the British Foreign Office stating that the Chinese Government found it impossible to agree with the British contention that the proposed course of action was in accordance with the normal practice or compatible with Britain's treaty obligations toward China. As regards the British practice during the two previous years of surrendering Chinese to the so-called district court in Tientsin, the Chinese Government had been without official knowledge of this practice and certainly had never acquiesced in it. The question at issue was not whether the men were guilty or innocent but whether or not the British Government was justified or entitled to hand over Chinese nationals to a Japanese puppet court. The principle at issue was of very considerable importance, since the prosecutors of the four Chinese nationals were the Japanese who also controlled the puppet court to which it was proposed to hand the four men. The note urged that the four men should not be delivered up pending negotiations. The British rejoinder to the Chinese note of August 30, did not come till September 9, four days after the four men had been handed over to the puppet court in Tientsin. It contended that the British Government had no treaty obligation to transport Chinese offenders from one part of the country to another in order to hand them over to a Chinese court. As the four men could not be detained indefinitely in custody without trial, the British Government had no other course but to hand them over to the "local district court."

CHINESE STATEMENT ON ANGLO-JAPANESE FORMULA

On July 27, 1939, the spokesman of the Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs made the following statement:

"Chinese authorities have just learned the contents of the 'formula' * to which the British Government agreed 'in order to clear the way for the Tientsin discussions' and cannot conceal their disappointment at the attitude they have assumed at the present Tokyo conference.

"It is to be exceedingly regretted that the British Government should have seen fit to note the so-called special requirements of the Japanese forces in China, which are engaged, as Great Britain herself, along with other member states of the League of Nations, has declared, in the invasion of and aggression against this country. It is also surprising that the British Government should have undertaken to make it plain to British authorities and British nationals in China that they should refrain from any acts or measures prejudicial to the attainment of the objects of the Japanese invading forces.

"The Chinese Government, however, takes note with some satisfaction of the statement made by Premier Chamberlain in the House of Commons that it was impossible to change the British Government's policy at the dictation of any other Power and the assurance given by the Premier yesterday that the declaration the British Government had just made did not connote any change in their policy in China—a policy based on treaty and justice as well as Great Britain's own rights and interests, which she has heretofore so consistently adhered to and carried out. The British Government need scarcely to be reminded of the pledge they made under the various League resolutions to refrain from taking any action which might have the effect of weakening China's power of resistance and thus of increasing her difficulties in the present conflict, and also to make all measures of aid to China as effective as possible.

"The Chinese Government confidently believes that, despite the misgivings to which the announcement of the 'formula' has given rise, the British Government will take an attitude

consonant with their legal and moral obligations toward China in dealing with the so-called local issues at Tientsin and show by action the firmness of their policy concerning the situation created by Japanese aggression in this country."

THE ANGLO-JAPANESE TIENTSIN AGREEMENT AND THE CHINESE DECLARATION

As the result of conversations in Tokyo in July, 1939, in regard to questions concerning the British Concession in Tientsin, the British and Japanese Governments reached the following agreement:

(A) Maintenance of Law and Order within the British Municipal Area:

Detailed arrangements have been made for closer cooperation between the authorities of the British Concession and the local Japanese authorities for the suppression of all terrorist activities prejudicial to the maintenance of peace and order and to the security of the Japanese forces. In particular, arrangements have been made for Japanese gendarmes to offer information and to be present when action is taken by the British municipal council police against persons in whose criminal activities the Japanese authorities are interested.

Such action will include supervision of dealings in arms and explosive substances, supervision of publications, cinemas and political meetings and arrest and disposal of persons engaged in the activities mentioned in the preceding paragraphs.

Arrangements have also been made for the suppression of unauthorized wireless communications.

(B) Silver Coin and Bullion:

The silver coin and bullion now in the Bank of Communications shall remain in that bank under the joint seal of the British and Japanese consuls-general in that city.

Except as provided in paragraph 3 below, this silver shall remain under seal until such time as the governments of the United Kingdom and Japan shall agree upon other arrangements for its custody. The silver shall be sealed in the presence of the British and Japanese consuls-general in Tientsin.

*The text of the Craigie declaration, as released by the Tokyo Foreign Office and confirmed in the House of Commons by Prime Minister Chamberlain, on July 24, 1939, is as follows:

"His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom fully recognize the actual situation in China where hostilities on a large scale are in progress and note that, as long as that state of affairs continues to exist the Japanese forces in China have special requirements for the purpose of safeguarding their own security and maintaining public order in the regions under their control and that they have to suppress or remove any such acts or causes as will obstruct them or benefit their enemy.

"His Majesty's Government have no intention of countenancing any acts or measures prejudicial to the attainment of the above-mentioned objects by the Japanese forces and they will take this opportunity to confirm their policy in this respect by making it plain to the British authorities and the British nationals in China that they should refrain from such acts and measures."

Before the silver is thus placed under seal a quantity equivalent to the sum of £100,000 sterling shall be set on one side to provide a fund for the relief of famine conditions resulting directly from the floods in certain areas and the drought in other areas of North China. Such relief shall include the provision of certain machinery urgently required from abroad to drain the water from the flooded areas, thus diminishing the danger of epidemics.

The appropriate British authorities will be prepared to give all possible facilities to enable the silver thus set on one side to be allocated for relief purposes, to be sold, and to be used for the purchase of foodstuffs and other articles required for relief.

The British and Japanese consuls-general in Tientsin shall appoint experts who, under the supervision of the consuls-general, will assist them in the administration of this fund and will advise the existing relief committee in Peiping as to the distribution of the food and other articles required for relief purposes. In addition to British and Japanese experts, experts of Chinese and French nationality and one expert of another nationality shall be invited to assist in this work.

(C) Currency :

The British Municipal Council will place no difficulty in the way of the use of "Federated Reserve Bank" currency within the municipal area.

The British Municipal Council have decided to withdraw the licenses of all exchange shops not established prior to 1939. Licenses will not be issued to new shops unless they are vouched for by the native bankers' guild and have adequate capital. Licenses will be renewable monthly.

Any points of difficulty which may arise in connection with the application of the measures mentioned in the preceding paragraphs will be discussed locally between the British and Japanese consuls-general.

In regard to the Tientsin silver question, the following declaration was issued by the Chinese Government on June 21, 1940 :

"With regard to the silver now stored in the British Concession at Tientsin, the Chinese Government desires to place on record the point already repeatedly emphasized in the recent conversations between the Minister of Foreign Affairs and the British ambassador on the subject, to the effect that the silver in question is the property of the Bank of Communications and part of the reserve fund for *fapi* (legal tender notes).

"The Chinese Government further records its view that the British Government are acting as trustees for the interest of the Bank of

Communications and the Chinese Government in respect of the balance of the silver after a quantity equivalent to £100,000 sterling has been set aside by the Chinese Government for relief purposes in North China. Consequently the arrangement now made for sealing the silver does not alter its status in any respect."

CLOSING OF THE BURMA ROAD

The British Government officially announced on July 18, 1940, that an agreement had been reached with the Japanese Government whereby the Burma Road would be closed for three months to the transport to China of arms and ammunition, as well as petrol, lorries, and railway materials. The Chinese Government lodged a strong protest with the British Government. Meanwhile, the Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs made the following statement :

"Despite repeated representations made by the Chinese Government regarding transport through the Burma route, the British Government has yielded to Japanese pressure and accepted the unreasonable demands of Japan by consenting to suspend for a specified period of time the route in question for the transit of certain kinds of articles to China. The Chinese Government cannot but view with the gravest concern the decision taken by the British Government and must regard the action thus contemplated as at once unfriendly and unlawful.

"It goes without saying that the continued maintenance of transit through Burma is of especial importance to China's struggle against aggression. By complying with Japan's demands Britain has given immense benefit to the aggressor, and her action is thus tantamount to aiding and abetting China's enemy, a step which by no stretch of imagination could be considered reconcilable with the policy *vis-a-vis* China to which the British Government has repeatedly declared its intention to adhere.

"The Burma route is not only an important channel for China's communication with the outside world but also an artery of commerce in which many countries have a vital interest. The free use, therefore, of the Burma route should not be considered as merely a question concerning China and Burma, but should be viewed as an international issue involving especially those countries having large commercial interests in the Far East.

"As regards the legal aspects of the question, the position of the British Government is absolutely untenable.

"Japan is engaged in an undeclared war of aggression against China and therefore cannot properly make use of any of the belligerent rights recognized by international law. Nor

are third countries bound to assume the ordinary obligations of a neutral as the word is understood in its proper sense. Even if Japan acquired the full status of a belligerent, her rights would be limited to visiting and searching neutral vessels and capturing contraband on the high seas or in the territorial waters of the enemy, effectively blockading the enemy's seaports, and other actions sanctioned by well-established rules of warfare. Japan would have no right to demand of a neutral country the stoppage of the exportation or transit of any supplies destined in the ordinary course of commerce for the enemy. If a neutral country should accede to such a demand, it might be considered to have divested itself of the status of neutrality. And the unneutral character would be all the more glaring if the third country, while prohibiting the exportation or transit of certain supplies destined for one belligerent, should permit the free transport of supplies of the same or a similar kind to the other belligerent.

"In the light of these indisputable principles of international law, the decision of the British Government to suspend the use of the Burma route for the transport of certain kinds of goods to China is clearly unjustifiable and indefensible.

"The trade relations between China and Burma have rested and still rest on certain treaties concluded between China and Great Britain in the latter part of the nineteenth century. These treaties contain definite stipulations concerning the maintenance and development of trade routes between China and Burma, which neither party would have the right to close in time of peace or war.

"According to the resolutions adopted by the League of Nations in regard to the Sino-Japanese conflict, all member states are obliged to refrain from taking any action which might have the effect of weakening China's power of resistance and thus of increasing her difficulties in the present conflict and to consider how far they can individually extend aid to China. The closing of the Burma route is undoubtedly calculated, according to the Japanese plan, to weaken China's power of resistance and prevent the extension of aid to China by other Powers. In executing the war schemes of the Japanese, Great Britain has set at naught the undertakings to which she subscribed as one of the leading members of the League of Nations.

"Thus, by her decision to close the Burma route in compliance with Japan's demands, the British Government has acted contrary to the principles of international law, Sino-British treaties, and the resolutions of the League of Nations.

"No greater mistake would be committed than to suppose that with her sea routes of commerce interrupted, China would be compelled to sue for peace and accept whatever demands

might be dictated by Japan. Our long campaign of armed resistance has been an unprecedented struggle against heavy odds and under immense difficulties. Never for one moment have we been disheartened. Three years' bitter experience has taught us at least one thing: the harder we fight and the longer we endure, the nearer will be our goal and the better assured will be our victory. We will fight on whatever may befall us. We are confident we will win whether we are betrayed or not."

WITHDRAWAL OF BRITISH TROOPS

The British Government announced on August 9, 1940, its decision to withdraw all British forces in Shanghai and North China cities where they had been for over thirty years following the Protocol of 1901. Withdrawal began immediately after the announcement and the last batch of British forces left Shanghai on August 27.

TIENTSIN TELEPHONE ADMINISTRATION CASE

The Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs lodged a protest with the British, French and Italian embassies in China on October 4, 1940, on the illegal transfer of the Chinese telephone administration in Tientsin to the puppet regime in North China. The transfer, it was pointed out in the Chinese notes, had no validity and the Chinese Government reserved full rights in the case.

KOO PRESENTS CREDENTIALS

Dr. V. K. Wellington Koo, Chinese ambassador to the Court of St. James, presented his credentials to King George VI on July 10, 1941. Dr. Koo succeeded Dr. Quo Tai-chi, who was recalled.

BRITISH MILITARY MISSION

The appointment of Maj.-Gen. Lancelot Denny, then British military attache in China, as head of the British Military Mission in Chungking, was announced in London on December 17, 1941. He was killed in an airplane accident near Kunming on March 14, 1942, and was succeeded by Maj.-Gen. Bruce. At the beginning of 1943, Maj.-Gen. G. E. Grimsdale was appointed head of the British Military Mission.

SIR ARCHIBALD'S TRANSFER

On January 16, 1942, London announced the transfer of Sir Archibald Clark Kerr, British ambassador to China, to succeed Sir Stafford Cripps as British ambassador in Moscow. Sir Archibald left Chungking on February 4.

SIR HORACE PRESENTS CREDENTIALS

Sir Horace James Seymour, British ambassador to China succeeding Sir Archibald Clark Kerr, presented his credentials to Mr. Lin Sen,

Chairman of the National Government, on March 7, 1942.

PRESENTATION OF BRITISH GUNBOATS

The British Government officially handed over its Yangtze gunboats, H. M. S. "Falcon," H. M. S. "Gannet" and H. M. S. "Sandpiper," to the Chinese Government in a ceremony held in Chungking on March 17, 1942. The first two gunboats were in Chungking at the time of the presentation and were renamed "Ying Teh" and "Ying Shan," respectively, while the last one was in Cahnghsha. The three gunboats were subsequently incorporated into the Chinese fleet.

GENERALISSIMO RECEIVES G. C. B.

King George VI of England, through Sir Horace Seymour, British ambassador to China, conferred the highest British military honor G. C. B. (Grand Cross of the Bath) upon Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek in Chungking, on April 24, 1942, in recognition of his brilliant leadership, his glorious successes and his invaluable contribution to the United Nations.

The Generalissimo, who personally received the Cross, thanked the King for the honor and expressed his fervent hope that the bond between China and the British would be strengthened and that the final victory for the United Nations would not be far off.

CHINA'S RELATIONS WITH AUSTRALIA, BURMA, CANADA AND INDIA

AUSTRALIA

EXCHANGE OF DIPLOMATIC MISSIONS

The Chinese Government and the Australian Government decided to accredit diplomatic representatives to each other in May, 1941.

Sir Frederic William Eggleston, the first Australian minister to China, arrived in Chungking on October 20, 1941. He presented his credentials to Mr. Lin Sen, Chairman of the National Government, on October 28.

Mr. Hsu Mo, first Chinese minister to Australia, presented his credentials to Governor-General Lord Gowrie, on September 16, 1941.

BURMA

IMMIGRATION DISCUSSIONS

China sent a delegation to Burma to discuss Chinese immigration and related questions in mid-September, 1941, with T. K. Tseng, Resident Representative of the Executive Yuan in Burma and former Administrative Vice-Minister of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs as the chief delegate.

Cordial speeches were exchanged in Rangoon on September 19, between T. K. Tseng and Premier U. Saw at a ceremony marking the opening of negotiations.

BRITISH LOANS TO CHINA SINCE WAR BEGAN

1938	Export Trade Loan	£ 3,500,000
1939	Currency Stabilization Loan	5,000,000
1941	Currency Stabilization Loan	5,000,000
1941	Credit Loan	5,000,000
1942	Credit Loan	50,000,000
Total		£68,500,000

CHINESE SEAMEN'S AGREEMENT

An agreement providing for an improvement of terms and conditions for Chinese seamen employed on British ocean-going vessels was signed in London by Dr. Wellington Koo, Chinese ambassador, for the Chinese Government, and Lord Leathers, Minister of War Transport, for the British Government, according to a Reuter's dispatch dated September 25, 1942.

BRITISH PARLIAMENTARY MISSION

The British Parliamentary Mission, composed of four members—Lord Ailwyn and Lord Teviot of the House of Lords and Mr. H. J. Scrymgeour-Wedderburn and Mr. J. J. Lawson of the House of Commons, arrived in Chungking on November 10, 1942. The mission came upon the invitation of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek. It visited Chungking, Chengtu, Sian and Kunming before it left for India on December 11, 1942, en route back to England.

Mr. Tseng, whose speech was read in his absence owing to ill health, said that Britain, Burma and China were practically on the same democratic front. He referred to Mr. Churchill's latest speech as showing increasing realization that Japan's southward expansion program was a real menace. Present negotiations were another example of growing cooperation between Burma and China.

Premier U Saw emphasized in his speech that while there were proposals seeking to impose restrictions on new Chinese immigration into Burma, it was not the intention of the Burmese Government to impose unfair or humiliating conditions on Chinese immigrants. He added that his Government proposed to deal generously with Chinese nationals already in Burma.

The Premier acknowledged that benefit accrued to Burma in the past from Chinese immigration. Harmony between Burmans and Chinese must be retained at all costs, he added, and the best way of achieving it was by allaying the natural fears of the Burmese by imposing agreed restriction on Chinese immigration.

The discussions were adjourned *sine die* on September 23, in order to enable the two delegations to consult the Chungking and London governments.

DEMARCATON OF BOUNDARY

Notes were exchanged and signed between Foreign Minister Wang Chung-hui and British Ambassador Sir Archibald Kerr Clark Kerr on June 18, 1941, regarding the delimitation of the frontier between Burma and China.

Notes Exchanged
Waichiaopu, Chungking
June 18, 1941

Sir,

I have the honor to refer to the Notes exchanged between Your Excellency's predecessor and the then Minister of Foreign Affairs on 9th April, 1935, defining the terms of reference of a Boundary Commission to be charged with the investigation of the undemarcated southern section of the Yunnan-Burma frontier; and to the additional understanding embodied in further Notes exchanged upon the same day.

The Joint Boundary Commission having been duly established and having submitted its report to our respective governments in accordance with its terms of reference, the question of modifications of the general treaty line found by the Commission has since been under negotiations between the National Government of the Republic of China on the one hand and His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Government of Burma (as the successor in interest of the Government of India) on the other, as provided in the additional understanding of the 9th April, 1935.

I now have the honor to inform Your Excellency that the National Government of the Republic of China agrees that for the boundary line described in paragraphs 3 and 4 of Article 3 of the Agreement between China and Great Britain, signed at Peking on the 4th February, 1897, shall be substituted the following:

"The line commences at the confluence of the Nam Hpa (Nam P'a Ho) with the Nam Ting (Nam Tin Ho), where Boundary Pillar No. 97 of the northern demarcated section is erected, and ascends the Nam Ting for a distance of about three miles to a point in the neighborhood of the village of Pang Kwi where Cairn No. 1 was erected by the Sino-British Commission 1899-1900 on the left bank of the Nam Ting at the point where a spur strikes the river. The frontier then follows this spur generally in a southerly direction to Cairn No. 2, where the road from Hopang to Mengting crosses the spur, and thence to Cairn No. 3 on the summit of the hill known as Loi Hseng (1366). It then follows the watershed between the basin of the Nam Tap including the Ham Loi Hsa (which, also known as the Kung Meng Ho, is a tributary of the Nam Tap, joining it through or under a natural bridge) and the basins of the Namhka and the Nam Kun (Hei Ho) to hill 2360 approximately longitude $98^{\circ} 57' 14''$ and latitude 23°

$21' 40''$). Thence it descends the nearest tributary of the Nam Pan stream (Chin Ho) which has its source about half a mile west of hill 2303 and follows the Nam Pan stream to its confluence with the Nam Kunlong (approximately longitude $99^{\circ} 0' 30''$ and latitude $23^{\circ} 14' 48''$). It then descends the Nam Kunlong to the point where that river is joined by a tributary on its left bank at approximately longitude $98^{\circ} 59' 50''$ and latitude $23^{\circ} 13' 20''$; the line then ascends that tributary to its source and continues south-eastwards on to a ridge along which it proceeds to hill 1970 (approximately longitude $99^{\circ} 3' 58''$ and latitude $23^{\circ} 10' 42''$); thence it proceeds southwards along the same ridge to hill 1770 (approximately longitude $99^{\circ} 3' 27''$ and latitude $23^{\circ} 7' 25''$). The line then proceeds generally eastwards along the watershed between the basins of the Nam Kunlong and the Nam Htung till it strikes the point on the Salween-Mekong watershed (approximately longitude $99^{\circ} 10'$ and latitude $23^{\circ} 6' 23''$) about a mile south of hill 2179. Thence it follows the Salween-Mekong watershed first generally in an easterly direction to a point just south of hill 2178 and then generally in a southerly direction over hill 2146 to hill 1930 (approximately longitude $99^{\circ} 34'$ and latitude $22^{\circ} 56'$). Thence it proceeds first in a southwesterly, then westerly and finally north-westerly direction along the watershed between the basin of the Nam Ma and the basins of the Nam Hka Lam (Ku Hsing Ho) and the Nam Hka Hkao (Han Hsiang Ho) to hill 1523 (approximately longitude $99^{\circ} 26' 43''$ and latitude $22^{\circ} 56' 43''$); thence it descends the nearest tributary of the Nam Hka Hkao and follows that river down to approximately latitude $22^{\circ} 50' 52''$, where it is joined by a tributary on its right bank. The line then ascends this tributary in a westerly and southwesterly direction to its source and crosses the ridge, of which hill 2180 (approximately longitude $99^{\circ} 24' 38''$ and latitude $22^{\circ} 48' 37''$) is the highest point, by the most direct route to the source of the nearest tributary of the Nam Sak and follows that stream down to its confluence with the Nam Hse (approximately longitude $99^{\circ} 18' 42''$ and latitude $22^{\circ} 44' 18''$); thence it descends the Nam Hse to its confluence with the Nam Hka (approximately longitude $99^{\circ} 23' 20''$ and latitude $22^{\circ} 35' 10''$) and thence it follows the Nam Hka river downstream to Boundary Pillar No. 1 of the southern demarcated section."

A copy of the Boundary Commission map with the line marked in red is appended.

I have the honor to request that Your Excellency will confirm that His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Government of Burma agree that the boundary line described above shall be substituted for the line described in paragraphs 3 and 4 of Article 3 of the Agreement between China and Great Britain signed at Peking on the 4th February, 1897.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

(Signed) Wang Chung-hui

His Excellency
Sir Archibald Clark Kerr,
K. C. M. G.,
His Britannic Majesty's Ambassador,
Chungking.

British Embassy,
Chungking, June 18, 1941.

Sir,

I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's Note of today's date which reads as follows:

(Here Dr. Wang Chung-hui's note is quoted in full.)

In reply I have the honor to confirm that His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland on their own behalf and on behalf of the Government of Burma agree that the boundary line, as quoted above, shall be substituted for the line described in paragraphs 3 and 4 of Article 3 of the Agreement between China and Great Britain, signed at Peking on the 4th February, 1897

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

(Signed) Archibald Clark Kerr,

His Excellency,
Dr. Wang Chung-hui,
Minister of Foreign Affairs,
Chungking.

British Embassy,
Chungking, June 18, 1941.

Sir,

With reference to the Notes exchanged between us today regarding the determination of the southern section of the boundary between Burma and Yunnan, I am authorized by the Government of Burma to inform Your Excellency's Government that the Government of Burma is willing as a gesture of goodwill to undertake to permit Chinese participation in any mining enterprises which may be undertaken by British concerns on the eastern slopes of the Lufang ridge provided that Chinese interests in these enterprises do not exceed 49 per cent of the total of the capital of each enterprise.

The area in question is shown enclosed by a red line on the attached map and its boundaries are as follows:

A line commencing at the summit of hill 2304 running along the ridge to the hill of Lufang Camp (3025), thence along the ridge to Nan Hsiang village, thence in a southeasterly direction down the ridge to join the Nam It stream, thence following the course of the Nam It upstream to its source below the peak of hill 2304, thence to the summit of hill 2304.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

(Signed) Archibald Clark Kerr,

His Excellency,
Dr. Wang Chung-hui,
Minister of Foreign Affairs,
Chungking.

Waichiaopu,
Chungking, June 18, 1941.

Sir,

I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's Note of today's date which reads as follows:

With reference to the Notes exchanged between us today regarding the determination of the southern section of the boundary between Burma and Yunnan, I am authorized by the Government of Burma to inform Your Excellency's Government that the Government of Burma is willing as a gesture of goodwill to undertake to permit Chinese participation in any mining enterprises which may be undertaken by British concerns on the eastern slopes of the Lufang ridge provided that Chinese interests in these enterprises do not exceed 49 per cent of the total of the capital of each enterprise.

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I have the honor to request that you will convey to the Government of Burma the National Government's appreciation of this gesture of goodwill.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

(Signed) Wang Chung-hui.

His Excellency
Sir Archibald Clark Kerr, K.C.M.G.,
His Britannic Majesty's Ambassador,
Chungking.

It may be recalled that the boundary in question had remained undemarcated ever since the conclusion in 1897 of the Sino-British Treaty relating to Burma. In the latter part of 1933 the Lufang incident occurred and a Burmese party was believed to have been despatched there to explore the mines. Thereupon the Waichiaopu proposed the setting up of a Joint Boundary Commission to make investigations on the spot with a view to the definitive settlement of the boundary question, which proposal was eventually accepted by the British Government.

The Joint Boundary Commission, provided for under the exchange of Notes of April 9, 1935, met at Maklawt on December 1, 1935. It consisted of five Commissioners, a neutral Chairman, Colonel F. Iselin (of the Swiss Artillery), Messrs. J. Ciangue (then Secretary of the Burmese Government) and F. S. Grose (then Superintendent of the Shan States), with Mr. W. Stark Toller (then British Consul at Tengyueh) as Adviser. Chinese Commissioners were Messrs. Yew-koh Leong and Yin Ming-teh.

The Commission made two trips to the border regions in the winters of 1935-36 and 1936-37, completing their task in April, 1937. A report was afterwards submitted by the Commission to the respective Governments. During the subsequent years negotiations were carried on between the Waichiaopu and the British Embassy in an amicable and conciliatory spirit, leading to the exchange of notes on June 18, 1941.

According to this agreement, the areas of Panghung, Yungkwang, Monghsaw and Hsineng, together with the circles of Mongka, Kwan Long, Kwan Yong and Man Myen, which have been consistently claimed by China, are ceded to her with a total area of approximately 2,000 square kilometers. On the other hand the Chinese Government made certain concessions enabling Burma to administer some of the territory claimed by the British Government.

As for Lufang, it lies outside of the line defined by the Sino-British treaties as well as the so-called Liu-chen line, and, according to the neutral Chairman's decision, should be within British territorial limits. But in view of the fact that the area had had intimate historical ties with China and that it was one of the factors which contributed to the Chinese proposal to redemarcate the boundary, the Chinese Government suggested a scheme of joint Sino-British participation in the mining enterprises at Lufang.

The following statement published by the Press Attache's Office of the British Embassy on June 18 gives further background information:

"In 1885 Great Britain annexed Upper Burma and by Article 3 of the Convention relating to Burma and Tibet entered into between Great Britain and China in the following year it was agreed that the frontier between Burma and China should be marked by a Delimitation Commission.

"Negotiations on the question of delimitation were opened in 1892 and resulted in a Convention signed on March 1, 1894, defining the frontier. A subsequent agreement between Great Britain and China in 1897 made certain modifications in this paper frontier and also provided for its demarcation. But when it came to delimiting the frontier on the ground considerable difficulty was experienced owing to the inexactness of the terms used in the Con-

vention, and though three separate Boundary Commissions took the field in the open seasons of 1897-8, 1898-9 and 1899-1900, no agreement was reached regarding the portion of the frontier (about 200 miles) between the rivers Nam Ting and Nam Hka.

"The matter was then allowed to remain in abeyance for over 30 years until in 1934 it again became a live issue owing to a difference of opinion regarding the right to investigate certain mineral deposits believed to exist in the disputed area. Accordingly it was agreed that a further attempt should be made to delimit the frontier, and by an exchange of notes signed in Nanking on April 9, 1935, the Chinese Government, His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom and the Government of India agreed to the establishment of a further Boundary Commission under the Chairmanship of a Neutral Commissioner to be appointed by the President of the Council of the League of Nations. The latter duly nominated a Swiss officer, Col. F. Iselin, and the Commission, after two seasons in the field (1935-6 and 1936-7) submitted its report and recommendations to the governments concerned.

"The Commission having ascertained the 'Treaty Line' on the ground, the next step was for the governments concerned to discuss whether any modification was necessary in the light of the Commission's report or of "such topographical, historical or political factors" as might appear relevant. Negotiations were on foot to convene a conference at Nanking for this purpose when hostilities broke out in the summer of 1937 and the matter was again shelved.

"When, however, the Chinese Government decided to press on with the construction of the Burma-Yunnan Railway, the question of the frontier again became acute, since the easiest alignment would take the railway across the area in dispute. In these circumstances, aided by the more friendly atmosphere prevailing between China and Great Britain, a solution was quickly found, and this solution is embodied in the notes which are now being exchanged. It will be seen that the first exchange of notes, which defines in detail the line which is in future to be the frontier between Yunnan and Burma, is supplemented by a second exchange of notes defining the boundaries of an area on the Burma side of the frontier in which the Government of Burma agrees to permit Chinese participation in any mining enterprises which may be undertaken by British concerns."

CANADA

EXCHANGE OF DIPLOMATIC MISSIONS

China and Canada agreed to exchange diplomatic missions in August, 1941. In his note to Foreign Minister, Dr. Quo Tai-chi, Sir Archibald Clark Kerr, British Ambassador,

expressed the hope and belief that the establishment of the Canadian Legation "will promote the maintenance and development of cordial relations not only between China and Canada, but also between China and the whole of the British Commonwealth of Nations." Dr. Quo stated in his reply that the Chinese Government shares the sentiments expressed in the Ambassador's note.

Mr. Liu Shih-shun, the first Chinese Minister to Ottawa, arrived in Canada in February, 1942. In November, 1942, the Canadian Government appointed Maj.-Gen. Victor Wentworth Odium as the first Canadian Minister to China. The latter arrived in Chungking on April 30, 1943.

INDIA NEHRU'S TRIP TO CHINA

That China and India should cooperate for their own good as well as the good of the world was emphasized by Mr. Jawaharlal Nehru, former president of the All-India National Congress in a radio broadcast in Chungking on August 30, 1939.

Mr. Nehru arrived in Chungking on August 23. Among the Chinese leaders he met were Generalissimo and Madame Chiang Kai-shek, to whom he paid a high tribute for their great leadership.

He said in his radio broadcast:

I came to Chungking, the wartime capital of China, a few days ago from India. I flew from Allahabad and passing Calcutta, Akyab, Bangkok, Saigon and Hanoi, within two days I stood on Chinese soil. A dream I had cherished for long years past was realized, and a strange excitement filled me as I look at this mighty land and the great people who inhabit it. I saw myself as one of the long succession of pilgrims who had traveled to and fro between India and China from dim ages past and who had forged so many golden links of faith and art and culture and civilization between them. Perhaps, I thought, even I, small as I am, a soldier in India's cause, might be an agent of historic destiny. Perhaps this visit of mine might tighten the old bonds and bring India and China nearer to one another, so that they might look into each other's eyes again, and the old memories revive and warm their hearts, and they should pledge their comradeship in the great tasks of today and tomorrow.

I had come when danger and peril confronted the people of China and when brutal aggression had despoiled their fair land. I brought them messages of greeting and solidarity from the President of the Indian National Congress, from our great leader Mahatma Gandhi and from our poet and seer Rabindranath Tagore. I brought them also the echo of the voices of vast numbers of my countrymen who had testified at innumerable gatherings during the past two

years to their comradeship with the people of China. It was a worthy gift, worthy even of China, that I brought.

And I found a noble welcome for that gift, and goodwill beyond measure for India and her people, and our earnest desire that we should hold together for the sake of the freedom of our dearly-loved countries, for Asia, and for the world.

Out of terrible misfortune and unparalleled disaster has arisen a New China, vital and vibrant, displaying the face of her deep-rooted and magnificent culture of old, and yet with a new gaze and a new hope for the future. Who can crush this spirit or stop China from treading the path of her destiny? What aggression, howsoever brutal or inhuman, can succeed over a people, with the strength of ages in them, who, calm of purpose, are determined to resist it to the uttermost?

It is exceedingly sad that a great people like the Japanese, whose many fine qualities we so admired in the past, should have indulged in brutal aggression and barbarous destruction in China. China has suffered terribly, but the loss to Japan is infinitely greater for she has trafficked with her soul and with the vital principles which humanity holds dear. What shall it profit a people if they lose their soul and crush their spirit for the sake of a seeming advantage? We have had no ill-will against Japan, we harbor no ill-will even today against her people. But the policy which Japan has pursued in China is a policy which we detest. For long years past we have struggled for our own freedom and we have become convinced that there can be no true freedom till imperialism and its name-sakes are rooted out of the world. We consider imperialism, and fascism and the aggression that goes to further them, as evils which must be resisted, whosoever might indulge in them. Imperialism does not become less evil because an Asiatic power indulges in it. The days of imperialism and aggression are numbered in the world, for the world is sick of both. I earnestly trust that the people of Japan will remove this blot on their fair name and side, as they should, with peace, freedom and democracy.

The world rattles back to barbarism and brutal violence and the law of the jungle govern its activities more and more. In the name of realism and power politics all decency and principles are cast to the winds. In this age, more than any other, the ideals and principles which India and China have treasured for so long have to be emphasized and acted upon. Our realism has never been divorced from principles and moral standards; I hope it never will be. China and India have a mission and a message for the world, and they can no longer shirk their responsibility. In this great task they have to cooperate together for their own good as well as the good of the world.

The world is all awry and it is inevitable that the future will see a refashioning of nations. But let it be remembered that no such refashioning will have any value unless it postulates the cooperation of a free China and a free India.

When the time comes for me to return, I shall go back from China with regret. But I shall carry with me the inspiration of seeing a great task nobly performed, of vast difficulties overcome, of disasters faced with calm courage, of an old nation abundantly justifying the culture that has made her great, of a new China being born, looking with confident eyes on the future, of conflicts resolved in a common unity to face a common peril, of ultimate triumph assured. I shall carry back with me admiration for the great man and the great leader, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, helmsman of China's boat of destiny, symbol of her unity and of her unconquerable determination to resist aggression and to free herself. And may I pay my homage to the gracious lady, who shares his great tasks and his triumphs, and who is leading and inspiring China's womanhood to stand shoulder to shoulder with their menfolk in resistance to all attacks on China's freedom and in building up the nation of tomorrow.

China and India are the two ancients among the nations of the world, but they are young today and vital. They have been countries of yesterday, but the future beckons to them, and tomorrow is theirs.

Men and women of China, comrades in a great enterprise, I take leave of you, but remember that our hearts are with you and our hands are ever outstretched to you in friendship and comradeship. May our cooperation endure and lead not only to the freedom of our two great countries, but to peace and freedom all over this warring and unhappy world.

GENERALISSIMO'S VISIT TO INDIA

Generalissimo and Madame Chiang Kai-shek, accompanied by a party of staff officers, arrived in Calcutta on February 4, 1942. On February 9, they arrived in New Delhi as guests of the Viceroy of India.

On March 5, the following official communique was released in Chungking:

Generalissimo and Madame Chiang Kai-shek returned to Chungking at noon today from a trip to Burma and India.

They spent a fortnight in India where they visited Calcutta and New Delhi and met the Marquess of Linlithgow, Viceroy of India, and Lady Linlithgow, Messrs. Gandhi and Nehru, Mrs. Ranjit Pandit, and Mrs. Sarojini Naidu, the poetess, and other leaders of the National Congress, Mr. Jinnah, leader of the Moslem League, native princes and leaders in other walks of life.

From New Delhi the Generalissimo took a flying trip to the Northwest Frontier where he visited the famous Khyber Pass and inspected the local garrisons. Later, they together visited the International College established by India's great poet Rabindranath Tagore at Santiniketan.

During the sojourn, satisfactory decisions were reached on plans for the coordination of war efforts between China and India and for the transportation of Chinese war materials through new roads from India.

While the Generalissimo was busy discussing military and political problems, Madame Chiang was active lining up Indian women leaders against aggression.

Toward the end of February the party returned to Kunming. But on March 3, the Generalissimo flew back to Lashio where he met Gen. Sir Archibald Wavell who came specially from the Netherlands East Indies to discuss military problems with the Commander-in-Chief of the China theater. Sir Reginald Hugh Dorman-Smith, Governor of Burma, also, came from Rangoon to call on the Generalissimo and exchange views on civil issues.

During his stay in the border town, the Generalissimo presided over a military conference attended by commanders of the Chinese expeditionary forces in Burma. The Generalissimo flew back to Kunming on March 4.

GENERALISSIMO'S FAREWELL MESSAGE TO THE INDIAN PEOPLE ON FEBRUARY 22, 1942

During my two weeks' stay in India, I have had the opportunity of discussing very frankly with the highest civil and military authorities as well as with my Indian friends the questions concerning joint plans against aggression and the objective of our common efforts. I am happy to find that there was full sympathy and general understanding between us. My mission is now drawing to a close. On the eve of my departure I wish to bid farewell to all my friends in India and to thank you for the many kindnesses showered upon Madame Chiang and myself. The briefness of my stay has not permitted me to tell the Indian people all that I wished to say. I avail myself of this opportunity to address to them the following farewell message. It is the expression of my high and warm regard and long-cherished hopes for India. It comes from the depth of my heart.

Since my arrival in this country I have found to my great satisfaction that there exists among the people of India unanimous determination to oppose aggression.

China and India comprise one half of the world's population. Their common frontier extends to three thousand kilometers. In the two thousand years' history of their intercourse, which has been of a purely cultural and

commercial character, there has never been an armed conflict. Indeed, nowhere else can one find so long a period of uninterrupted peace between two neighboring countries. This is irrefutable proof that our two peoples are peace-loving by nature. Today they have not only identical interests but also the same destiny. For this reason they are in duty bound to side with the anti-aggression countries and fight shoulder to shoulder in order to secure real peace for the whole world.

Moreover, our two peoples have an outstanding virtue in common, namely, the noble spirit of self-sacrifice for the sake of justice and righteousness. It is this traditional spirit which should move them to self-negation for the salvation of mankind. It is also this spirit which has prompted China to be the first to take up arms against aggression and in the present war to ally herself unhesitatingly with the anti-aggression countries not merely for the purpose of securing her own freedom, but also for the purpose of securing justice and freedom for all mankind.

I venture to suggest to my brethren, the people of India, that at this most critical moment in the history of civilization our two peoples should exert themselves to the utmost in the cause of freedom for all mankind, for only in a free world could the Chinese and Indian peoples obtain their freedom. Furthermore, should freedom be denied to either China or India, there could be no real peace in the world.

The present international situation divides the world into two camps, the aggression camp and the anti-aggression camp. All those who are opposed to aggression and are striving for the freedom of their own country and others should join the anti-aggression camp. There is no middle course and there is no time to wait for developments. Now is the crucial moment for the whole future of mankind. The issue before us does not concern the dispute of any one man or country, nor does it concern any specific questions pending between one people and another. Any people therefore which joins the anti-aggression front may be said to co-operate, not with any particular country, but with the entire front. This leads us to believe that the Pacific War is a turning point in the history of nationalism. The method, however, by which the peoples of the world could attain their freedom might be different from what it used to be. The anti-aggression nations now expect that in this new era people of India will voluntarily bear their full share of responsibility in the present struggle for the survival of a free world in which India must play a part. A vast majority of the world's opinion is in full sympathy with India's aspiration for freedom. This sympathy, which is so valuable and so difficult to obtain, cannot be appraised in terms of money or material, and should therefore by all means be retained.

The present struggle is one between freedom and slavery, between light and darkness, between good and evil, between resistance and aggression. Should the anti-aggression front lose the war, the civilization of the world would suffer a setback for at least one hundred years and there would be no end to human sufferings.

So far as Asia is concerned, the cruelties committed by Japanese militarists are beyond description. The sufferings and oppression which have been the fate of Formosans and Koreans since the subjugation by Japan should serve as a warning. As regards the barbarities committed by the Japanese army since our war of resistance, the fall of Nanking in December, 1937, is a case in point. Over 200,000 civilians were massacred within one week. For the last five years the civilian population in Free China have been subjected, almost daily, to bombing from the air and bombardment by heavy artillery. In every place invaded by the Japanese troops, men, women, and children were either assaulted or killed. Young men and educated people receive their special attention with the result that men of intelligence and ideas have been tortured. Nor is this all. Institutions of culture, objects of historical interest and value, and even articles necessary for livelihood, such as cooking utensils, ploughs, tools and domestic animals have been either forcibly taken away or destroyed. In places under Japanese military occupation, rape, rapine, incendiarism and murder are of frequent occurrence. Moreover, they have with official connivance everywhere opened opium dens, gambling houses and houses of ill fame in order to sap the vitality of the people and destroy their spirit. Such is the disgraceful conduct of the Japanese, the like of which is not to be found in countries invaded by the other aggressor nations. What I have just said is but an inadequate description of the true state of affairs as reported by Chinese and foreign eye-witnesses.

In these horrible times of savagery and brute force the people of China and their brethren, the people of India, should, for the sake of civilization and human freedom, give their united support to the principles embodied in the Atlantic Charter and in the joint-declaration of twenty-six nations and ally themselves with the anti-aggression front. I hope they will wholeheartedly join the Allies, namely, China, Great Britain, America and the Soviet Union, and participate shoulder to shoulder in the struggle for the survival of a free world until complete victory is achieved and the duties incumbent upon them in these troubled times have been fully discharged.

Lastly, I sincerely hope that I confidently believe that our ally, Great Britain, without waiting for any demands on the part of the people of India, will as speedily as possible give them real political power so that they may be

in a position further to develop their spiritual and material strength and thus realize that their participation in the war is not merely an aid to the anti-aggression nations for securing victory, but also a turning point in their struggle for India's freedom. From an objective point of view, I am of the opinion that this would be the wisest policy which will redound to the credit of the British Empire.

CHINA'S RELATIONS WITH FRANCE*

CLOSING OF THE INDO-CHINA ROUTE

In June, 1940, following the collapse of France in Europe, the French Indo-China Government yielded to the Japanese pressure by agreeing to close the Indo-China route to the transport of war materials to China. On June 23, Dr. Wang Chung-hui, Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs, made the following statement:

"Owing to their geographical proximity, China and French Indo-China have long had relationships of an intimate nature. For many years their commercial and economic needs have been complementary to each other. Today as a channel of international trade, Indo-China is of vital importance not only to the commerce between China and foreign countries but also to the security of this country.

"China and France have concluded several agreements concerning this region, the most recent of which is 'La Convention Reglant les Rapports entre la Chine et la France relativement a l'Indo-Chine Francaise et aux Provinces Chinoises Limitrophes,' signed on May 16, 1930. Under this convention, France agrees to the transportation through Indo-China of all kinds of merchandise, including arms and ammunition. In view of the above-mentioned commitment on the part of the French Government, the Chinese Government has the right to request France to live up to her obligations and to keep the Indo-China route open for international trade. However, during the past year or so the Chinese Government has not made use of this route for the transit of arms and ammunition out of consideration for any possible difficulty in which a friendly nation might become involved.

"Unfortunately, the militarist government of Japan, taking full advantage of the international situation in Europe, has openly or otherwise coerced the French Government to close the Indo-China route to international trade. The Chinese Government considers it most regrettable that the Japanese demands have not been categorically rejected, for the object of these demands is to compel France to blockade a country with which she is at peace and on friendly terms. Such a blockade cannot be justified from the standpoint of the Sino-French convention or of international law.

*On August 1, 1943, China severed her diplomatic relations with the Vichy Government.

EXCHANGE OF REPRESENTATIVES

Sir Zafrulla Khan, the first Agent-General for India, arrived in Chungking on May 27, 1942. He presented his letter of introduction from the Viceroy of India to Mr. Lin Sen, Chairman of the National Government, on June 8. He returned to India on October 3.

On March 31, 1942, the Chinese Government announced the appointment of Shen Shih-hua as High Commissioner to India.

"The failure of the French Government to take a strong stand against the Japanese demands can only encourage further disturbance of the peace in the Far East on the part of the Japanese militarists. This the Chinese Government cannot but view with the gravest concern. The Chinese Government is fully convinced that any military movement of the Japanese in furtherance of their plan of aggression on any part of Asia or the Pacific will be carried out with the view of utilizing their aggressive gains for attaining their principal object of conquering China. It is obvious that should Japan invade Indo-China, her goal would not be limited to the seizure of the French colony, but also to make use of Indo-China as a base for attacking China. Therefore, in case of an armed Japanese invasion of Indo-China, the Chinese Government in order to preserve China's existence and independence will be constrained to take such measures in self-defense as may be deemed necessary to cope with the situation in pursuance of its fixed policy of resistance against aggression."

DR. WANG'S STATEMENT VIS-A-VIS INDO-CHINA

Dr. Wang Chung-hui, Minister of Foreign Affairs, issued the following statement on August 28, 1940:

In resisting Japanese aggression it has never been the intention of China to cause any troops to enter any foreign country provided Japanese forces do not in any way make use of its territory against China. The Chinese troops now stationed near Indo-China will therefore remain on Chinese territory and will not be ordered to march across the border as long as Japanese troops do not appear in Indo-China.

It has now, however, been learned that Japan is planning to land troops in Indo-China and take other kinds of military action in the French Colony with a view to attacking Chinese territory. The Chinese Government wishes to declare emphatically that in the event of actual entry of Japanese armed forces in Indo-China, under whatever pretext and under whatever conditions, the Chinese Government will consider it a direct and immediate menace to the security of China's territory, and will at once adopt measures of self-defense by despatching likewise armed forces

to Indo-China to deal with the situation. The Chinese Government will be thus absolved from any responsibility for any consequences resulting from the adoption of such necessary measures. On the other hand, should the French authorities permit or tolerate any Japanese activities in Indo-China, the French Government could not evade responsibility for all the consequences, including any loss or damage that might be caused to the life and property of Chinese residents in Indo-China.

DESTRUCTION OF RAILWAY BRIDGE

The spokesman of the Foreign Office made the following statement on September 19, 1940, regarding the destruction by order of the Chinese authorities of the Hokeou Bridge of the Indo-China-Yunnan Railway and Chinese assumption of control over the Hokeou-Kunming section of the railway:

"In view of the Japanese demand upon Indo-China for the right to make use of its territory as a base of operations for moving troops into China, the Chinese Government cannot but take such measures as it may deem necessary to deal with the situation. The destruction of the Hokeou Bridge is nothing but a measure of self-defence.

"The Hokeou-Kunming section of the railway lies completely within Chinese territory. It follows therefore that in case of emergency the Chinese Government is entitled to assume control over this section of the railway.

"Furthermore, the assumption of such authority by the Chinese Government is based upon the Sino-French railway agreement of 1903, Article 24 of which provides that if China is engaged in war with a foreign country this railway shall not observe the rules of neutrality but shall be placed at the entire disposal of China.

"At present the Military Headquarters in the railway region are given the authority to control the operation of the Hokeou-Kunming section of the railway but, so far, there has not been any change of railway personnel from the Traffic Manager downward."

FRANCO-JAPANESE AGREEMENT

Following the signing of the Franco-Japanese agreement at Hanoi on September 22, 1940, the Foreign Office lodged a most vigorous protest with the French authorities.

The protest, after reasserting China's right to take such measures of self-defence as may be deemed necessary, declares that the French Government will be held responsible for all losses and consequences which may arise therefrom.

SURRENDER OF FRENCH TOWN COURTS

On November 7, 1940, an agreement was signed between the Japanese and French autho-

rities in Shanghai whereby the Chinese courts in the French Concession were to be taken over by the "Nanking Government." The Chinese Government, in a strong protest with the French Government, charged the latter of having violated the Court Agreement signed on July 28, 1931. Meanwhile, it ordered the Second Shanghai Special District Court and the Third Branch of the Kiangsu Higher Court in the French Concession to suspend temporarily their activities.

The spokesman of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs issued the following statement on November 8, 1940:

"The French Embassy informed this Ministry that the Municipal authorities of the French Concession in Shanghai had entered into an agreement with the Nanking puppet regime on November 7, permitting the latter to take over the Chinese Courts in the Concession, and that these courts had been handed over this morning.

"The Chinese Government has repeatedly made it clear to the French authorities that the seizure by the Japanese and their puppets of the Chinese Courts in the French Concession would not only endanger the life and property of the Chinese residents under their jurisdiction but jeopardize all foreign rights and interests as well. More than once the French authorities have been asked to reject the demands of the Japanese and their puppets, and the attention of the French authorities has been called to their grave responsibility in this matter. Unfortunately they have now yielded to Japanese pressure, and in total disregard of the Agreement of July 28, 1931, relating to the establishment of the Chinese Courts in the French Concession at Shanghai, has handed over the said Courts to the Japanese and their puppets. Against this unjustified action on the part of the French authorities this Ministry has lodged a vigorous protest with the French Embassy.

"In the circumstances described above, the Chinese Government has been constrained to order the Third Branch of the Kiangsu High Court and the Second Shanghai Special District Court to suspend the exercise of their functions in the French Concession. Hereafter any organs that may style themselves as Chinese Courts in the French Concession will be regarded as illegal, and all decisions and any other acts of such organs shall have no validity. The French Government should be held fully responsible for all the consequences for its action in this matter."

FRENCH CAPITULATION IN INDO-CHINA

Dr. Quo Tai-chi, Minister of Foreign Affairs, issued the following statement on July 28, 1941 following the French capitulation in Indo-China:

"The Japanese Government has once again obtained by coercion from the French Government new military, naval and air bases in southern

Indo-China. This fresh move marks an extension of Japan's movement of conquest in that country and a further step in her southward drive. Henceforth the entire area of Indo-China cannot but be regarded as virtually under the military occupation of Japan.

"This development not only constitutes an increasing menace to China's southwestern border provinces but puts in jeopardy the rights, interests and possessions in West Pacific of all other Powers. For this reason the matter is of as much concern to these Powers as it is to China.

"The Chinese Government will for its part, continue resolutely to pursue its fixed policy of resistance to aggression and do what lies in its power to prevent Japan's adventure from becoming a success. And it is the firm belief of the Chinese Government and people that the other interested Powers will not allow unchecked this Japanese attempt to spread aggression until it may be too late or costly to stop it."

VIOLATION OF CHINESE BORDER

It was announced on August 28, 1941 that the Foreign Office had lodged a strong protest with the French Embassy against the violation of China's border by the French troops from Indo-China, demanding an immediate withdrawal of such troops, guarantee against similar incident in the future as well as the right to claim indemnity for the losses sustained.

The aforementioned French troops, numbering more than 100, attacked Shangyi, in the vicinity of Tungchung within the Kwangtung border, on August 4, when a large number of Chinese peasants were killed and wounded and numerous farm houses destroyed. The French also destroyed the road linking Shangyi and Lingsze, while strengthening their occupation force at Shangyi, thus showing signs of further attempt on Tungchung.

ENEMY OCCUPATION OF KWANGCHOW-WAN

Following the announcement made by the Japanese military authorities that Japanese armed forces entered Kwangchow-wan, French Leased Territory, on February 22, 1943, after having reached a complete understanding with the French authorities, the Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs on February 24, handed a note to the Charge d'Affaires of the French Embassy in Chungking regarding this issue.

The note calls the attention of the French authorities to the fact that Kwangchow-wan is an integral part of China as Article I of the Sino-French Treaty of November 16, 1899, expressly provides that China's sovereignty over the Leased Territory shall not be affected by the lease.

The note also notifies the French authorities that the Chinese Government reserves its freedom of action to adopt such measures as it may deem necessary and proper in order to protect its territorial sovereignty and its rights to claim compensation from the French Government for damages.

The text of the note is as follows:

Ministry of Foreign Affairs,
Chungking,
February 24, 1943.

Monsieur le Charge d'Affaires:

I have the honor to draw your attention to the fact that it has come to the knowledge of the Chinese Government that the Japanese armed forces occupied the Leased Territory of Kwangchow-wan on February 17, 1943. According to an announcement issued by the Japanese military headquarters on February 22, 1943, the Japanese armed forces entered the said Territory on the same day after having reached a complete understanding with the French authorities.

Kwangchow-wan is an integral part of the Republic of China. Article 1 of the Treaty of November 16, 1899, expressly provides that China's sovereignty over the Leased Territory shall not be affected by the lease. Accordingly, the French Government has not the right to permit on its own part, without the consent of the Chinese Government, the occupation or use of the said Territory by a third country, much less by a country with which China is at war.

Irrespective of whether or not the occupation of the said Territory was effected by previous agreement or understanding between the French authorities and the Japanese authorities, it is a fact that, when the said Territory was occupied by the armed forces of the Japanese Army and Navy, no resistance was offered by the French authorities. And the French Government, did not, either before or after the occupation, inform the Chinese Government of the circumstances attendant upon the occupation.

The Treaty of 1899 granting the lease having thus been rendered null and void, the Chinese Government hereby solemnly notifies the French Government that it reserves its freedom of action to adopt such measures as it may deem necessary and proper in order to protect its territorial sovereignty and that it likewise reserves its rights to claim compensation from the French Government for damages.

Accept, Monsieur le Charge d'Affaires, the assurances of my high consideration.

(Signed) Tse-vung Soong.

After making public the note which the Ministry of Foreign Affairs addressed to the

French Charge d'Affaires on the subject of the occupation of Kwangchow-wan by Japanese armed forces, the spokesman of the Foreign Office declares that inasmuch as the said treaty has been violated by France in permitting the enemy of China to occupy that territory, over which China's sovereignty has been expressly reserved, China is no longer bound by that instrument.

A Tokyo broadcast quoting a report from Siying in the Luichow Peninsula states that an agreement for Franco-Japanese joint defense of Kwangchow-wan was formally signed on February 21, 1943, between Pierre Marie Jean Domec, chief administrator of the French Leased Territory of Kwangchow-wan, and the Japanese authorities.

CHINESE PROTEST ON TRANSFER OF CONCESSIONS

According to reliable information received in Chungking, the Vichy Government and the puppet Nanking organization entered into an agreement on May 18, 1943, for the transfer to the latter of the French concessions in Tientsin, Hankow, and Canton. Previously in the latter part of March, 1943, the Vichy Government had surrendered to the puppet Nanking organization its rights in connection with the Legation Quarter at Peiping and in the International Settlements at Shanghai and Amoy.

On May 19, 1943, Dr. K. C. Wi, Political Vice-Minister in Charge of Ministerial Affairs, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, requested M. Paul Boncour of the French Embassy to call at the Ministry and handed to him in person a note of protest, in which it was pointed out that this action on the part of the Vichy Government constituted a violation of international law and that the provisions of the treaties and agreements granting to France extraterritorial and related rights, concessions and the rights in connection with the Legation Quarter at Peiping and in the International Settlements at Shanghai and Amoy, are no longer binding on China as a result of the illegal act. The text of the note of protest of the Chinese Government is as follows:

CHINA'S RELATIONS

THE SINO-SOVIET NON-AGGRESSION TREATY

The National Government of the Republic of China and the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, animated by the desire to contribute to the maintenance of general peace, to consolidate the amicable relations now existing between them on a firm and lasting basis, and to confirm in a more precise manner the obligations mutually undertaken under the Treaty for the Renunciation of War signed in Paris on August 27, 1928, have resolved to conclude the present Treaty, and have for this

"Under instruction of the National Government, I have the honor to call your attention to the report that a delegate of your Government has signed agreements with the puppet Nanking regime at Nanking for the purpose of transferring to the latter the rights of France in connection with the Legation Quarter in Peiping and in the International Settlements at Shanghai and Amoy as well as the French concessions at Tientin, Hankow and Canton.

"It will be recalled that the National Government has officially notified all foreign countries that the National Government is the only Government of the Republic of China, and that the present illegal organization at Nanking is but a puppet in the area under Japanese military occupation. The National Government has, moreover, on many occasions solemnly declared that whatever agreements entered into by the puppet organizations with any country shall be considered null and void.

"Furthermore, the Ministry has repeatedly warned your Embassy against the transfer of the French concessions and other rights to the puppet regime at Nanking. Notwithstanding, the representative of your country has concluded agreements with the bogus regime for the so-called transfer of administrative rights and the rendition of concessions. This action on the part of the Vichy Government must therefore be considered as a violation of international law.

"The Chinese Government is constrained to lodge the most emphatic protest against this action on the part of the Vichy Government. While reserving all the rights, it hereby solemnly declares that the provisions of the treaties and agreements granting to France extraterritorial and related rights, concessions and the rights in connection with the Legation Quarter at Peiping and in the International Settlements at Shanghai and Amoy, are no longer binding on China as a result of the illegal act of the Vichy Government.

"I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to you the assurance of my high consideration."

(Signed) K. C. Wu.

WITH THE U.S.S.R.

purpose appointed as their Plenipotentiaries, that is to say:—

His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China: Dr. Wang Chung-hui, Minister of Foreign Affairs.

The Central Executive Committee of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics: Mr. Dimitri Bogomoloff, Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics to the Republic of China.

Who, having communicated their full powers found in good and due form, have agreed upon the following Articles:—

Article 1.—The two High Contracting Parties solemnly reaffirm that they condemn recourse to war for the solution of international controversies, and that they renounce it as an instrument of national policy in their relations with each other, and in pursuance of this pledge they undertake to refrain from any aggression against each other individually, or jointly with one or more other Powers.

Article 2.—In the event that either of the High Contracting Parties should be subjected to aggression on the part of one or more third Powers, the other High Contracting Party obligates itself not to render assistance of any kind, directly or indirectly, to such third Power or Powers at any time during the entire conflict, and also to refrain from taking any action or entering into any agreement, which may be used by the aggressor or aggressors to the disadvantage of the Party subjected to aggression.

Article 3.—The provisions of the present Treaty shall not be so interpreted as to affect or modify the rights and obligations arising in respect of the High Contracting Parties out of bilateral or multilateral treaties or agreements of which both High Contracting Parties are signatories, and which were concluded prior to the entering into force of the present Treaty.

Article 4.—The present Treaty is drawn up in duplicate in English. It comes into force on the day of signature by the above-mentioned Plenipotentiaries, and shall remain in force for a period of five years. Either of the High Contracting Parties may notify the other six months before the expiration of the period of its desire to terminate the Treaty. In case both Parties fail to do so in time, the Treaty shall be considered as being automatically extended for a period of two years after the expiration of the first period. Should neither of the High Contracting Parties notify the other six months before the expiration of the two-year period of its desire to terminate the Treaty, it

shall continue in force for another period of two years, and so on, successively.

In witness whereof, the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed the present Treaty, and have affixed thereunto their Seals.

Done at Nanking, the twenty-first day of August, 1937.

SINO-SOVIET COMMERCIAL TREATY

A Sino-Soviet commercial treaty was signed at Moscow on June 16, 1939, by Sun Foo, special envoy of the Chinese Government and Anastase Ivanovitch Mikoyan, Soviet Commissar of Foreign Trade. In addition to articles regulating commerce and navigation between the two countries, the treaty also defines the legal status of Soviet commercial bureaus in China.

CHINESE STATEMENT ON

SOVIET-JAPANESE DECLARATION

On April 14, 1941, Dr. Wang Chung-hui, Minister of Foreign Affairs, issued the following statement concerning the joint declaration made by the U.S.S.R. and Japan at the time of the conclusion of the neutrality pact on April 13:*

"At the time of the signature of the neutrality pact on April 13, the U.S.S.R. and Japan issued a joint declaration in which Japan undertook to respect the territorial integrity and inviolability of the so-called 'People's Republic of Mongolia' and the Soviet Union undertook to respect the territorial integrity and inviolability of the so-called 'Manchukuo.'

"It is an indisputable fact that the four Northeastern Provinces and Outer Mongolia are an integral part of the Republic of China and always remain Chinese territory.

"The Chinese Government and people cannot recognize any engagements entered into between third parties which are derogatory to China's territorial and administrative integrity, and wish to state that the Soviet-Japanese declaration just announced has no binding force whatsoever on China."

*The Soviet Union and Japan signed today a pact of neutrality and made a declaration on mutual respect for the territorial integrity and inviolability of the frontiers of the 'Mongolian People's Republic' and 'Manchukuo' on April 13, 1941.

The text of the Pact follows:

"Article 1. Both of the contracting parties undertake to maintain peaceful and friendly relations between them and mutually respect the territorial integrity and inviolability of the other contracting party.

"Article 2. Should one of the contracting parties become the object of hostilities on the part of one or several of the third powers the other contracting party will observe neutrality throughout the duration of the conflict.

"Article 3. The present Pact comes into force from the day of its ratification by both contracting parties and remains valid for five years. In case neither of the contracting parties denounces the Pact one year before the expiration of the term, it will be considered automatically prolonged for the next five years.

"Article 4. The present Pact is subject to ratification as soon as possible. The instruments of ratification shall be exchanged in Tokyo also as soon as possible.

The Declaration reads as follows:

"In conformity with the spirit of the Neutrality Pact concluded on April 13th of 1941 between the USSR and Japan, the Governments of the USSR and Japan in the interests of ensuring peaceful and friendly relations between the two countries solemnly declare that the USSR pledges to respect the territorial integrity and inviolability of the 'Manchukuo' and Japan pledges to respect the territorial integrity and inviolability of the 'Mongolian People's Republic.' Moscow April 13, 1941.

CHINA'S RELATIONS WITH CZECHOSLOVAKIA, THE NETHERLANDS, NORWAY, POLAND, THE VATICAN AND LIBERIA

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Following the recognition of the new government of Czechoslovakia under President Benes in London by Great Britain and the United States, the Chinese Government, as an expression of goodwill and sympathy, also decided to recognize the Czechoslovakia Government under President Benes.

On August 26, 1941, Foreign Minister Dr. Quo Tai-chi formally informed the Czechoslovak Foreign Minister, Dr. Masaryk, of this decision, adding that Mr. Wunsz King, Chinese Minister to the Netherlands, had been accredited to the Czechoslovak Government concurrently as China's diplomatic representative.

The new Czechoslovak Minister to China, M. Stanislav Minovsky, presented his letters of credence to Mr. Lin Sen, Chairman of the National Government, on April 15, 1942.

On August 12, 1942, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek received in audience Mr. Minovsky, who on behalf of President Benes of the Czechoslovak Republic, conferred on the former the "Croix de Guerre" of Czechoslovakia.

THE NETHERLANDS

The Netherlands Minister to China, Baron Casper van Breugel Douglas, presented his letters of credence to Mr. Lin Sen, Chairman of the National Government, on January 8, 1942.

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs on February 15, 1943, announced the joint decision of the Chinese Government and the Netherlands Government to elevate the status of their respective diplomatic representatives to ambassadorship. The announcement reads:

"The Netherlands Government and the Chinese Government have decided to raise the status of their respective envoys to that of the ambassador. Accordingly, the Chinese Government have appointed Mr. Chin Wen-tze (Wunsz King), at present Chinese Minister to the Netherlands Government, as the first Chinese Ambassador to Her Majesty Queen Wilhelmina's Court, and the Queen has designated Mr. A. H. J. Lovink, at present Secretary-General of the Ministry of the Coordination of Warfare, as the first Netherlands Ambassador to the Chinese Republic."

Baron van Breugel Douglas left Chungking on February 17 for Calcutta en route to his new post as Netherlands Ambassador to the Soviet Union. The first Netherlands Ambassador to China, Mr. Lovink, arrived in Chungking in April, 1943.

NORWAY

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced on October 14, 1942, that the Norwegian Government in London has appointed a new Norwegian Minister to China in the person of A. L. F. Hassel, who was Norwegian Minister in Bangkok

before Thailand came under Japanese influence. Before the Pacific war Norway was represented by N. T. Knudtzon, Charge d'Affairs of the Norwegian Legation in China.

Mr. Hassel arrived in Chungking on December 11, 1942, and presented his credentials to Mr. Lin Sen, Chairman of the National Government, on December 23, 1942.

POLAND

The following announcement regarding the resumption of diplomatic relations between China and Poland was made by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs on February 24, 1942:

"As a result of recent negotiations between Dr. Wellington Koo, Chinese Ambassador to London, and the Polish Government there, the two countries will resume diplomatic relations and exchange diplomatic representatives in the near future. The Polish Government also formally announced the withdrawal of its recognition of the puppet state of 'Manchukuo.'"

"In a note to Ambassador Koo, the Polish Foreign Minister advised that a state of war had existed between Poland and Japan since December 11, 1941, and that the Polish Government had withdrawn the recognition it extended to 'Manchukuo' in 1938. The Polish Government warmly welcomed the exchange of diplomatic representatives between China and Poland.

"In another letter the Polish Foreign Minister conveyed on behalf of the Polish Government respect for China's successful war against aggression as well as gratification at the early resumption of diplomatic relations between China and Poland."

Shortly after the resumption of diplomatic relations between the two countries early in 1942, the Chinese Government named Mr. Wunsz King as concurrently Chinese Charge d'Affairs to the Polish Government in London.

Count Alfred Poninski, the first Polish Ambassador to China, presented his letters of credence to Mr. Lin Sen, Chairman of the National Government, on March 4, 1943.

China and Poland decided to elevate the rank of their respective diplomatic representatives to that of an ambassador, in June 1942.

THE VATICAN

Dr. Cheou-Kang Sie, Chinese Charge d'Affairs at Berne, was appointed first Chinese Minister to the Vatican, in June 1942.

LIBERIA

China and the Republic of Liberia concluded a treaty of amity on December 11, 1937. The treaty was signed on behalf of China by Dr. V. K. Wellington Koo, then Chinese Ambassador to France, and on behalf of the Republic of

Liberia, by M. le Baron de Bogaerdo, Liberian Minister to France. The treaty has five articles, providing for the maintenance of inviolable peace and sincere and perpetual friendship between the two States; and for the reciprocal dispatch of diplomatic representatives and

consular officers. The two Contracting Parties also agree to regulate, by special convention, their relations concerning commerce and navigation as well as the conditions for the residence and sojourn of the nationals of either Party in the territory of the other.

CHINA'S RELATIONS WITH NEAR EASTERN COUNTRIES

ARABIA

Efforts for the establishment of relations with Arabia were first made by China in 1936 when the Foreign Office instructed Dr. W. W. Yen, then Chinese Ambassador in Moscow, to exchange opinions with the Arabian Minister to the U.S.S.R. Later the Arabian Government was said to have favorably responded to the move. It was not, however, until late in 1939 that China appointed her first consul to Jidda, important seaport of Arabia on the eastern bank of the Red Sea.

China stations her consul to Arabia in Jidda because of the international importance of that city where are stationed the consular officials of all other foreign countries. Delegates from all parts of the Moslem world who go to Mecca to attend the annual Haji conference land at this seaport 100 miles from the Holy City, to make their preliminary arrangements. Chinese pilgrims to Mecca numbered more than 7,000 in 1938.

EGYPT

Dr. Lin Tung-hai, senior counsellor of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, was appointed the first Chinese Minister to Egypt on May 19, 1942, but before he left for his post he fell ill and resigned.

Dr. Tang Wu, first secretary of the Chinese legation at Cairo, was appointed Charge d'Affaires of the legation on July 9, 1942, pending the appointment of a new minister.

IRAN

The Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs was first reported to be seeking diplomatic relations with Iran on December 29, 1940. Mr. Lin Sen, Chairman of the National Government, sent a telegram congratulating the new king of Iran on the latter's enthronement on September 16, 1941. In the telegram, the Chinese Chief Executive expressed his desire to have diplomatic relations with Iran. The Iran king replied

favorably. The Sino-Iranian treaty of amity was concluded in 1942.

Li Tieh-tseng was appointed the first Minister to Iran on May 5, 1942. He arrived in Teheran on June 20, and presented his credentials on June 29.

IRAQ

The Sino-Iraqi Treaty of Amity, which was concluded in Bagdad on March 16, 1942, between Dr. P. C. Chang, former Chinese Minister to Turkey, and the Iraqi authorities, was ratified by the Iraqi parliament on May 28, 1942, and by the National Government on July 18, 1942.

The treaty provides for permanent friendship between Iraq and China and the establishment diplomatic relations between the two countries.

The exchange of ratifications of the Sino-Iraqi Treaty of Amity took place in the Chinese Legation at Ankara on February 6, 1943.

TURKEY

Turkey was the first among Near Eastern countries to exchange diplomatic representatives with China. Sino-Turkish diplomatic relations date back to 1935 when Turkey was represented by a Charge d'Affaires in Nanking. General Ho Yao-tsu, China's first minister to Turkey, presented his credentials at Ankara on May 19, 1935. Dr. P. C. Chang, China's second minister to Turkey, presented his credentials at Ankara on October 11, 1940.

The appointment of Tsou Shang-yu, Director of the Western Asiatic Department in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, as the new Chinese Minister to Ankara, was announced on May 26, 1942.

After the outbreak of the Pacific War, Emin Ai Sipahi, the first Turkish Minister to China, who happened to be in Shanghai, was unable to return to Chungking. The Turkish Government appointed Mennan Tabelen to be Charge d'Affaires in Chungking.

CHINA'S RELATIONS WITH LATIN AMERICAN COUNTRIES

BRAZIL

Tan Shao-hwa, Chinese minister to Brazil, presented his credentials on June 17, 1941. He was authorized by the Executive Yuan on June 2, 1942, to negotiate and conclude with the Brazilian government a treaty of amity and commerce between China and Brazil. On May 4, 1943, it was announced in Chungking that the Chinese and Brazilian governments had

agreed to elevate the status of their diplomatic representatives to that of ambassador.

CHILE

Dr. P. C. Chang, new Chinese Minister to Chile, presented his credentials to the Chilean President on July 30, 1942.

CUBA

A treaty of friendship between China and Cuba was concluded in Havana on November 12,

1942, after eight months of protracted negotiations. Dr. T. T. Li, Chinese Minister to Cuba, signed on behalf of the Chinese Government and Dr. Jose Martinez, Cuban Foreign Minister, signed for the Cuban Government.

The treaty consists of ten articles and two notes. It provides, among other things, equal and reciprocal treatment by both contracting parties of nationals of the one entering, leaving and residing in the territory of the other. By virtue of this provision, Cuba becomes the first American nation to remove the immigration restrictions against Chinese and to accord Chinese resident nationals the same and equal rights as those accorded other nationals.

Another stipulation is the declaration of the firm determination of China "to work in close and friendly collaboration for the establishment and maintenance of world peace based on the principles of justice and promotion of economic prosperity of both peoples."

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

The Chinese Government, through Dr. T. T. Li, Chinese Minister to Cuba, concluded on May 11, 1940, at the Dominican capital, a Treaty of Amity with the Dominican Republic, which appointed as its plenipotentiary, Foreign Secretary Licenciado Arturo Despradel. The treaty was ratified by the Chinese Government on November 14 the same year.

A solemn ceremony for the exchange of ratifications was observed at the Chinese Legation, Havana, on December, 1941, from which date the treaty went into effect.

CHINA'S RELATIONS WITH GERMANY AND ITALY

CHINESE PROTEST TO GERMANY ON "MANCHUKUO" ISSUE

On February 24, 1938, Dr. Wang Chung-hui, Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs, sent a strong protest to the German Ambassador Dr. Oscar Trautmann in Hankow. Simultaneously the protest was cabled to the Chinese embassy in Berlin for presentation to the German Foreign Office. The protest reads as follows:

The Chinese Government feels deep regret at hearing that the German Government has chosen to recognize the bogus organization in the four Northeastern provinces of the Republic of China known under the appellation of "Manchukuo."

It need scarcely be pointed out that the unlawful regime was born of Japanese aggression and is being controlled and maintained by Japanese militarists.

Practically all the nations of the world have steadfastly adhered to the principle of non-recognition in respect of the puppet organization and the fact that it was brought into existence entirely by the military force of Japan was

The treaty, consisting of eight articles, provides for the maintenance of perpetual peace and everlasting amity between the Republic of China and the Dominican Republic as well as between their peoples; for the right reciprocally to send duly accredited diplomatic representatives and consular officers; for the protection of the nationals of each of the High Contracting Parties residing in the territory of the other as regards their persons and property, the latter having the right to travel, reside, work and engage in industries and trade in all the localities where the nationals of any other country might do the same, and also having the liberty to establish schools for the education of their children, and enjoying the liberty of assembly and association, of publication, of worship and religion, of burial and of building cemeteries, in accordance with the laws and regulations of the country. The High Contracting Parties also agree to conclude as soon as possible a Treaty of Commerce and Navigation.

MEXICO

Chen Tien-ku, Chinese minister to Mexico, presented his credentials on June 16, 1941.

PANAMA

Tu Yun-tan was appointed new Chinese Minister to Panama on April 21, 1942. He presented his credentials on September 17, 1942.

SALVADOR

The Government of Salvador announced on January 27, 1943, the withdrawal of its previous recognition of the puppet state of 'Manchukuo.'

formerly admitted by Germany herself as well as by the rest of the world.

The action of the German Government, as just announced is all the more disappointing and surprising to the Chinese people in view of the cordial relations heretofore existing between China and Germany.

The Chinese people have watched the growth and development of Germany with interest and understanding, and naturally expect that conditions and events in China would be viewed with similar sympathetic feelings.

Unfortunately, it seems that the German Government has misunderstood or misinterpreted the painful events that are taking place in this part of the world and, in giving undue emphasis to "accomplished facts," has failed to see them in their true perspective.

Recognition of what are believed to be the real facts without considering the circumstances under which they have been brought about, as well as the rights of the party or parties chiefly concerned, tends to disturb the proper and ordinary conduct of international relations.

In view of the foregoing observations, the Chinese Government deems it necessary to protest against the action of the German Government in according recognition to an organization that has been unlawfully made to exist on the territory of the Republic of China.

DR. WANG'S STATEMENT ON JAPAN—AXIS ALLIANCE

In response to inquiries of Chinese and foreign pressmen concerning China's attitude toward the Japanese-German-Italian alliance,* Dr. Wang Chung-hui Minister of Foreign Affairs, made the following statement on September 30, 1940:

"Japan, Germany and Italy signed on September 27 an alliance pact in Berlin whereby Japan recognizes German and Italian leadership in the establishment of a 'New Order in Europe,' and Germany and Italy recognize Japanese leadership in the construction of a so-called 'New Order in Greater East Asia.' The pact entirely ignores and obviously attempts to destroy the legitimate positions, rights and interests of other European and Asiatic countries as well as the legitimate positions, rights and interests of non-European and non-Asiatic powers in Europe and Asia.

"The consistent policy of the Chinese Government has been to maintain international law and order, in which all the nations of the world can live on terms of equality and amity. Any attempt at aggression and violation of the legally constituted world order under the pretext of establishing a 'new order' will be firmly opposed by the Chinese Government in accordance with its traditional policy.

"The Chinese Government and people are firmly resolved to continue their struggle for the maintenance of world order. The Chinese Government will never recognize the so-called 'New Order in Greater East Asia,' especially Japan's so-called leadership in East Asia. It goes without saying that any pact or agreement signed between third powers will not in anywise affect the legal position, rights and interests of China, or the attitude and policy of the Chinese Government."

SEVERANCE OF DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS WITH GERMANY AND ITALY

On July 2, 1941, Dr. Quo Tai-chi, Minister of Foreign Affairs, announced China's severance of her diplomatic relations with Germany and Italy. His official statement reads as follows:

"The recognition of the puppet regime at Nanking by the German and Italian Governments amounts to the extension of their aggressive policy to the Far East and proves beyond doubt that these countries have unreservedly cast in their lot with China's enemy. Knowing as they do that the Nanking puppet regime is but a creature of the Japanese militarists, the Nazi Government of Germany and the Fascist Government of Italy, in according recognition thereto, have committed a gross injustice to China and have thereby forfeited all claim to the friendship of the Chinese Government and people.

"The step thus taken by these Axis Powers has made it abundantly clear that the forces of aggression have been further consolidated into one bloc bent on the destruction of human freedom and civilization. It is, however, grati-

* THE TRIPLE ALLIANCE.

On September 27, 1940, Japan signed a military and economic alliance with Germany and Italy in Berlin. The text of the alliance reads as follows:

The Governments of Germany, Italy and Japan, considering it as a condition precedent of any lasting peace that all nations of the world be given each its own proper place, have decided to stand together and cooperate with each other in regard to their efforts in Greater East Asia and regions of Europe, respectively, in which it is the prime purpose to establish and maintain a new order of things calculated to promote mutual prosperity and the welfare of the peoples concerned.

Furthermore, it is the desire of the three governments to extend cooperation to such nations in other spheres of the world as may be inclined to put forth endeavor along lines similar to their own, in order that their ultimate aspirations for world peace may thus be realized.

Accordingly the Governments of Germany, Italy and Japan have agreed as follows:

Article 1: Japan recognizes and respects the leadership of Germany and Italy in the establishment of a new order in Europe.

Article 2: Germany and Italy recognize and respect the leadership of Japan in the establishment of a new order in Greater East Asia.

Article 3: Germany, Italy and Japan agree to cooperate in their efforts on the aforesaid lines. They further undertake to assist one another with all political, economic and military means when one of the three contracting Powers is attacked by a Power at present not involved in the European War or the Sino-Japanese conflict.

Article 4: With a view to implementing the present pact, joint technical commissions, the members of which are to be appointed by the respective Governments of Germany, Italy and Japan, will meet without delay.

Article 5: Germany, Italy and Japan affirm that the aforesaid terms do not in any way affect the political status which exist at present as between each of the three contracting parties and Soviet Russia.

Article 6: The present pact shall come into effect immediately upon signature and shall remain in force for ten years from the date of its coming into effect.

At the proper time before the expiration of the said term, the high contracting parties shall at the request of any of them enter into negotiations for its renewal.

In faith whereof, the undersigned, duly authorized by their respective governments, have signed this pact and have affixed their seals.

Done in triplicate at Berlin the 27th day of September, 1940, in the eighteenth year of the Fascist era, corresponding to the 27th day of the ninth month of the fifteenth year of Showa.

ying to note that these evil forces are being heroically and resolutely opposed and resisted by a group of Powers who, having steadily increased in number and in strength, are drawn ever closer by their love of peace and freedom in face of the common menace. China is proud of her record and role in this anti-aggression crusade. Despite unprecedented difficulties, China has consistently observed good-faith in all her international dealings. China is determined to continue the struggle in close co-operation with her friends till our common cause is vindicated.

"In pursuance of the official declarations repeatedly made on previous occasions, the Chinese Government now declares that China's diplomatic relations with Germany and Italy are hereby severed."

Copies of the statement were delivered to the German and Italian Embassies in Chungking through Dr. Lin Chi-han, senior secretary of the Foreign Office, who also brought with him to the German and Italian Embassies the passports for the members of the two embassies. The notes were handed to Dr. Heinrich Northe, secretary of the German Embassy, and to Signor Pier Pasquale Spinelli, first secretary of the Italian Embassy.

Members of the Italian Embassy left Chungking on July 15 while those of the German Embassy left on July 25. They went to Japanese-dominated French Indo-China via Kwangsi.

The Foreign Office wired Ambassador Chen Chieh in Berlin and Charge d'Affairs Hsu Tao-lin in Rome on July 1, 1941, instructing them and the Chinese diplomatic representatives in Germany and Italy to return to China. Ambassador Chen left Berlin on July 10, and went to the United States via Lisbon.

CHINA'S RELATIONS WITH DENMARK, RUMANIA, AND THAILAND

SEVERANCE OF DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS WITH DENMARK AND RUMANIA

With reference to Denmark's recognition of the puppet regimes in Nanking and in the Four Northeastern Provinces, Foreign Minister Dr. Quo Tai-chi issued the following statement on August 20, 1941:

"Following in the footsteps, and presumably under the pressure of Germany and her partners, Denmark has recognized the puppet regimes in Nanking and in the Four Northeastern Provinces. In taking this unjustified step, Denmark has not, it is highly to be regretted, hesitated to forfeit her friendship of long standing with China. The Chinese Government, in line with its fixed policy, thereby declares that the diplomatic relations between this country and Denmark are forthwith severed."

CHINA'S DECLARATION OF WAR ON GERMANY AND ITALY

As from midnight of December 9, 1941 a state of war exists between China and Germany and between China and Italy, announced Dr. Quo Tai-chi, Minister of Foreign Affairs, the same evening. Dr. Quo read the following statement:

"Since the conclusion of the Tripartite Pact of September, 1940, Germany, Italy and Japan have unmistakably banded themselves into a bloc of aggressor States working closely together to carry out their common program of world conquest and domination. To demonstrate their solidarity, Germany and Italy successively accorded recognition to Japan's puppet regimes in the Northeast China and at Nanking. As a consequence, China severed her diplomatic relations with Germany and Italy last July.

"Now, the Axis Powers have extended the theater of their aggressive activities and thrown the whole Pacific region into turmoil, making themselves the enemy of international justice and world civilization. This state of affairs can no longer be tolerated by the Chinese Government and people.

"The Chinese Government hereby declares that as from midnight, December, 9, 1941, a state of war exists between China and Germany and between China and Italy. The Chinese Government further declares that all treaties, conventions, agreements and contracts concerning the relations between China and Germany and between China and Italy are and remain null and void."

China severed diplomatic relations with Rumania which, following the steps of Germany and Italy, accorded recognition to the Wang Ching-wei puppet regime on July 1, 1941, it was announced on July 10, 1941. Instructions were sent to Minister Lone Liang to return from Bucharest to China immediately.

CHINA'S ISSUES WITH THAILAND

In December, 1939, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek wired to the premier of the Thai Government on the subject of protection of Chinese nationals in Thailand. The Thai premier replied in a favorable tone.

On August 1, 1941, the Thai Government, apparently under the Japanese coercion, recognized the puppet state of "Manchukuo."

On July 7, 1942, the Thai Government, having capitulated to the Japanese in December, 1941, recognized the puppet regime at Nanking.

The Chinese Government did not pay much importance to either of the two Thai moves because it believed that the Thai Government, in according recognition to the two puppet regimes in China was not freely exercising its own will.

GENERALISSIMO'S MESSAGE TO THAILAND ON FEBRUARY 26, 1943

Soldiers and citizens of Thailand: Since December 11, 1941, when Thailand signed an agreement of alliance with Japan, I have held my peace toward you. I should have spoken sooner in view of the fact that Thailand, a close neighbor of ours, had thus entered into alliance with a country which is at war with China. I have, however, not spoken because I fully understood the difficult situation in which your country found itself at that time. I realized your difficulties then because I know that your circumstances were not unlike those China faced before we took up arms against the Japanese aggression in 1937.

But now the whole situation is different from what it was. The world-wide struggle is now gradually entering upon a decisive stage. Despite the increasing efforts of the Japanese militarists to oppress you and force you to fight for them, the Axis countries are being compelled, in Europe as well as in Asia, to pass from the offensive to the defensive and are suffering repeated defeats everywhere. The day for you to save your own country is drawing near while the practical condition under which you lived last year has now completely changed. I want, therefore, to speak to you in all frankness in order to help you appreciate China's feeling toward you, the fundamental principle that guides China's destiny and our war policy.

First, China's feeling toward Thailand. As a matter of historical fact, Sino-Thai relations have continued for more than 1,000 years. We have no fewer than 3,000,000 compatriots living within your borders. We have always considered Thailand a sister country of China. Every Chinese feels keenly the close ties and interdependence between China and Thailand. Every Chinese wishes Thailand peace and prosperity. The Chinese people have never allowed your actions in recent years to affect their traditional friendship toward Thailand. For the Chinese Government and people are wide awake to the nature of the Japanese-Thai alliance which, brought about by Japanese force, was no expression of the free will of the Thai soldiers and citizens themselves. I earnestly hope that the Thai army and people will note such Chinese friendship in its true perspective. I can assure you that China's friendship, thus respected by the Thai army and people, will never change.

Second, the fundamental principle that guides China's destiny: China's faith as a nation is based upon Dr. Sun Yat-sen's Three People's

Principles. All nations of the world should, according to the Three People's Principles, be free and equal. Such a faith, for which China stands, therefore calls for freedom and equality for all nations. It was with this faith that China signed with 25 other countries in Washington on January 1, 1942, a Joint Declaration, dedicated to the liberation of all the nations in captivity under Japan, Germany and other Axis countries in order that they may have political independence restored to them. I can, therefore, give my solemn word that China as well as her Allies have no territorial ambitions in Thailand and harbor no intentions of undermining her sovereignty and independence. This will continue to be true in the future as it has been in the past. The Thais, however, should recognize the fact that their territory is now practically under Japanese occupation, their people enslaved and their sovereignty and independence violated by the Japanese, while the territory and freedom of Thailand can only be restored to her through the victory of China and her Allies.

Third, China's war policy: With the armed forces and people of Thailand under the forcible subjugation of the Japanese, we consider Thailand, in our war policy, merely as enemy-occupied territory, not as an enemy country. It is, therefore, the Japanese war machine, not the army and people of Thailand, that we consider our objective. China and her Allies will deal crushing blows to the enemy once our offensive is launched. The Japanese in Thailand and the adjacent territories are to be expected, at the same time to do their worst in an attempt to postpone their fate. Under such war conditions, every day the Japanese are able to hold out in Thailand will inevitably result in increasing sacrifices for the innocent Thai people. The Thai army and people should, under such circumstances, oppose the Japanese forces through positive action while cooperating with the Chinese armies and fighting shoulder to shoulder with them to put the enemy out of China and Thailand as well. This is what all patriotic soldiers and citizens of Thailand should do for their own country, for East Asia and for the world in general. We are justified in expecting them to do so.

This world war is, in short, a struggle between the anti-aggression forces and the aggressors, between Right and Might, between Light and Darkness. While we deeply appreciate your difficult circumstances in the past, we earnestly expect you now to do your duty promptly for the salvation of your own country and the world at large. We hope you understand and value the brotherly feeling of the Chinese people for you. We hope you will regain, with loyal and courageous acts of patriotism, the international good faith your country once enjoyed, and achieve the right to speak for your country in the postwar family of nations.

THE SHANGHAI MUNICIPAL COUNCIL

THE 'LONE BATTALION' CASE

The following statement was made by the spokesman of the Foreign Office on August 19, 1939:

"It was reported by Reuter on August 17 that the Japanese press in Shanghai was working up an agitation for the handing over to the Japanese authorities of the Lone Battalion interned by the Shanghai Municipal Council and that the main ground for the demand was that the upkeep for the interned men had been falling on the Council ever since the National Government had failed to remit the necessary funds.

"That the Japanese claim is absolutely unfounded can best be shown by briefly recalling the actual facts of the case. According to information furnished by the British Embassy, the expenses incurred by the Shanghai Municipal Council for the maintenance of the 'Lone Battalion' up to the end of March last had amounted to \$43,000. The payment of this sum was ordered by the Ministry of Finance early in April. At about the same time, the Chinese Government undertook to reimburse the Shanghai Municipal Council for sustenance allowance to be further advanced by them.

"It can thus be clearly seen that the alleged failure of the Chinese Government to meet its financial obligations in this matter is sheer fabrication on the part of the Japanese. The Shanghai Municipal Council, having taken upon themselves the friendly duty of interning the 'Lone Battalion' in the Settlement, is expected to give them continued protection in accordance with the usual practice and not to accede to the unreasonable demand for their surrender."

The Shanghai Municipal Council issued a statement on August 23, 1939, regarding the "Lone Battalion" according to a message from Shanghai.

When the "Lone Battalion" was interned by the Shanghai Municipal Council two years ago, the statement pointed out, the Consular Corps and the Japanese Consulate-General were communicated with to obtain their agreement on the matter. A favorable reply was later received from the Japanese Consulate-General.

At the meeting of the Consular Corps, the statement proceeded, the Japanese Consul-General did not voice opposition to the action either.

On the false pretext that the Council is spending its money for the sustenance of the "Lone Battalion," the Japanese Ratepayers' Association

recently threatened that it would stop paying taxes to the Council. Such a threatening attitude on the part of the Japanese Ratepayers' Association, the Council declared in its statement, is really unreasonable. As a matter of fact, the statement further pointed out, the Chinese Government has always assumed full responsibility for the sustenance of the interned "Lone Battalion."

SURRENDER OF TITLE DEEDS

The Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs handed vigorous protests to the diplomatic missions of the governments concerned on July 24, 1940, against the action of the Shanghai Municipal Council in handing over land title deeds of the Shanghai area to the Japanese controlled "special municipality." The protest declared the S. M. C. action illegal, since the deeds had been placed with that body for safe-keeping by the Municipal Government of Greater Shanghai. The S. M. C. therefore had no right to hand them over to any other authority, especially a puppet administration, and the Chinese Government declared the action null and void and reserved all rights in the matter.

S.M.C. REORGANIZATION

Dr. Wang Chung-hui, Minister of Foreign Affairs, issued the following statement on April 19, 1941, concerning the establishment of the provisional council in the International Settlement at Shanghai:

"At a meeting held on April 17, the foreign ratepayers in the International Settlement at Shanghai adopted a Resolution, in accordance with which the present Municipal Council should be replaced by a 'Provisional Council' to be composed of sixteen members, namely, four Chinese, three British, three Americans, three Japanese, one German, one Swiss, and one Dutch.

"Prior to the adoption of this Resolution, the British and the United States Governments had been in touch with the Chinese Government and had endeavored to secure its consent to the suggested scheme. Throughout the negotiations that ensued, the Chinese Government, not unmindful of the difficulties confronting the authorities of the powers concerned in Shanghai, evinced its readiness to go as far out of its way as it could to help tide over the present situation. It was in this spirit of cooperation that the Chinese Government proposed that the Chinese members of the 'Provisional Council' should be chosen from among the Chinese Councillors, already lawfully elected by the Chinese Ratepayers' Association and the arrangement under contemplation should be limited to a short duration.

"These proposals, reasonable and conciliatory as they were, failed of acceptance by the governments concerned. The Chinese Government is therefore obliged not to associate itself with the plan embodied in the Resolution referred

to above and desires it to be known that neither the setting up of the 'Provisional Council' nor the modification of any clauses of the Land Regulations has received the approval of the Chinese Government."

ABROGATION OF UNEQUAL TREATIES

END OF EXTRATERRITORIALITY

Prior to the first European War, 19 countries enjoyed extraterritoriality and consular jurisdiction in China under the terms of unequal treaties. They were Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Brazil, Denmark, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Mexico, the Netherlands, Norway, Peru, Portugal, Russia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United States.

Germany and Austria-Hungary lost their extraterritorial rights in 1917 when China declared war on the Central Powers. In the Saint-Germain Treaty of September 10, 1919, Austria-Hungary declared the abolition of all treaties, conventions or other arrangements with which it had entered into with the allied and associated powers prior to the war. China, being a signatory of the Saint-Germain Treaty, was entitled to the benefit of this provision (Article 234). In the case of Germany, it was provided in the Sino-German agreement of May 20, 1921, that subjects of each of the contracting parties, when residing in the territory of the other party, would be placed under the jurisdiction of the local tribunals.

Following the Revolution of 1917, Russia had no diplomatic and consular representation in China. In view of the repeated renunciations by the Soviet Union of all imperialistic privileges of the former Czarist regime in China, the Chinese Government, by a presidential mandate dated September 23, 1920, suspended the Russian extraterritorial privileges and subjected all Russians in China to Chinese jurisdiction. When the Government of the U.S.S.R., was formally recognized by China and an agreement on general principles was concluded on May 31, 1924, the Soviet Government expressly agreed to relinquish extraterritorial rights.

In 1919 at the Paris Peace Conference the Chinese delegation tried to bring the question before the Powers but its proposals were set aside on the ground that the question of abolition of extraterritoriality did not come within the scope of the Peace Conference. Later China brought up the question at the Washington Conference on December 10, 1921, when the Powers assembled there adopted a resolution for the establishment of a commission "to inquire into the extraterritorial practice in

China, and into the laws and the judicial system and the methods of judicial administration in China" with a view to the eventual relinquishment of extraterritorial rights in China. The commission was inaugurated in January, 1926, consisting of the representatives of the following 13 countries: Belgium, China, Denmark, France, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and the United States. The commission submitted its report to the governments concerned in September the same year but no concrete steps were taken for the abolition of extraterritoriality and consular jurisdiction in China.

The National Government came into power in 1928. On April 27, 1929, Dr. C. T. Wang, Minister of Foreign Affairs, addressed notes to the American, Brazilian, British, Dutch, French and Norwegian envoys in China, urging the early abolition of extraterritoriality. On August 10, of the same year, the American, British, French and Dutch envoys replied in a sympathetic vein. Further notes were exchanged. To accelerate the matter, the National Government announced that beginning from January, 1930, nationals of foreign powers still enjoying extraterritorial privileges in China would be amenable to Chinese jurisdiction. On December 28, 1929, the National Government issued a mandate to the above effect.

The American and British governments proposed gradual relinquishment, while the National Government wanted immediate abolition. Thus, an impasse was reached. The various negotiations were officially summarized as follows:

1. Up to the end of 1930, the nationals of nine treaty Powers were amenable to Chinese jurisdiction, namely, the Soviet Union, Germany, Austria, Mexico, Finland, Persia, Greece, Bolivia, and Czechoslovakia.

2. Upon the coming into force of the Sino-Polish treaty concluded in September, 1929, the nationals of Poland would become amenable to Chinese jurisdiction.

3. In the case of Belgium, its nationals would be subject to Chinese jurisdiction as soon as a majority of the extraterritorial Powers have agreed to relinquish their extraterritorial rights.

4. In regard to Italy, Spain, Portugal, and Denmark, their nationals would be similarly obligated as soon as all signatories of the Washington Treaty had acceded thereto.

5. In the case of Sweden, Japan and Peru, negotiations were being conducted for the conclusion of new treaties to replace their time-expired predecessors.

6. In the case of Switzerland, its nationals would be subject to Chinese jurisdiction when all the treaty Powers have relinquished their extraterritorial rights.

7. The treaties with Great Britain, the United States, France, the Netherlands, Norway, and Brazil being still in force, the National Government had on its own accord declared the abolition of extraterritoriality as from January 1, 1930. Proposals concerning the detailed procedure for the execution thereof had been communicated to these governments, and negotiations to this end were being conducted.

8. An agreement for the reorganization of the former Provisional Court in the Shanghai International Settlement was signed in February, 1930, consisting of ten articles and one exchange of notes, and came into force two months later, as a temporary arrangement pending the abolition of extraterritoriality.

In regard to France, the official summary added, the reorganization of the Mixed Court in the Shanghai French Concession had also been pressed and a definite decision on the entire subject of extraterritoriality would probably be reached by the following spring.

On April 23, 1931, separate agreements were concluded with the Netherlands and Norway which looked forward to the abolition of extraterritoriality simultaneously with the other signatories of the Washington Treaty. On April 24, 1931, the National Government was informed by the Brazilian Government that it was ready to conclude a new treaty with China on the basis of equality.

On May 4, 1931, the National Government issued a mandate, promulgating a set of regulations of twelve articles which would govern the exercise of jurisdiction over foreign nationals in China as from January 1, 1932.

That summer there was a major flood along the Yangtze. On September 18, 1931, Japan started invading Manchuria. Both events occupied the primary attention of the National Government. The latter, therefore, issued another mandate on December 29, 1931, postponing indefinitely the enforcement of the above-mentioned regulations.

In February, 1937, upon the withdrawal of Spanish consular officials in China, the National Government resumed its jurisdiction over Spanish nationals in this country. After the war began in July, 1937, any Japanese nationals left in territory under Chinese rule were naturally placed under Chinese jurisdiction. In July, 1941, upon China's severance of her diplomatic relations with Germany, Italy, Rumania, and Denmark, the nationals of the last three countries have likewise come under Chinese jurisdiction, the Germans having lost their extraterritoriality at the end of the first European War.

On January 11, 1943, China concluded new treaties with the United States and Great Britain on a basis of equality and reciprocity. These treaties were ratified on May 20, 1943, and since then the nationals of these countries in China have become amenable to Chinese laws.

RENDITION OF FOREIGN CONCESSIONS, SETTLEMENTS AND LEASED TERRITORIES

1. The British concessions at Hankow and Kiukiang were retroceded under the notes exchanged on February 19 and March 2, 1927, between Eugene Chen, Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Owen O'Malley, counsellor of the British Legation.

2. The Belgian concession at Tientsin was retroceded under the terms of an agreement signed on August 31, 1929.

3. The British concession at Chinkiang was retroceded on November 15, 1929, in accordance with four sets of exchange of notes signed on October 31, 1929, between A. F. Aveling (acting counsellor of the British Legation) representing the British Minister, Sir Miles Lampson, and Dr. C. T. Wang, Minister of Foreign Affairs.

4. The return of the British concession at Amoy was provided for in the exchange of notes signed on September 17, 1930, between Dr. C. T. Wang and Sir Miles Lampson.

5. The territory and port of Weihaiwei, leased to Great Britain on July 1, 1898, was retroceded on October 1, 1930, in accordance with a new convention and agreement signed at Nanking on April 18, 1930.

6. The British concessions at Tientsin and Canton (now under Japanese military occupation) were legally retroceded to China on January 11, 1943, in accordance with the new Sino-British Treaty signed in Chungking on that date.

7. The International Settlements at Shanghai and Amoy (now under Japanese military occupation) were legally retroceded by Great Britain and the United States on January 11, 1943, in accordance with the new Sino-British and Sino-American treaties signed on that date in Chungking and Washington, respectively.

RESUMPTION OF TARIFF AUTONOMY

Between July, 1928, and May, 1930, the National Government concluded new tariff

treaties with 13 countries. The following list gives the dates of signature of these treaties as well as the dates on which they came into effect :

TREATIES	<i>Date of Signature</i>	<i>Date of Coming into Effect</i>
1. Treaty Regulating Tariff Relations Between China and the United States	25 - 7-28	20 -6-29
2. Sino-German Treaty	17 - 8-28	21 - 1-29
3. Treaty Regulating Tariff Relations Between China and Norway	12-11-28	1 - 3-29
4. Preliminary Treaty of Amity and Commerce Between China and Belgium	22-11-28	28 - 2-29
5. Preliminary Treaty of Amity and Commerce Between China and Italy	27-11-28	21 - 5-29
6. Preliminary Treaty of Amity and Commerce Between China and Denmark	12-12-28	8 - 6-29
7. Treaty Regulating Tariff Relations Between China and the Netherlands	19-12-28	18-11-30
8. Preliminary Treaty of Amity and Commerce Between China and Portugal	19-12-28	27 - 3-29
9. Tariff Autonomy Treaty Between China and Great Britain	20-12-28	1 - 2-29
10. Treaty Regulating Tariff Relations Between China and Sweden	20-12-28	27 - 3-29
11. Treaty Regulating Tariff Relations Between China and France	22-12-28	28 - 1-29
12. Preliminary Treaty of Amity and Commerce Between China and Spain	27-12-28	31-12-29
13. Treaty Regulating Tariff Relations Between China and Japan	6 - 5-30	16 - 5-30

SINO-AMERICAN NEGOTIATIONS

Secretary of State Cordell Hull announced in Washington on May 31, 1941, that the United States would move for the relinquishment of her special extraterritorial rights in China when peace is restored there.

The State Department published the letters exchanged between Mr. Hull and Dr. Quo Tai-chi during the latter's visit to Washington en route to Chungking. Dr. Quo, writing from San Francisco on May 26, thanked Mr. Hull for the courteous treatment accorded him and also Mr. Hull's disclosure of the United States foreign policy. Dr. Quo said that he hoped eventually world conditions would permit freer trade and broader cultural exchange between nations. He said that "Upon the restoration of peace the Chinese Government desires and expects to seek and effect the fullest application of those principles on its own economy and its political and economic relations with other countries."

Mr. Hull's answer reads in part : "As you are also aware that the government and people (of the United States) have long had a profound interest in the welfare and progress of China,

it goes without saying that the government of the United States, in continuation of steps already taken toward meeting China's aspirations for the readjustment of the anomalies in its international relations, expects, when conditions of peace again prevail, to move by orderly negotiation and agreement with the Chinese government toward the relinquishment of the last of certain rights of a special character which this country together with other countries have long possessed in China by virtue of agreements providing extraterritorial jurisdiction and related practices.

"Without reservation we are confident that the cause to which we are committed along with China and other countries—national security and fair dealing among nations and peace with justice—will prevail.

"This government welcomes and encourages every advance made by lawful orderly processes by any country toward conditions of peace, security, stability, justice and general welfare. The assurances given in Your excellency's letter of the Chinese support of the principle of equality of treatment and non-discrimination in economic relations should have a wholesome

effect both during the present period of world conflict and when hostilities shall have ceased."

At about dawn on China's Double Tenth Day, 1942, the State Department announced its preparation to negotiate in full accord and simultaneously with Great Britain, for the relinquishment of extraterritorial rights in China. Following is the full text of the announcement:

"On October 9th, 1942, the Acting Secretary of State informed the Chinese Ambassador in Washington that the Government of the United States is prepared promptly to negotiate with the Chinese Government a treaty providing for the immediate relinquishment of this country's extraterritorial rights in China, and for settlement of related questions, and that the Government of the United States expects in the near future to present to the Chinese Government for its consideration a draft treaty which would accomplish the purpose mentioned.

"The Government of the United States has, during the past several weeks, exchanged views with the British Government in regard to this general question and the Government of the United States is gratified to know that the British Government shares this Government's views and is taking similar action."

The Chinese Ambassador, Dr. Wei Tao-ming, issued the following statement:

"The announcement by the United States Government concerning the relinquishment of extraterritorial rights in China marks a new era in China's relations with the Western Powers. On the part of the United States it is a timely action which is entirely consistent with her traditional policy toward China and serves formally to seal the end of an outdated and outworn system. It will not only give great moral encouragement to the Chinese people in their fight for freedom, but it constitutes a definite assurance to all freedom-loving peoples of the world that the efforts of the United Nations are directed toward achieving political freedom everywhere, and an equality of rights among all nations."

NEW SINO-AMERICAN TREATY

The Treaty and accompanying exchange of notes signed in Washington on January 11, 1943, between the Governments of the United States of America and China provide for the relinquishment by the United States of the extraterritorial and other special privileges which under treaty provisions the United States has hitherto exercised as have other countries in China, and for the adjustment of various matters in connection with this relinquishment.

Following is the full text of the new Sino-American Treaty. The exchange of ratifications took place in Washington on May 20, 1943.

The Republic of China and the United States of America, desirous of emphasizing the friendly relations which have long prevailed between their two peoples and of manifesting their common desire as equal and sovereign states that the high principle in the regulation of human affairs to which they are committed shall be made broadly effective, have resolved to conclude a treaty for the purpose of adjusting certain matters in the relation of the two countries, and have appointed as their Plenipotentiaries:

The President of the National Government of the Republic of China,

Dr. Wei Tao-ming, Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of the Republic of China to the United States of America,

The President of the United States of America,

Mr. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States of America,

Who having communicated to each other their full powers found to be in due form, have agreed upon the following articles:

Article I. All those provisions of treaties or agreements in force between the Republic of China and the United States of America which authorize the Government of the United States of America or its representatives to exercise jurisdiction over nationals of the United States of America in the territory of the Republic of China are hereby abrogated. Nationals of the United States of America in such territory shall be subject to the jurisdiction of the Government of the Republic of China in accordance with the principles of international law and practice.

Article II. The Government of the United States of America considers that the Final Protocol concluded at Peking on September 7, 1901, between the Chinese Government and other governments, including the Government of the United States of America, should be terminated and agrees that the rights accorded to the Government of the United States of America under the Protocol and under agreements supplementary thereto shall cease.

The Government of the United States of America will cooperate with the Government of the Republic of China for the reaching of any necessary agreements with other governments concerned for the transfer to the Government of the Republic of China of the administration and control of the diplomatic quarter at Peiping, including the official assets and the official obligations of the diplomatic quarter, it being mutually understood that the Government of the Republic of China in taking over administration and control of the diplomatic quarter will make provision for the assumption and discharge of the official obligations and liabilities of the diplomatic quarter and for the recognition and protection of all legitimate rights therein.

The Government of the Republic of China hereby accords to the Government of the United States of America a continued right to use for official purposes the land which has been allocated to the Government of the United States of America in the diplomatic quarter in Peiping, on parts of which are located buildings belonging to the Government of the United States of America.

Article III. The Government of the United States of America considers that the International Settlements at Shanghai and Amoy should revert to the administration and control of the Government of the Republic of China and agrees that the rights accorded to the Government of the United States of America in relation to those Settlements shall cease.

The Government of the United States of America will cooperate with the Government of the Republic of China for the reaching of any necessary agreements with other governments concerned for the transfer to the Government of the Republic of China of the administration and control of International Settlements at Shanghai and Amoy, including the official assets and official obligations of those Settlements, it being mutually understood that the Government of the Republic of China in taking over administration and control of those Settlements will make provision for the assumption and discharge of the official obligations and liabilities of those Settlements and for recognition and protection of all legitimate rights therein.

Article IV. In order to obviate any questions as to existing rights in respect of or as to existing titles to real property in territory of the Republic of China possessed by nationals (including corporations or associations), or by the Government of the United States of America, particularly questions which might arise from the abrogation of the provisions of treaties or agreements as stipulated in Article I, it is agreed that such existing rights or titles shall be indefeasible and shall not be questioned upon any ground except upon proof, established through due process of law, of fraud or of fraudulent or other dishonest practice in the acquisition of such rights or titles, it being understood that no right or title shall be rendered invalid by virtue of any subsequent change in the official procedure through which it was acquired. It is also agreed that these rights or titles shall be subject to the laws and regulations of the Republic of China concerning taxation, national defense and the right of eminent domain; and that no such rights or titles may be alienated to the governments or nationals (including corporations and associations) of any third country without the express consent of the Government of the Republic of China.

It is also agreed that if it should be the desire of the Government of the Republic of China to replace, by new deeds of ownership, existing

lease in perpetuity or other documentary evidence relating to real property held by nationals or by the Government of the United States of America, the replacement shall be made by the Chinese authorities without charges of any sort and the new deeds of ownership shall fully protect the holders of such leases or other documentary evidence and their legal heirs and assigns without diminution of their prior rights and interests, including the right of alienation.

It is further agreed that nationals or the Government of the United States of America shall not be required or asked by the Chinese authorities to make any payments of fees in connection with land transfers for or with relation to any period prior to the effective date of this treaty.

Article V. The Government of the United States of America having long accorded rights to nationals of the Republic of China within the territory of the United States of America to travel, reside and carry on trade throughout the whole extent of that territory, the Government of the Republic of China agrees to accord similar rights to nationals of the United States of America within the territory of the Republic of China. Each of the two governments will endeavor to have accorded in the territory under its jurisdiction to nationals of the other country, in regard to all legal proceedings and to matters relating to the administration of justice and to the levying of taxes or requirements in connection therewith, treatment not less favorable than that accorded to its own nationals.

Article VI. The Government of the Republic of China and the Government of the United States of America mutually agree that the consular officers of each country, duly provided with exequatur, shall be permitted to reside in such ports, places and cities as may be agreed upon. The consular officers of each country shall have the right to interview, to communicate with, and to advise nationals of their country within their consular districts; they shall be informed immediately whenever nationals of their country are under detention or arrest or in prison or are awaiting trial in their consular districts and they shall, upon the notification to the appropriate authorities, be permitted to visit any of such nationals; and in general, the consular officers of each country shall be accorded the rights, privileges and immunities enjoyed by consular officers under modern international usage.

It is likewise agreed that the nationals of each country, in the territory of the other country, shall have the right at all times to communicate with consular officers of their country. Communications to their consular officers from nationals of each country who are under detention or arrest or in prison or are awaiting trial in the territory of the other country shall be forwarded to such consular officers by the local authorities.

Article VII. The Government of the Republic of China and the Government of the United States of America mutually agree that they will enter into negotiations for the conclusion of a comprehensive modern treaty of friendship, commerce, navigation and consular rights, upon the request of either government or in any case within six months after the cessation of the hostilities in the war against the common enemies in which they are now engaged. The treaty to be thus negotiated will be based upon the principles of international law and practice as reflected in modern international procedures and in the modern treaties which the Government of the Republic of China and the Government of the United States of America respectively have in recent years concluded with other governments.

Pending the conclusion of a comprehensive treaty of the character referred to in the preceding paragraph, if any questions affecting the rights in territory of the Republic of China of nationals (including corporations or associations), or of the Government of the United States of America should arise in future and if these questions are not covered by the present Treaty, or by the provisions of existing treaties, conventions, or agreements between the Government of the Republic of China and the Government of the United States of America not abrogated by or inconsistent with this Treaty, such questions shall be discussed by representatives of the two governments and shall be decided in accordance with generally accepted principle of international law and modern international practice.

Article VIII. The present Treaty shall come into force on the day of the exchange of ratifications. The present Treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at Washington D.C. as soon as possible.

Signed and sealed at Washington D.C. this Eleventh day of the First month of the Thirty-Second year of the Republic of China corresponding to the Eleventh day of January, 1943, in duplicate in Chinese and English, both texts being equally authentic.

Exchange of Notes Between the Republic of China and the United States of America

Note from the Chinese Ambassador to the U. S. Secretary of State

Washington, D.C., January 11, 1943.

Excellency:

Under instructions of my Government, I have the honor to state that in connection with the Treaty signed today by the Government of the Republic of China and the Government of the United States of America, in which the Government of the United States of America

relinquishes its extraterritorial and related special rights in China, it is the understanding of the Government of the Republic of China that the rights of the Government of the United States of America and of its nationals in regard to the systems of treaty ports and of special courts in the International Settlements at Shanghai and Amoy and in regard to the employment of foreign pilots in the ports of the territory of China are also relinquished. In the light of the abolition of treaty ports as such, it is understood that all coastal ports in the territory of the Republic of China which are normally open to American overseas merchant shipping will remain open to such shipping after the coming into effect of the present Treaty and the accompanying Exchange of Notes.

It is mutually agreed that the merchant vessels of each country shall be permitted freely to come to the ports, places and waters of the other country which are or may be open to overseas merchant shipping, and that the treatment accorded to such vessels in such ports, places and waters shall be no less favorable than that accorded to national vessels and shall be as favorable as that accorded to the vessels of any third country.

It is mutually understood that the Government of the United States of America relinquishes the special rights which vessels of the United States of America have been accorded with regard to the coasting trade and inland navigation in the waters of the Republic of China and that the Government of the Republic of China is prepared to take over any American properties that may have been engaged for those purposes and to pay adequate compensation therefor. Should either country accord the right of inland navigation or coasting trade to vessels of any third country, such rights would similarly be accorded to the vessels of the other country. The coasting trade and inland navigation of each country are excepted from the requirement of national treatment and are to be regulated according to the laws of each country in relation thereto. It is agreed, however, that vessels of either country shall enjoy within the territory of the other country with respect to the coasting trade and inland navigation treatment as favorable as that accorded to the vessels of any third country.

It is mutually understood that the Government of the United States of America relinquishes the special rights which naval vessels of the United States of America have been accorded in the waters of the Republic of China and that the Government of the Republic of China and the Government of the United States of America shall extend to each other the mutual courtesy of visit by their warships in accordance with international usage and comity.

It is mutually understood that questions which are not covered by the present Treaty and Exchange of Notes and which may affect the sovereignty of the Republic of China shall be discussed by representatives of the two governments and shall be decided in accordance with generally accepted principles of international law and with modern international practice.

With reference to Article 4 of the Treaty, the Government of the Republic of China hereby declares that the restriction on the right of alienation of existing rights or titles to real property referred to in that Article will be applied by the Chinese authorities in an equitable manner and that if and when the Chinese Government declines to give assent to a proposed transfer the Chinese Government will, in a spirit of justice and with a view to precluding loss on the part of the American national whose interests are affected, undertake, if the American party in interest so desires, to take over the right or title in question and to pay adequate compensation therefor.

It is mutually understood that the orders, decrees, judgments, decisions and other acts of the United States court for China and of the consular courts of the United States of America in China shall be considered as *res judicata* and shall, when necessary, be enforced by the Chinese authorities. It is further understood that any pending cases before the United States court for China and consular courts of the United States of America in China at the time of the coming into effect of this Treaty shall, if the plaintiff or petitioner so desires, be remitted to the appropriate courts of the Government of the Republic of China which shall proceed as expeditiously as possible with their disposition and in so doing shall insofar as practicable apply the laws of the United States of America.

It is understood that these agreements and understandings if confirmed by Your Excellency's Government shall be considered as forming an integral part of the Treaty signed today and shall be considered as effected upon the date of the entrance into force of that Treaty.

I shall be much obliged if Your Excellency will confirm the foregoing.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

(Signed) Wei Tao-ming

His Excellency,
Mr. Cordell Hull,
Secretary of State of the
United States of America,
Washington, D.C.

Note from the Secretary of State of the
United States of America to the
Chinese Ambassador

Washington, D.C., January 11, 1943.

Excellency :

In connection with the Treaty signed today between the Government of the United States of America and the Government of the Republic of China in which the Government of United States of America relinquishes its extraterritorial and related special rights in China, I have the honor to acknowledge receipt of your Note of today's date reading as follows :

*(Here the Chinese Ambassador's Note is
quoted in full.)*

I have the honor to confirm that the agreement and understanding which have been reached in connection with the Treaty signed to-day by the Government of the United States of America and the Government of the Republic of China are as set forth in the above Note from Your Excellency.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

(Signed) Cordell Hull.

His Excellency,
Dr. Wei Tao-ming,
Chinese Ambassador,
Washington, D.C.

SINO-BRITISH NEGOTIATIONS

Following are the texts of the notes exchanged in July, 1941, between Foreign Minister Quo Tai-chi and the British Ambassador Sir Archibald Clark Kerr, concerning the abolition of extraterritorial rights, the rendition of concessions and the revision of treaties on a basis of reciprocity and equality, when peace is restored in the Far East :

British Note

British Embassy,
Chungking,
July 4, 1941.

Sir,

On instructions from His Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, I have the honor to inform Your Excellency that, when peace is restored in the Far East, His Majesty's Government will be ready to negotiate with the Government of China the abolition of extraterritorial rights, the rendition of concessions and the revision of treaties on a basis of reciprocity and equality.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

(Signed) Archibald Clark Kerr.

His Excellency,
Dr. Quo Tai-chi,
Minister of Foreign Affairs,
Chungking.

Chinese Reply

July 12, 1941.

Sir,

I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's note of the 4th instant, informing me that, when peace is restored in the Far East, His Britannic Majesty's Government will be ready to negotiate with the Government of China the abolition of extraterritorial rights, the rendition of concessions and the revision of treaties on a basis of reciprocity and equality.

In reply, I have the honor to state that the Chinese Government highly appreciates this expression of friendship on the part of His Britannic Majesty's Government.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

(Signed) Quo Tai-chi.

His Excellency,
Sir Archibald Clark Kerr, K.C.M.G.,
His Britannic Majesty's Ambassador,
Chungking.

Regarding the ending of British extraterritorial rights and privileges in China, the British Government made another announcement on October 10, 1942, as follows:

"His Majesty's Government declared in public pronouncements on January 14, 1939, July 18, 1940 and June 11, 1941, that they were prepared at the conclusion of hostilities in the Far East to negotiate with the Chinese Government for abrogation of extraterritorial rights and privileges hitherto enjoyed by their nationals in China. Similar pronouncements have been made by the United States Government with whom His Majesty's Government have been in consultation. In order to emphasize their friendship and solidarity with their Chinese allies, His Majesty's Government now decided to proceed further in the matter at once. Accordingly the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs in a communication to the Chinese charge d'affaires in London on October 9 said that His Majesty's Government would in the near future open discussions with the Chinese Government and present for their consideration a draft treaty for immediate relinquishment of

extraterritorial rights and privileges in China and settlement of questions intimately connected therewith. His Majesty's Government recently had been engaged in exchange of views with the United States Government on this question. They have been pleased to learn that a similar communication was made by the United States Government on the same day to the Chinese Ambassador in Washington and the fact that the two governments found it possible to take similar action in this important matter which occasioned lively satisfaction in London."

NEW SINO-BRITISH TREATY

Following is the full text of the new Sino-British treaty which was signed in Chungking on January 11, 1943. The exchange of ratifications took place in Chungking on May 20, 1943.

His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China and His Majesty the King of Great Britain, Ireland and of the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India:

Being desirous of defining more clearly in a spirit of friendship the general relations between them, and for this purpose to settle certain matters relating to jurisdiction in China:

Have decided to conclude a Treaty for this purpose and to that end have appointed as their Plenipotentiaries:

His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China:

His Excellency, Doctor Tse-Vung Soong,
Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of China;

His Majesty the King of Great Britain, Ireland and of the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India (hereinafter referred to as His Majesty the King):

For the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland:

His Excellency, Sir Horace James Seymour K.C.M.G., C.V.O., His Majesty's Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to the Republic of China;

For India:

Hugh Edward Richardson, Esquire, an officer of the Indian Political Service;

Who, having communicated to each other their full powers, found to be in good and due form, have agreed as follows:—

Article 1. (1) The territories of the High Contracting Parties to which the present Treaty applies are, on the part of His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China, all the territories of the Republic of China; and on the part of His Majesty the King, the United Kingdom of

Great Britain and Northern Ireland, India, all colonies, overseas territories, protectorates of His Majesty, all territories under His protection or suzerainty and all mandated territories in respect of which the mandate is exercised by His Government in the United Kingdom. Any reference in subsequent articles of the present Treaty to the territories of one or the other High Contracting Party shall be deemed to relate to these territories of that High Contracting Party to which the present Treaty applies.

(2) In the present Treaty, the term "nationals of the one (or of the other) High Contracting Party" shall in relation to the Republic of China, mean all nationals of the Republic of China; and in relation to His Majesty the King all British subjects and all British protected persons belonging to the territories to which the present Treaty applies.

(3) The expression "companies of the one (or of the other) High Contracting Party" shall for the purpose of the present Treaty be interpreted as meaning limited liability and other companies, partnerships and associations constituted under the law of the territories of that High Contracting Party to which the present Treaty applies.

Article 2. All those provisions of treaties or agreements in force between His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China and His Majesty the King which authorize His Majesty or His representatives to exercise jurisdiction over nationals or companies of His Majesty in the territory of the Republic of China are hereby abrogated. The nationals and companies of His Majesty the King shall be subject in the territory of the Republic of China to the jurisdiction of the Government of the Republic of China, in accordance with the principles of international law and practice.

Article 3. (1) His Majesty the King considers that the final Protocol concluded at Peking on September 7th, 1901, between the Chinese Government and other Governments, including His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom, should be terminated, and agrees that the rights accorded to His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom under that Protocol and under the agreements supplementary thereto shall cease.

(2) His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom will cooperate with the Government of the Republic of China for the reaching of any necessary agreements with the other Governments concerned for the transfer to the Government of the Republic of China of the administration and control of the diplomatic quarter at Peiping, including the official assets and the official obligations of the diplomatic quarter, it being mutually

understood that the Government of the Republic of China, in taking over administration and control of the diplomatic quarter, will make provision for the assumption and discharge of the official obligations and liabilities of the diplomatic quarter and for the recognition and protection of all legitimate rights therein.

(3) The Government of the Republic of China shall accord to His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom a continued right to use for official purposes the land which has been allocated to His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom in the diplomatic quarter in Peiping, on parts of which are located buildings belonging to His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom.

Article 4. (1) His Majesty the King considers that the International Settlements at Shanghai and Amoy should revert to the administration and control of the Government of the Republic of China and agrees that the rights accorded to His Majesty in relation to those Settlements shall cease.

(2) His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom will cooperate with the Government of the Republic of China for the reaching of any necessary agreements with the other Governments concerned for the transfer to the Government of the Republic of China of the administration and control of the International Settlements at Shanghai and Amoy, including the official assets and the official obligations of those Settlements, it being mutually understood that the Government of the Republic of China, in taking over administration and control of those Settlements, will make provision for the assumption and discharge of the official obligations and liabilities of those Settlements and for the recognition and protection of all legitimate rights therein.

(3) His Majesty the King agrees that the British Concession (including the whole British municipal area) at Tientsin and the British Concession at Canton shall revert to the administration and control of the Government of the Republic of China and that the rights accorded to His Majesty in relation to those Concessions shall cease.

(4) The administration and control of the British Concession (including the whole British municipal area) at Tientsin and the British Concession at Canton, including their official assets and official obligations shall be transferred to the Government of the Republic of China, it being mutually understood that the Government of the Republic of China in taking over administration and control of those Concessions will make provision for the assumption and discharge of the official obligations and liabilities of those Concessions and for the recognition and protection of all legitimate rights therein.

Article 5. (1) In order to obviate any questions as to existing rights in respect of or as to existing titles to real property in the territory of the Republic of China possessed by nationals and companies of His Majesty the King, or by His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom, and in particular questions which might arise from the abrogation of the provisions of treaties and agreements provided for in Article 2 of the present Treaty, the High Contracting Parties agree that such existing rights or titles shall be indefeasible and shall not be questioned upon any ground except upon proof, established through due process of law, of fraud or of fraudulent or dishonest practices in the acquisition of such rights or titles, it being understood that no right or title shall be rendered invalid by virtue of any subsequent change in the original procedure through which it was acquired. It is also agreed that the exercise of these rights or titles shall be subject to the laws and regulations of the Republic of China concerning taxation, national defense and the right of eminent domain; and that no such rights or titles may be alienated to the government or nationals (including companies) of any third country without the express consent of the Government of the Republic of China.

(2) The High Contracting Parties also agree that if it should be the desire of the Government of the Republic of China to replace by new deeds of ownership existing leases in perpetuity or other documentary evidence relating to real property held by nationals or companies of His Majesty the King or by His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom, the replacement shall be made by the Chinese authorities without charges of any sort and the new deeds of ownership shall fully protect the holders of such leases or other documentary evidence, and their legal heirs and assigns without diminution of their prior rights and interests, including the right of alienation.

(3) The High Contracting Parties agree further that nationals or companies of His Majesty the King or His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom shall not be required or asked by the Chinese authorities to make any payments of fees in connection with land transfers for or with relation to any period prior to the effective date of this Treaty.

Article 6. His Majesty the King, having long accorded rights to nationals of the Republic of China within each of the territories of His Majesty's to travel, reside and carry on commerce throughout the whole extent of that territory, the Government of the Republic of China agrees to accord similar rights to nationals of His Majesty within the territory of the Republic of China. Each High Contracting Party will endeavor to accord in his territories to nationals and companies of the other High Contracting

Party in regard to all legal proceedings and in matters relating to the administration of justice and the levying of taxes and requirements in connection therewith treatment not less favorable than that accorded to his own nationals and companies.

Article 7. The consular officers of one High Contracting Party, duly provided with exequaturs, shall be permitted to reside in such ports, places and cities of the territories of the other High Contracting Party as may be agreed upon. The consular officers of one High Contracting Party shall have the right within their districts in the territories of the other High Contracting Party to interview, communicate with and to advise the nationals and companies of the former High Contracting Party, and the nationals and companies of one High Contracting Party within the territories of the other High Contracting Party shall have the right at all times to communicate with the consular officers of the former High Contracting Party. The consular officers of one High Contracting Party in the territories of the other shall be informed immediately by the appropriate local authorities when any of their nationals are arrested or detained in their consular districts by the local authorities. They shall have the right to visit within the limits of their districts any of their nationals who are under arrest or awaiting trial in prison. Communications from the nationals of one High Contracting Party in prison in the territories of the other High Contracting Party addressed to the consular officers of the former High Contracting Party will be forwarded to the appropriate consular officer by the local authorities. Consular officers of one High Contracting Party shall be accorded in the territories of the other High Contracting Party the rights, privileges and immunities enjoyed by consular officers under modern international usage.

Article 8. (1) The High Contracting Parties will enter into negotiations for the conclusion of a comprehensive modern treaty or treaties of friendship, commerce, navigation and consular rights upon the request of either of them or in any case within six months after the cessation of the hostilities in the war against the common enemies in which they are both now engaged. The treaty or treaties to be thus negotiated will be based upon the principles of international law and practice as reflected in modern international procedure and in the modern treaties which each of the High Contracting Parties have respectively concluded with other Powers in recent years.

(2) Pending the conclusion of the comprehensive treaty or treaties referred to in the preceding paragraph, if any questions affecting the rights in the territory of the Republic of China of the nationals or companies of His Majesty the King, or of His Majesty's Government in the United

Kingdom or of the Government of India, should arise in future and if these questions are not covered by the present Treaty and Exchange of Notes or by the provisions of existing treaties, conventions and agreements between the High Contracting Parties which are not abrogated by or inconsistent with the present Treaty and Exchange of Notes, such questions shall be discussed by representatives of the High Contracting Parties and shall be decided in accordance with the generally accepted principles of international law and with modern international practice.

Article 9. The present Treaty shall be ratified and the instruments of ratification shall be exchanged at Chungking as soon as possible. The Treaty shall come into force on the day of the exchange of ratifications.

In witness whereof the above mentioned Plenipotentiaries have signed the present Treaty and affixed thereto their seals.

Done at Chungking this Eleventh Day of the First month of the Thirty Second year of the Republic of China corresponding to the Eleventh day of January, 1943, in duplicate in Chinese and English, both texts being equally authentic.

EXCHANGE OF NOTES

A Note from Dr. Tse-Vung Soong, Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs, to Sir Horace James Seymour

Chungking, January 11, 1943.

Sir,

During the negotiations for the Treaty signed today between His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China and His Majesty the King of Great Britain, Ireland and the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India, for the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and India, a number of questions have been discussed upon which agreement has been reached. The understandings reached with regard to these points are recorded in the annex to the present Note, which annex shall be considered as an integral part of the Treaty signed today and shall be considered as effective upon the date of the entrance into force of that Treaty. I should be glad if Your Excellency would confirm these understandings on behalf of His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

His Excellency,
Sir Horace James Seymour, K.C.M.G., C.V.O.,
His Majesty's Ambassador,
Chungking.

ANNEX

1. With reference to Article 2 and Article 8 (2) of the Treaty, it is understood that :

(a) His Majesty the King relinquishes all existing treaty rights relating to the system of Treaty Ports in China. His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China and His Majesty the King mutually agree that the merchant vessels of the one High Contracting Party shall be permitted freely to come to ports, places and waters in the territories of the other High Contracting Party which are or may be opened to overseas merchant shipping and that the treatment accorded to such vessels in such ports, places and waters shall be no less favorable than that accorded to national vessels and shall be as favorable as that accorded to vessels of any third country. The term "vessels" of a High Contracting Party means all vessels registered under the law of any of the territories of that High Contracting Party to which the Treaty signed this day applies.

(b) His Majesty the King relinquishes all existing treaty rights relating to the special courts in the International Settlements at Shanghai and Amoy.

(c) His Majesty the King relinquishes all existing rights with regard to the employment of foreign pilots in the ports of the territories of the Republic of China.

(d) His Majesty the King relinquishes all existing treaty rights relating to the entry of His naval vessels into the waters of the Republic of China; and the Government of the Republic of China and His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom shall extend to each other in connection with the visits of the warships of the one High Contracting Party to the ports of the other High Contracting Party mutual courtesy in accordance with ordinary international usage.

(e) His Majesty the King relinquishes any right to claim the appointment of a British subject as Inspector-General of the Chinese Customs.

(f) All the courts of His Majesty the King which have hitherto been sitting in the territories of the Republic of China having been closed down in accordance with Article 2 of the Treaty signed this day, the orders, decrees, judgments and other acts of any of His Majesty's courts in China shall be considered as *res judicata* and shall when necessary be enforced by the Chinese authorities; further, any cases pending before any of His Majesty's courts in China at the time of the coming into effect of the Treaty shall, if the plaintiff or the petitioner so desires, be remitted to the appropriate courts of the Government of the Republic of China which shall proceed to dispose of them as expeditiously as

possible and in so doing shall so far as practicable apply the law which the court of His Majesty would have applied.

(g) His Majesty the King relinquishes the special rights which His vessels have been accorded with regard to coasting trade and inland navigation in the waters of the Republic of China, and the Government of the Republic of China are prepared to take over any properties of His Majesty's nationals or companies which have been used for the purposes of those trades and which the owners may wish to dispose of and to pay adequate compensation therefor. The Government of the Republic of China relinquish the special rights which have been accorded to Chinese vessels in respect of navigation on the river Irrawaddy under Article 12 of the Convention signed in London on March 1st, 1894. Should one High Contracting Party accord in any of his territories the right of coasting trade or inland navigation to the vessels of any third country, such rights would similarly be accorded to the vessels of the other High Contracting Party provided that the latter High Contracting Party permits the vessels of the former High Contracting Party to engage in the coasting trade or inland navigation of his territories. Coasting trade and inland navigation are excepted from the requirement of national treatment and are to be regulated according to the laws of each High Contracting Party in relation thereto. It is agreed, however, that the vessels of either High Contracting Party shall enjoy within the territories of the other High Contracting Party with regard to coasting trade and inland navigation treatment as favorable as that accorded to the vessels of any third country subject to the above mentioned proviso.

2. With reference to the last sentence of Article 5 (1) of the Treaty, the Government of the Republic of China declare that the restriction on the right of alienation of existing rights and titles to real property referred to in that Article will be applied by the Chinese authorities in an equitable manner and that, if and when the Chinese Government decline to assent to a proposed transfer, the Chinese Government will, in a spirit of justice and with a view to precluding loss on the part of the nationals or companies of His Majesty the King whose interests are affected, undertake, if so requested by the national or company of His Majesty to whom permission to alienate has been refused, to take over the rights and titles in question and pay adequate compensation therefor.

3. It is understood that the abolition of the system of the Treaty Ports will not affect existing property rights and that the nationals of each High Contracting Party will enjoy the right to acquire and hold real property throughout the territories of the other High Contracting Party in accordance with the conditions and require-

ments prescribed in the laws and regulations of the High Contracting Party.

4. It is further agreed that questions which may affect the sovereignty of the Republic of China and which are not covered by the present Treaty or by the preceding provisions of the present Note shall be discussed by the Representatives of the Government of the Republic of China and His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom and decided in accordance with the generally accepted principles of international law and modern international practice.

B. Note from Sir Horace James Seymour to Dr. Tse-Vung Soong, Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs

Chungking, January 11, 1943.

Sir

I have the honor to acknowledge receipt of Your Excellency's Note of today's date reading as follows:

"During the negotiations for the Treaty signed to-day between His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China and His Majesty the King of Great Britain, Ireland and the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India, for the United Kingdom of Great British and Northern Ireland and India, a number of questions have been discussed upon which agreement has been reached. The understandings reached with regard to these points are recorded in the annex to the present Note which annex shall be considered as an integral part of the Treaty signed today and shall be considered as effective upon the date of the entrance into force of that Treaty. I should be glad if Your Excellency would confirm these understandings on behalf of His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom."

I have the honor on behalf of His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom to confirm the understandings reached between us as recorded in the annex to Your Excellency's Note, which annex shall be considered as an integral part of the Treaty signed today and shall be considered as effective upon the date of the entrance into force of that Treaty.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

His Excellency,
Dr. Tse-Vung Soong,
Minister of Foreign Affairs of the
Republic of China.
Chungking.

C. Note from Dr. Tse-Vung Soong, Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs, to Mr. Hugh Edward Richardson
 Chungking, January 11, 1943.

Sir,

During the negotiations for the Treaty signed today between His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China and His Majesty the King of Great Britain, Ireland and the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India, for the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and India, a number of questions have been discussed upon which agreement has been reached. The understandings reached with regard to these points are recorded in the annex to the present Note, which annex shall be considered as an integral part of the Treaty signed to-day and shall be considered as effective upon the date of the entrance into force of that Treaty. I should be glad if you would confirm these understandings on behalf of the Government of India.

I avail myself of this opportunity to offer to you the assurance of my high consideration.

Hugh Edward Richardson, Esquire,
 Indian Agency General,
 Chungking.

D. Note from Mr. Hugh Edward Richardson to Dr. Tse-Vung Soong, Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs

Chungking, January 11th 1943.

Sir,

I have the honor to acknowledge receipt of Your Excellency's Note of today's date reading as follows :

"During the negotiations for the Treaty signed to-day between His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China and His Majesty the King of Great Britain, Ireland and the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India, for the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and India, a number of questions have been discussed upon which agreement has been reached. The understandings reached with regard to these points are recorded in the annex to the present Note, which annex shall be considered as an integral part of the Treaty signed to-day and shall be considered as effective upon the date of the entrance into force of that Treaty. I should be glad if you would confirm these understandings on behalf of the Government of India."

I have the honor on behalf of the Government of India to confirm the understandings reached between us as recorded in the annex to Your Excellency's Note, which annex shall be considered as an integral part of the Treaty signed to-day and shall be considered as effective upon the date of the entrance into force of that Treaty.

I avail myself of this opportunity to offer to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

His Excellency,
 Dr. Tse-Vung Soong,
 Minister of Foreign Affairs of the
 Republic of China,
 Chungking.

AGREED MINUTE

With reference to paragraph 1 (a) of the Annex to the Note from the Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs to His Majesty's Ambassador in connection with the Treaty signed today, it is understood that both High Contracting Parties reserve the right to close any port to all overseas merchant shipping for reasons of national security.

With reference to paragraph 1 (g) of the Annex to the Note from the Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs to His Majesty's Ambassador in connection with the Treaty signed today, His Majesty's Ambassador informed the Chinese Government that trade between India on the one hand and Burma or Ceylon on the other has always been regarded as coasting trade.

Chungking,
 January 11th, 1943.

OTHER COUNTRIES READY TO RELINQUISH THEIR SPECIAL RIGHTS IN CHINA

BRAZIL

In connection with the negotiations for a new treaty between China and Brazil, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs issued the following announcement on October 26, 1942 :

"On April 25, 1942, Dr. Tan Shao-hua, Chinese Minister to Brazil, notified the Brazilian Government of the Chinese Government's desire to conclude with the Brazilian Government a new treaty of amity, commerce and navigation, to replace the one signed between China and Brazil in 1881.

"The Brazilian Government has accepted in principle the proposal of the Chinese Government and replied on May 2 to the effect that necessary steps would be taken so that negotiations may be started at an opportune moment.

"The Brazilian Minister of Foreign Affairs is now negotiating with the Chinese Minister a new treaty on the basis of complete equality and mutual respect of sovereignty."

BELGIUM

The Belgian Government informed the Chinese Government in November 1942 of its readiness to relinquish its extraterritoriality and related rights in China and to conclude a new treaty of equality in the near future.

CANADA

Prime Minister W. L. Mackenzie King announced at Ottawa on October 10, 1942, that Canada had opened negotiations with the Chinese Government in renouncing any special rights that Canadians enjoy in China under former British treaties. The Prime Minister stated: "Canada is prepared to negotiate a treaty with China by which Canada would relinquish extraterritorial and related rights which Canadians have enjoyed under the terms of existing agreements between China and Britain.

"Discussions have already been instituted with the Chinese Minister in Ottawa. The relinquishment of extraterritorial rights would not in any way adversely affect the existing land ownership by Canadians in China or the facilities for travel, residence and trade in that country."

Shortly afterwards, Dr. Liu Shih-shun, Chinese Minister to Canada, formally notified Mackenzie King, Premier and concurrently Secretary of State for External Affairs of Canada, the Chinese Government's acceptance of Canada's proposal to negotiate a treaty relinquishing extraterritorial rights in China. The full text of the note follows:

"Referring to the conversation which I had on October tenth with Dr. Norman Robertson, Under-secretary for External Affairs, in the course of which he stated the Canadian Government's proposal to negotiate a treaty with China relinquishing Canada's extraterritorial and related rights in my country, I have the honor to inform you that I have received instructions to convey to you in the name of the Chinese Government our sincere thanks for the generous offer of the Canadian Government and say that the Chinese Government gladly accepts the proposal and will enter into negotiations as soon as the Canadian Government is ready to do so. The belief is doubtless shared by both Governments that the conclusion of the treaty under contemplation will usher in a new era of auspicious relations between China and Canada."

LUXEMBURG

The Luxemburg Government, through the Belgian Ambassador to China, Baron Guillaume, notified the Chinese Government on December 24, 1942 of its relinquishment of extraterritorial rights in China.

THE NETHERLANDS

The Netherlands Government notified the Chinese Government of its intention to relinquish extraterritoriality and related rights in China and to conclude a new treaty on the basis of equality, it was announced in Chungking on October 29, 1942.

The Netherlands Government also signified its willingness to rectify its regulations governing overseas Chinese in the Netherlands East Indies.

NEW ZEALAND

The New Zealand Prime Minister, Mr. Peter Fraser, addressing a Chinese gathering in Wellington on October 10, 1942 to celebrate China's National Day, said that he expected early steps would be taken to remove the last vestiges of any encroachment of China's sovereignty. "So far as New Zealand is concerned," he said, "we desire no rights from China other than those freely accorded us by the Chinese Government under its distinguished leader General Chiang Kai-shek, as equal partners in the great enterprise in which we are joined together with all the United Nations. So far as we are concerned, we renounce all rights in China, however acquired which are not in accordance with China's full status as a sovereign state. China's epic resistance to Japan's wanton aggression has been an inspiration to the world. It has established once and for all China's right to be regarded as equal in all respects. With the Allies in the fight against aggression, no one can exaggerate the debt we owe to China. We in New Zealand are determined to do all that lies in our power to repay that debt."

NORWAY

The Norwegian Government in a note forwarded by its Ambassador in London to the Chinese Embassy there in mid-October, 1942, expressed its readiness to conclude a new treaty to replace the one entered into between China and Norway in 1847, under which the Norwegians have enjoyed extraterritoriality and related rights.

APPENDIX**REGULATIONS GOVERNING THE TREATMENT OF ENEMY ALIENS**

(Promulgated by the National Government on January 1, 1942)

Article 1. Unless otherwise provided by International Conventions, enemy aliens residing within the territory of the Republic of China shall be treated according to these regulations.

Article 2. Enemy aliens shall be concentrated for internment. In case of special circumstances and with the permission of the Ministry of Interior and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, enemy aliens may be exempted from internment

and be allowed to continue their residence, or to withdraw from the Chinese territory.

Article 3. Enemy aliens shall be subject to search. Rules relating to the afore-said search shall be made by the Executive Yuan.

Article 4. Enemy aliens committing any of the following offenses, shall be delivered to the military court for trial according to law ;

- (1) spying into military secrets ;
- (2) attempting or directly assisting the enemy,
- (3) hostile and resistant acts.

Article 5. Local authorities shall notify, within 5 days after the receipt of these regulations, all enemy aliens within their jurisdiction to register according to prescribed procedure.

Article 6. All enemy aliens shall report, within 5 days after the receipt of the notification as provided in the preceding Article, their name, sex, age, profession, nationality, and residence to the competent local authority for registration, and present also their passports for deposit. Should there be in their possession any arms and other articles, books or maps capable of military use, they shall report the same in the form of a list to the local authority for search and seizure. Should any enemy alien fail to comply with this regulation within the prescribed period, he shall be subject to compulsory measures.

Enemy aliens in the course of travel shall terminate their journeys on the very day when they shall have received the notification of the local authority, and register at the place where they stop in accordance with the aforesaid provision.

Article 7. Local authorities, after the registration of the enemy aliens, shall report to higher authorities lists of enemy aliens and also recommend the due treatment to be accorded to each of them for presentation to the Ministry of Interior and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs for final approval.

Enemy aliens who are to be interned or to be exempted from internment and allowed to continue their residence, shall each be given a registration certificate. On the certificate shall be recorded the name, sex, age, profession, nationality and original residence of the enemy alien concerned. The form of the certificate shall be made by the Executive Yuan.

Article 8. Enemy aliens, who are exempted from internment and allowed to continue to reside, shall after the first registration report to the competent local authority once every 10 days.

Article 9. Enemy aliens mentioned in the preceding Article shall be duly protected and closely watched by the competent local authority ;

their mail and telegraphic communications shall be censored and persons in intercourse with them shall be questioned.

Article 10. Enemy aliens, who are to be interned, shall, within 5 days after registration, be delivered by the competent local authorities to the enemy aliens' internment camp.

Article 11. The Ministry of Interior shall, for the purpose of internment, establish at place or places where it is facile to effect protection and administration, one or several enemy aliens' internment camps, and appoint officials to take charge of them. Rules relating to the administration of the enemy aliens' internment camps shall be made by the Executive Yuan.

Article 12. All technical men of enemy nationality under employment shall be discharged and delivered to the enemy aliens' internment camp. If under special circumstances, the employer believes his enemy employee to be really faithful and reliable and considers his continued service necessary, he shall report the case to the Ministry of Interior and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs for final decision. Should his continued employment be approved, the enemy employee shall be exempted from internment and the employer shall be responsible for keeping surveillance on the former.

Article 13. Catholic missionaries of enemy nationality, should they be exempted from internment and allowed to continue to reside, shall concentrate in the Catholic churches to be designated at appropriate localities and continue their missionary work under the protection and surveillance of the local authority concerned.

Protestant missionaries of enemy nationality, should they be exempted from internment and allowed to continue to reside, shall concentrate in the Protestant churches under the control of Chinese Christians, and continue their missionary work under the protection and surveillance of the local authority concerned. Rules relating to the concentration, protection and surveillance of the missionaries of the two foregoing paragraphs shall be stipulated by the Executive Yuan.

Article 14. Any enemy alien, being exempted from internment and allowed to continue to reside, shall not change his residence. In case of special circumstances, the enemy alien may petition to the competent local authority for permission to his move. The local authority, after granting such a permission, shall report to the Ministry of Interior and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Rules relating to the aforesaid removal shall be stipulated by the Executive Yuan.

Article 15. Any enemy alien, who is to evacuate from Chinese territory, shall, through the intermediary of the competent local authority,

petition the Ministry of Interior and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs for permission. If permission be granted, passport shall be issued and the route of travel be designated.

Article 16. The local authority shall accord due protection to, and keep close surveillance on, the evacuating enemy alien during his journey, and shall require from him, upon his departure from his jurisdiction or the Chinese boundary, a written certificate of safe evacuation, to be submitted to the Ministry of Interior and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Article 17. Regulations relating to the registration of Koreans, Formosans and natives of Loochou (Luichiu) Islands already enforced prior to the coming into force of the present regulations shall remain in force.

Article 18. These regulations shall come into force upon the date of their promulgation.

REGULATIONS GOVERNING THE DISPOSAL OF ENEMY PROPERTY

(Promulgated by the National Government on
January 1, 1942)

Article 1. The property of enemy nations or that of enemy aliens shall be disposed of in accordance with these regulations.

Article 2. The property of enemy nations or that of enemy aliens shall be registered in accordance with provisions to be stipulated by the Executive Yuan.

Article 3. Immovable property of enemy nations which can be used for military purposes may be taken over, utilized or confiscated. Good care, however, must be taken of churches, schools, hospitals, art museums, relics of historical interest, libraries and their collections. They shall not be transferred or damaged.

Article 4. Means of transport, munitions, foodstuffs and other movable property of enemy nations, which can be used for military purposes, may be taken over, utilized or confiscated. Unless necessary, telegraphic lines connecting with neutral countries shall not be put out of function or damaged.

Article 5. Cash, reserve funds, bonds of enemy nations and taxes collected for these nations may be taken over or confiscated. The taxes shall continue to be collected as usual and necessary administrative expenses of places affected shall be defrayed as usual.

Article 6. Forests, mines, farmlands and other immovable property of enemy nations or enemy aliens, that can be used for military purposes, may be placed under control. The Chinese Government may collect profits yielded by property of enemy nations.

Article 7. Private property of enemy aliens should be respected. That which can be used by the enemy nations in both offensive and defensive operations may be either taken over

or prevented from being moved. Whenever necessary for military reasons, such property can be damaged. Immovable property of enemy aliens which can be used for military purposes, may be taken over and utilized.

Article 8. Citizens of the Republic of China now managing or occupying property of enemy aliens, and those having relations with enemy aliens as creditors or debtors, should report to competent local authorities within one month. Firms and shops having capital of enemy aliens should do likewise.

Article 9. Enemy nationals who are exempted from internment and permitted to remain in China, may look after their own property under the surveillance of competent local authorities. Enemy aliens who have received permission to evacuate, may entrust their property to the care of citizens of the Republic of China upon approval of competent local authorities.

Article 10. The property of enemy aliens either interned or evacuated shall be looked after by competent local authorities. Whenever necessary, such property may be liquidated. Regulations governing the management or liquidation of enemy property shall be stipulated by the Executive Yuan.

Article 11. Both principal and interest payments on loans owed to enemy aliens may be suspended.

Article 12. A committee shall be organized to look after enemy property. The organic regulations of this committee shall be laid down by the Executive Yuan.

Article 13. Matters other than those stipulated in these regulations shall be handled in accordance with international practices.

Article 14. These regulations shall come into force on the date of their promulgation.

REGULATIONS GOVERNING PASSPORTS AND VISAS FOR MISSIONARIES OF COUNTRIES HAVING NO DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS WITH CHINA

Provisional regulations concerning the granting of passports and visas to missionaries of countries having no diplomatic relations with China, were issued by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs on January 6, 1942. The following statement was issued by the Foreign Office on the same day:

"The Chinese Government will continue to respect the lawful interests of the nationals of countries having no diplomatic relations with China, provided that such interests do not contravene the policy of the Government. Among the nationals of these countries, there are at present a large number of missionaries who have signified their desire to continue their work in China after having been devoting themselves, out of the spirit of humanity, to various kinds of relief work ever since the beginning of the war.

"Recently, Archbishop Zanin, the Apostolic Delegate in China, sent Reverend Father Leo Ferrary to Chungking to discuss with the Chinese Government problems concerning the passports of the said missionaries. Paying due regard to their safety and interests, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs now issues, in accordance with its fixed policy, the 'Provisional Regulations Concerning the Granting of Passports and Visas to Missionaries of Countries Having No Diplomatic Relations with China.'"

The missionaries are required to secure their passports within a specified period so that a full record of their activities can be made and due protection extended to them. The text of the regulations is given below:

ENTRY PASSPORTS

1. Missionaries of countries having no diplomatic relations with China, who were engaged in religious work in this country but had left temporarily on business for neighboring countries after March and before July 1, 1941, and who wish to return to China, shall be permitted to file with a Chinese diplomatic or consular establishment or branch office abroad two copies of an application form, together with photographs, a statement of his reasons for returning, and documents proving his identity. The Chinese diplomatic or consular establishment or branch office concerned shall grant the entry visa after having secured the permission of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

2. The Chinese diplomatic or consular establishment or branch office concerned shall give the visa on the application form, which shall be returned to the applicant, and not on the passport issued by the applicant's government. The regular fee shall be charged for the visa.

3. No entry visas shall be granted to the said missionaries who have left China since July 2, 1941.

TRAVEL IN INTERIOR

1. Catholic missionaries of the said countries who have engaged in religious work in the interior shall apply to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs for passports for travel in the interior. The applicant shall fill up an application form, which, together with two two-inch photographs showing his bust and the necessary fee, shall be sent to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The applicant shall also submit to that Ministry a guarantee from the Office of the Apostolic Delegate in China that the applicant will not engage in any political activity or violate the law of the land.

2. Protestant missionaries of the said countries who have been engaged in religious work in the interior shall secure guarantees from their respective missions and apply for passports for travel in the interior in accordance with the above procedure.

3. The above-mentioned passports for travel in the interior shall be valid for one year, and the fee charged for each of them is eight dollars. Such passports may be renewed at their expiration and a fee of eight dollars is charged for every new passport issued.

4. If the business of the mission requires a missionary to leave the place where he is working for another place, the mission shall submit a written statement of the business and the time required for the trip back and forth or the locality to which the missionary has been transferred, and request the local authorities of the place where he is residing to visa the passport issued by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, indicating the route to be followed and the destination. No fee will be charged for the visa.

5. If it becomes necessary, on account of war, for a missionary to leave the place where he works for some other place, the local authorities of the place where he is residing shall request the Central Government to restrict his activities or to persuade him to move elsewhere. He shall be granted the necessary visa free of charge.

6. Upon the entry into force of the present regulations, the said missionaries shall apply, in compliance with Articles 1 and 2 or Section B, for new passports within two months, irrespective of whether the visa or passports for travel in the interior which they now hold have expired or not.

DEPARTURE PASSPORTS

1. If the said missionaries wish to leave China and have no intention of returning, they shall request the provincial or municipal authorities of the places where they are residing or the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to designate the route to be followed in their departure and to issue their departure passports.

2. Any missionary who is suspected of engaging in political activity or violating the law of the land shall be dealt with according to law. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs may cancel his passport for travel in the interior, designate the route for his departure, and escort him to the border. The office of the Apostolic Delegate in China or the mission to which the missionary belongs, shall be duly informed.

CHAPTER V

PUBLIC FINANCE

GENERAL SURVEY

The present war between China and Japan has been fought not only on the battlefields but also on the economic front. It is necessary to coordinate the fiscal policy of a country with other wartime government policies in order to ensure final victory. With the Sino-Japanese War developing into one of attrition, the relative economic strength of the two countries will be severely tested. The Ministry of Finance of the National Government, therefore, has had a very important and difficult task to perform. On the one hand, it has to meet the costs of war and stabilize the currency, while, on the other, it has to devise ways and means to augment China's economic strength, so that plans for the future may be patterned and put into operation. All measures hitherto adopted have been guided by two principles: First, military operations must be accompanied by national reconstruction; second, the people's livelihood must be given due consideration in the formulation of fiscal policies.

Before the present war began, numerous financial and monetary reforms had been brought about, which have contributed greatly to the successful prosecution of the war. The strict enforcement of the budgetary system, changes in the collection of salt, consolidated and other taxes, the revision of tariff, the introduction of the income tax, excess profit tax and the wartime consumption tax, the differentiation of national from local revenues, and the readjustment of both foreign and domestic loans—have been largely responsible for the unification of China's finances and the soundness of her wartime financial structure. Other definite steps have been taken to increase the capital of the four Government banks, to extend more loans for agricultural and industrial development and to encourage thrift and savings. Of particular importance is the adoption of the legal tender policy which has given China a managed currency.

Material assistance from friendly nations has also helped in the development of interior provinces. During the past

three years, the National Government has concluded a number of financial agreements with Great Britain, the United States, and the U.S.S.R. Some of these took the form of credit loans, while others were barter arrangements. It should also be mentioned that the people, because of their implicit confidence in the National Government, have perfect faith in the legal tender notes and government bonds. Similarly praiseworthy have been the contributions from citizens at home and abroad.

China's financial outlook was stated in no uncertain terms by Dr. H. H. Kung, Vice-President of the Executive Yuan and concurrently Minister of Finance, on the fifth war anniversary on July 7, 1942, when he said: "As China enters its sixth year of war, she is admittedly confronted with many difficult problems, but her underlying economic and financial situation is fundamentally sound. I am confident that the difficulties can be sufficiently overcome so as to enable the country to increase its war effort and to play even a greater role in this world war against aggression. Moreover, China builds as she fights. The program of economic reconstruction has been accelerated despite the war and has already yielded gratifying results.

"Improvements in our fiscal system and in the currency structure will prove their effectiveness even more clearly in the coming year. The fact that we are no longer fighting alone, as we did during the first four and a half years, but as a member of the United Nations, naturally strengthens our position in the financial as well as other spheres."

SOME WARTIME FINANCIAL MEASURES

In order to achieve stability in its wartime finance the Chinese Government promulgated a set of currency regulations on September 8, 1939. According to the regulations, short-term commercial bills, warehouse certificates, corporate shares representing capital invested in productive enterprises and National Government bonds shall be included in the note reserve in addition to gold, silver and foreign exchange. However, these

securities shall not exceed 40% of the total amount of legal reserve. The law also prescribes that the Currency Reserve Board shall invite representatives of chambers of commerce in the principal provinces and municipalities to participate in the public inspection of note reserve and issue official reports on the total amount of notes in circulation as well as the actual condition of cash and security reserve.

As a measure of retrenchment, the regulations provide that all unnecessary offices and superfluous expenses of political, military and Party organizations shall be abolished or rigidly curtailed. While the central offices of the various organizations shall cut down expenses as much as possible, the administrative portion of the budget, such as salary and allowance for government employees, shall not be further reduced.

In the control of foreign exchange, the Foreign Exchange Auditing Committee is required by regulation to allot foreign exchange only to those applications dealing with goods included in the approved list of imports, thus the legitimate needs for foreign exchange may be supplied while foreign exchange quotations may be stabilized.

To make maximum use of capital in the country, the Ministry of Finance requires all banking institutions to develop savings deposits business according to the laws regulating savings banks, and invest their savings funds in productive enterprises. All banking institutions shall be called upon to participate in the expansion of financial networks in the Northwestern and Southwestern provinces by establishing a bank in each *hsien* in order to improve local conditions and help develop productive enterprises.

One of the most important financial reforms during the war is the redistribution of national and local revenues and expenditures in accordance with a resolution passed at the Eighth Plenary Session of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang held in Chungking in April, 1941. According to the new system, the nation's finances are divided into two main categories, namely, national finance and local finance, with the provincial budgets placed under the former category. The resolution calls for a new financial order to meet the war needs and to place local governments on a sound financial foundation.

Five important points in the new system are: (1) redistribution of national and local revenue and expenditure; (2) incorporation of provincial finance with national finance; (3) unification of collecting and disbursing systems and centralization of the national treasury system; (4) centralization of collectorates; and (5) readjustment of provincial indebtedness.

The Ministry of Finance called the Third National Financial Conference in June, 1941, to consider recommendations for detailed provisions for the enforcement of the new program. Provisions for the differentiation and redistribution of national and local revenues and expenditures were promulgated by the National Government on November 8, 1941.

PUBLIC TREASURY SYSTEM

The Public Treasury Law was promulgated on June 9, 1938, while regulations governing its enforcement were announced on June 27, 1939. The Central Bank of China forms the backbone in the whole system, being charged with the "disbursement, safekeeping and transfer of cash, notes and bonds and the safekeeping of title deeds of property." In places where the Central Bank has no branches, another bank or the post office may be authorized to act as its agent in handling matters relating to the Public Treasury.

In the last quarter of 1939 when the system was first started, the head office of the treasury was established in Chungking by the Central Bank of China, which acts for the Treasury Department of the Ministry of Finance. The provinces of Szechwan, Kweichow, Kwangsi, Shensi, Kansu, Hunan, Chekiang and Kiangsi also started to form treasuries in accordance with the Public Treasury Law. Enforcement of the regulations has been deferred in Sinkiang, Yunnan, Chinghai and Ningsia because of the special conditions prevailing there. The same ruling is applicable to guerilla and war areas. At the end of 1939, 150 branch treasuries were functioning in various provinces. The year 1940 saw the establishment of 209 new branches, sub-branches and agencies.

The centralization of national and provincial finance has called for the institution of a nationwide public treasury system. The system, which calls for the centralization in the national treasury of receipts and disbursements

of all Government organizations, aims to eliminate all unlawful handling of public funds by individual offices.

At the Third National Financial Conference, it was decided that the system should be operated on a national scale, with a branch treasury in every *hsien* by the end of 1943. It was also recommended that the law should take effect from January 1, 1942, in places where, due to special conditions, the Government had hitherto deferred enforcement of the program. Four measures were adopted. First, starting from 1942, for a period of two years, a network shall be completed with at least a treasury in every *hsien*. At least half of such treasuries shall be established in the first year. Second, the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications and the Farmers' Bank of China are to establish more branches and agencies so as to facilitate the program. Nearby branch banks acting for public treasuries shall send representatives to handle receipts and disbursements of Government funds in places where such treasuries have not yet been established. Third, all provincial and local banks may be authorized by the Central Bank of China as treasury agents in accordance with the stipulations between the Ministry of Finance and the Central Bank of China. Fourth, all local banks designated or authorized by the Central Bank of China as treasury agents shall continue to function as such regardless of the re-organization of the provincial finance

on national lines. Expenditures incurred in the operation of the treasury system by agent banks after July, 1941, shall be borne by the National Treasury.

Outside war areas and border provinces, at least 1,200 public treasuries shall be established in 1,200 *hsien*, out of a total of more than 1,900 *hsien* in whole China. According to the program, 600 public treasuries shall be established by the end of 1942, but by the end of September, 1942, the number had already reached 719, thereby exceeding the original goal by a wide margin. It is expected that the whole program will be completed by the end of 1943. At the same time, the network for *hsien* and municipal treasuries is also being extended in order to help establish local finance on a sound basis. The Ministry of Finance has approved the programs drawn up by the provinces of Hunan, Kwangsi, Szechwan, Shensi, Honan, Sikang, Kwangtung, Fukien and Anhwei for establishing a treasury in every important town or village in the *hsien* where the new *hsien* system is working. The new program aims at completing the network in three years beginning from 1942. To reduce the volume of money in circulation and to eliminate the possibilities of idle capital passing into enemy hands, the Ministry has drawn up regulations governing the circulation of treasury checks in the interior provinces. The following tables show the distribution of public treasuries among the Government banks and provinces of China :—

TABLE SHOWING GOVERNMENT BANKS HANDLING NATIONAL TREASURY ACTIVITIES IN 1941

Class	National Treasury	Branches	Sub-branches		Agencies		Total
			Established	Under Preparation	Established	Under Preparation	
Banks							
Central Bank of China	1	17	86	8	11	7	130
Bank of China	...	1	27	17	45
Bank of Communications	...	1	15	5	21
Farmers' Bank of China	...	1	20	3	24
Kwangsi Provincial Bank	29	29
Kwangtung Provincial Bank	67	67
Fukien Provincial Bank	50	50
Szechwan Provincial Bank	41	41
Shensi Provincial Bank	33	33
Honan Agricultural and Industrial Bank	25	25
Kansu Provincial Bank	22	22
Anhwei District Bank	34	34
Post Office	13	13
Shanghai Commercial and Savings Bank	1	...	1
TOTAL	1	20	462	33	12	7	535

DISTRIBUTION OF NATIONAL TREASURY SYSTEM BY PROVINCES IN 1941

Provinces	Class	National Treasury	Branches	Sub-branches		Agencies		Total
				Established	Under Pre-paration	Established	Under Pre-paration	
Szechwan	...	1	4	95	3	3	2	108
Hupeh	1	2	1	4
Hunan	1	9	3	5	...	18
Kwangtung	1	74	3	...	1	79
Kwangsi	1	38	1	1	...	41
Yunnan	1	6	7	14
Kweichow	1	12	2	1	...	16
Shensi	1	44	...	2	...	47
Honan	1	30	1	32
Chekiang	1	15	3	...	1	20
Fukien	1	62	4	...	1	68
Kiangsi	1	9	2	...	2	14
Ningsia	1	1
Kansu	1	27	1	29
Anhwei	1	36	1	38
Shansi	1	1
Suiyuan	1	1
Sikang	1	2	3
Chinghai	1	1
TOTAL	...	1	20	462	33	12	7	535

BUDGET

Information relating to the actual receipts and disbursements of the Government during the present emergency is not yet available for publication. The budgetary estimates for the past years were greatly increased due to military and reconstruction needs. Two things stand out prominently in the making of China's wartime budget. First, beginning from January 1, 1939,

the fiscal year was again placed on a calendar year basis. Second, beginning from January 1, 1942, all provincial revenues and expenditures were placed under the National Treasury and the provincial finance for the 31st fiscal year (1942) was amalgamated into the national budget. Ever since the system has been in operation, satisfactory results have been reported.

THE BUDGET LAW OF 1937

Following the promulgation of the budget regulations in November, 1931, the Legislative Yuan proceeded to formulate a new Budget Law, much more comprehensive in scope and designed to replace the regulations at a later date. After prolonged discussion, the Legislative Yuan passed the text of the new law at its 197th session in August, 1932 and the measure was promulgated by the Government in September of the same year. No date was set for its coming into operation, however, its promulgation being intended primarily to invite criticism and academic discussion. Later, a new text of the Budget Law was drafted. This was promulgated by the National Government on April 27, 1937. A second mandate issued on the same day decreed that this revised Budget Law should come into operation on January 1, 1938.

According to the new Budget Law, the Directorate-General of Budgets, Accounts and Statistics is in charge of budget-making activities. This organization is to have ready before October 10 of each fiscal year the general draft budget of the Central Government for the ensuing fiscal year, which draft budget, together with the "budget message" (*i.e.*, general explanatory introduction to the budget) and related documents and explanatory statistical tables, is to be sent through the Executive Yuan to the Legislative Yuan for examination and determination on or before that date.

After due examination and decision by the Legislative Yuan, the entire budget bill for the ensuing year is to be promulgated by the Government before December 1 of each year. At the discretion of the Government, those parts of the budget which are confidential in nature, may be withheld from promulgation (Article 45). In case one or more sub-votes in a budget bill, under deliberation, fail to be passed, thus rendering it impossible for the entire budget to be decided upon within the time limit set, a provisional budget (*i.e.* "vote of credit") shall be submitted to the National Government by the Legislative Yuan before December 5 of the same year (Article 46). Forthwith, the Executive Yuan shall make due revisions of such portions as have not been passed, which it shall forward, within one month after the promulgation of the provisional budget, to the Legislative Yuan for

further examination and decision and to complete the procedure of making the whole budget (Article 47).

TAXATION

Inasmuch as taxes constitute the major portion of a country's revenue in peace or war, China has accomplished the singularly extraordinary feat of revenue readjustment. As a result of many years of reform in her financial system since the establishment of the National Government in Nanking in 1928, China is now able to defray a great portion of her wartime expenditures through taxation revenues. To cope with rising prices, the Ministry of Finance has revised rates of nearly all important taxes. The improvement of the system of direct taxation is also producing gratifying results.

Increased customs duties will give China a yearly income of about \$250,000,000 with the highest rate imposed on luxuries and the lowest on industrial raw materials and daily necessities. New rates were adopted for the collection of the consolidated taxes. In September, 1941. The year 1941 saw the collection of over \$160,000,000 in consolidated taxes, an increase of more than \$90,000,000 over 1940. In addition to wheat flour, cotton yarn, rolled tobacco, wine, alcohol, cement and matches, new taxes are collected on furs, wool, oil, medicine, paper, timber, tin plates, glass, soap, porcelain and silk.

During the period between September and December, 1941, with the new rates, the salt revenues totalled over \$170,000,000, an increase of \$120,000,000 as compared with the same period in 1940. While the original amount of the salt tax was merely \$100,000,000 a year, it is expected that the new rate will increase the income by ten times.

The Central Government took over the collection of the land tax in July, 1941. It has since then been collected in kind. This change has had a delaying effect on note issue, for it reduces the amount of money in circulation.

DIRECT TAXES

Formerly playing little or no part in the nation's revenue, the income tax and the recently introduced excess profit tax and inheritance tax made up 27.37 per cent of the 1940 national budget. In 1941 revenue from direct taxes represented 27.39 per cent of the national revenue and was 27 times the total received in

the 25th fiscal year. Since the taking over of the business tax from the provincial governments in 1942, the revenue income has been further multiplied.

During the Eighth Plenary Session of the C.E.C. it was decided that the scope of direct taxation should be widened and that the levying of excess profit tax should be more strictly enforced. The Ninth Plenary Session of the C.E.C. decided that the existing direct tax rates should be increased, and that the tax should be levied on an extended range.

The first kind of direct tax to be collected was income tax, instituted in 1936. The scope was gradually enlarged to embrace five taxes at present, four of them wartime additions. They include taxes on profits, remunerations and interest yields. It is expected that a tax on the lease and sale of property will also be shortly introduced. Beside the income tax, the Direct Tax Department has been collecting excess profit income tax since January, 1939, and inheritance tax since July 1, 1940. The collection of excess profit tax alone

amounted to \$69,938,654.52 in 1941. The other two, stamp tax and business tax, were transferred to the Department on June 1, 1940 and January 1, 1942, respectively.

Taking the 25th fiscal year income tax collection as 100, the increase in direct tax revenue was 310 in 1937, 127 in 1938 (six months since China changed its fiscal year to January to December beginning in 1939), 450 in 1939, 1,289 in 1940, and 2,638 in 1941. Direct taxation in China's national income was only 4.16 per cent in the 26th fiscal year 1937. It represented 3.89 per cent in 1938, and was increased to 20.01 in 1939, 27.37 in 1940, 27.39 in 1941 and 17.23 in 1942. Collection expenses in relation to the amount collected fluctuated around five per cent. The amount was 7.13 per cent in 1936, 5.23 in 1937, 6.74 in 1938, 4.09 in 1939, 3.38 in 1940, 2.96 in 1941 and 4.13 in 1942. The percentage of expenses over collection tended to be further decreased with the increase of revenue in 1942. The following table shows the position of direct taxes in China's total national revenue receipts between 1937 and 1942:—

Year	I.	%	II.	%	III.	%	IV.	%	V.	%
1937	Customs Tax	53.04	Salt Tax	31.25	Consolidated Mining, Tobacco & Wine Taxes	10.36	Direct Tax	4.16
1938	Customs Tax	60.56	Salt Tax	22.52	Consolidated Mining, Tobacco & Wine Taxes	11.99	Direct Tax	3.89
1939	Salt Tax	31.30	Consolidated Mining, Tobacco & Wine Taxes	25.46	Customs Tax	20.48	Direct Tax	20.01
1940	Salt Tax	29.19	Direct Tax	27.37	Consolidated Mining, Tobacco & Wine Taxes	26.68	Customs Tax	13.46
1941	Salt Tax	43.04	Consolidated Mining, Tobacco & Wine Taxes	28.27	Direct Tax	27.39	Customs Tax	2.41
1942	Land Tax	61.26	Direct Tax	17.23	Customs Tax	10.60	Consolidated Mining, Tobacco & Wine Taxes	5.55	Wartime Consumption Tax	4.96

NOTE:—(1) Consolidated taxes were put on an *ad valorem* basis, beginning from 1941. The *ad valorem* rates of salt tax were raised in 1941, hence an increased receipt in revenue was registered for that year. The direct tax rates have not undergone any change in these years.

(2) The figures for 1942 represent only estimates.

(3) Land tax is represented by collection in kind from 1942. Salt tax became a national monopoly from 1942.

The collection of the business tax which was transferred to the Direct Tax Department from the provincial collection offices in accordance with a decision of the Eighth Plenary Session of the C.E.C. is being carried out smoothly. Formerly, the tax netted the provincial governments \$166,000,000 annually. Receipts for 1942 were estimated at \$400,000,000. Up to the first half of 1942, the expected amount had already been reached. The total returns for 1942 were expected to exceed the original goal by \$80,000,000 to \$100,000,000. Thirty per cent of the net returns of the business tax is appropriated to *hsien* and municipal governments as a form of subsidy from the Central Government.

Direct tax collectors are all qualified college or senior middle school graduates selected through competitive examinations. After passing these examinations, they are given special training for their work. The Department had 3,777 specially trained direct tax collectors in 1942. Of them, 1,093 were college graduates who had majored in economics, public finance, business or accounting, while 1,684 were senior middle school graduates.

To ensure better collection, direct taxes are paid into the National Treasury and its branches or agents by taxpayers themselves. There are altogether 1,686 offices in Free China receiving tax money for the Department. They include 636 branches of the National Treasury, 177 authorized banks, and 871 authorized post offices. After taking over the different provincial business tax bureaus, the Direct Tax Department has now 16 provincial offices, 208 branch offices, and 609 sub-stations over Free China, totalling 833. The amount of business tax collected in the first five months of 1942 has surpassed that of the total figure reported by the different provinces in 1941.

The annual estimate for direct taxes has greatly increased in the last few years. The actual receipts have also shown corresponding gains. Revenue from income tax, excess profit tax, stamp tax and inheritance tax was estimated at \$135,000,000 in 1941, while actually \$171,157,708.12 was collected. The estimate for 1942 totalled \$470,000,000, which, with an addition of \$400,000,000 for the business tax, made a grand total of \$870,000,000. Actually \$1,021,499,006.90 was collected in 1942 from both sources.

COLLECTION OF LAND TAX IN KIND

In accordance with resolutions of the Eighth Plenary Session of the Central Executive Committee, the Central Government, beginning from July, 1941, took over the land tax from the provincial Government and also instituted the collection of the land tax in kind. Since its enforcement, satisfactory results have been reported. By the end of 1941, 22 provincial land tax administrations were established. Under them were 1,243 *hsien* administrations which operated chains of collecting offices numbering some 6,910 in busy months and 6,482 in tardy months. In addition to collecting the land tax in kind, compulsory purchases of grain were also made by the Government. Food collected and purchased by the Government is used to supply the army and civil servants. Any surplus is sold to the public at regulated prices.

Twenty-one provinces enforced the new program in 1941, while Shantung and Chinghai, where special conditions prevailed, were classed as experimental areas. In November, 1942, the Central Government reported that 24,489,956 *shih* piculs of unhusked rice were collected in lieu of the land tax for 1941. The total exceeded the original goal of 22,938,496 *shih* piculs by seven per cent. The Government also purchased 4,365,829 *shih* piculs of rice, 13,469,278 *shih* piculs of unhusked rice and 4,746,058 bags of wheat from these provinces in 1941.

The collection and purchase for 1942 were started in September, 1942, to be completed in the early fall of 1943. The 1942 total was originally set at 80,000,000 *shih* piculs. Due to famines in provinces like Honan and Hupeh and the extension of the war areas, the quota was reduced to 68,000,000 *shih* piculs, 34,500,000 *shih* piculs of which represented collections and 33,500,000 purchases. These figures were reported by Dr. H. H. Kung, to the People's Political Council late in October, 1942. A later report issued by the Land Tax Commission of the Ministry of Finance revealed that the total was reduced to 66,555,748 *shih* piculs, including 34,374,074 *shih* piculs from collections and 32,181,674 *shih* piculs from purchases. The quotas for, and ratios of, collections in kind and food purchases for different provinces vary according to local conditions. In areas where no or little rice is grown, the land tax in kind is collected in other

foodstuffs, such as wheat, kaoliang and barley. The Central Government decided to collect the land tax in Shensi province in cotton, which is abundant there. For the purchases of foodstuffs, the Government pays 70 per cent of the price in food treasury notes and 30 per cent in cash.

In 1941, the administrative functions for the collection of the land tax in kind and for compulsory purchases were separated and the latter was entrusted to the Ministry of Food. Beginning from 1942, the administration was centralized in the Land Tax Commission in accordance with a resolution of the Ninth Plenary Session of the C.E.C. Under the new

scheme, the Commission handles the collection and purchase, while the Ministry of Food handles the storage and distribution of the foodstuffs so collected and purchased by the Government. In July, 1942, the Ministry of Finance called a special conference of responsible local officials who were instructed to make tours to further the program in the provinces. In addition to measures strengthening the *hsien* collecting offices, the meeting decided to publicize the movement in rural communities and to train personnel for such work. Representatives were also sent by the Ministries of Finance and Food to the provinces to supervise and advise on matters relating to food control.

TAXES UNDER THE INTERNAL REVENUE ADMINISTRATION, OCTOBER, 1942

Categories	Names of Articles	Rates	Means of Collection	Centers of Collection
Mineral Products Tax	Coal, Iron, Petrol ...	5%	Collected at Places of Production if Amount is Big. Otherwise Collected at First Tax Office or on Monthly Production Average	Szechwan, Yunnan, Hunan and Kiangsi
	Other Products ...	10%		
Consolidated Tax	Rolled Tobacco ...	80%	Collected at Places of Manufacture	Sian, Chungking
	Flue-Cured Tobacco Leaves ...	25%	Collected at Places of Production	Honan, Szechwan
	Foreign-Style Wine and Beer ...	60%	Collected at Factories	
	Aerated Water ...	20%	Collected by Resident Representatives	Szechwan, Kwangtung, Hunan, Shensi
	Alcohol (ordinary) ...	20%	Collected at Distilleries	
	„ (refined) ...	10%		
	„ (for liquid fuel) ...	5%		
	Matches ...	20%	Collected by Resident Representatives	Szechwan, Yunnan, Kiangsi
	Sugar ...	15%	Collected at Refineries	Szechwan, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Fukien, Kiangsi
	Cement ...	15%	Collected at Factories	Szechwan, Hunan
	Cotton Yarn ...	3.5%	Collected at Mills	Various Ports of Entry and Chungking
	Flour ...	2.5%	Collected at Mills	Shensi, Szechwan, Hunan
Tobacco and Wine Taxes	Tobacco Leaf ...	30%	Collected at Places of Production	Fukien, Kwangtung, Kansu
	Tobacco ...	15%	Collected at Places of Production	Fukien
	Wine (Fixed rate) ...	50%	Collected at Places of Production	Chekiang, Kiangsi
	„ (Increased rate) ...	20%		

In the preceding list, by far the largest number of taxes come under the classification of consolidated taxes under the Internal Revenue Administration of the Ministry of Finance. These are administered on the principle that a commodity may be subject to one tax only, collected only once, preferably at the place of production and be subsequently free from further levies elsewhere. Unlike the customs and salt revenues, the consolidated taxes have a comparatively short history. The system came into operation in January, 1928, when the rolled tobacco (cigars and cigarettes) consolidated tax was first instituted. As other classes of consolidated taxes were added to the list, their volume of revenue increased from year to year to rival in importance both the customs and salt revenues. Thus the budget estimate of collections from the consolidated taxes for the 26th fiscal year (1937-38) reached \$176,000,000, while in 1928, the actual collection of the rolled tobacco tax, the only consolidated tax then existent, totalled only a little over \$2,000,000.

Naturally the present war has had a serious effect on the collection of the consolidated taxes. With the destruction of most of the cigarette and cigar factories and cotton mills situated in war areas, the amount of consolidated tax collected has decreased considerably. Stations have been established at various places to effect the collection of consolidated taxes, particularly on commodities coming in from the war areas. At the same time provisions are made to exempt merchants from paying taxes on certain export goods in order to encourage export trade. Formerly most of the consolidated tax rates were fixed in terms of the quantity of the goods. These were shifted to an *ad valorem* basis in September, 1941, on account of the price situation. The rates of the consolidated taxes on rolled tobacco, cotton yarn, matches, cement, flour and alcohol were increased on different occasions. Increases in the rates on sugar and flue-cured tobacco were left to the discretion of the provincial authorities. With the revision of the consolidated tax rates, all regional levies of a duplicate nature have been abolished.

According to a set of provisional measures adopted at the Executive Yuan meeting on June 30, 1942, consolidated taxes on cotton yarn and flour were to be collected in kind by resident representatives of the Internal

Revenue Administration from cotton or flour mills. The consolidated tax collection office is charged with collecting the tax in kind on such goods imported from abroad or shipped in from the occupied areas. The goods thus collected are handed over to the Ministry's price stabilization organizations for distribution. Proceeds derived from the sale of goods thus collected are considered taxation income.

With the promulgation of the Mining Law in 1930, mining taxes were divided into those on mining concessions and those on mining products. The latter tax, as provided in Article II of the Law, should be collected by the Ministry of Finance. With the exception of gold, the taxation of which has been temporarily suspended, 32 minerals and mining products are being taxed. They are divided into: Class A, coal; Class B, iron; Class C, other metals, and Class D, other non-metals. The method of collection is similar to the consolidated tax system. In larger production centers, the taxes are collected by resident representatives of the Administration. In smaller mines, the products are taxed according to the average production monthly or according to actual quantities checked at the first consolidated tax office.

MONOPOLY OF DAILY NECESSITIES

The monopoly of important daily articles was decided at the Eighth Plenary Session of the C.E.C. in order to "readjust the demand and supply of consumers' goods and to regulate their prices." The goods selected for this monopoly scheme are salt, sugar, tobacco, wine, matches and tea. A committee for the planning of the national monopoly enterprises was then immediately established under the Ministry of Finance. With the exception of wine and tea, the monopoly of which has been postponed, sugar, tobacco and matches were nationalized under the direction of the new Department of Monopoly Enterprises in 1942. The salt monopoly, which was inaugurated on January 1, 1942, is administered by the Directorate-General of the Salt Administration. Three regional bureaus for sugar monopoly were set up for Szechwan-Sikang, Kwangtung-Kwangsi and Fukien-Kiangsi areas. A monopoly bureau and a monopoly corporation were formed for the nationalization of tobacco and matches, respectively. The following table shows the dates and areas for the enforcement of monopoly on salt, sugar, tobacco and matches:—

Commodity	Date	Area
Salt	January 1, 1942	Nationwide
Sugar	February 15, 1942 August 16, 1942 September 1, 1942	Szechwan, Sikang, Kweichow Kwangtung, Kwangsi Fukien, Kiangsi
Tobacco	July 1, 1942	Szechwan, Sikang, W. Hupeh
Matches	May 1, 1942 September 15, 1942 October 1, 1942	Szechwan, Sikang, Kweichow Yunnan Fukien

The institution of monopoly enterprises in China aims at both increasing the nation's revenue and at stabilizing the prices of important daily necessities. The cost of production together with a legal profit quota (maximum of 20 per cent for matches, tobacco and sugar in Szechwan-Sikang area and 15 per cent for sugar in Kwangtung-Kwangsi area), form the basis for the "buying rates" of the monopolized articles. The "buying rates," again, plus a government "premium on monopoly" (50 per cent on tobacco excluding consolidated taxes, 30 per cent on sugar including 15 per cent for consolidated taxes, and approximately 20 per cent on matches excluding consolidated taxes), constitute the market wholesale prices. The legitimate profit of the wholesale merchants, transportation and other charges, are quoted in addition to the wholesale prices, when the goods are sold to retail dealers. In all cases, the Government standardizes the prices and guarantees a legitimate profit for those engaged in the trade. Special attention is given to improve the quality and increase the production of monopolized goods.

For the time being the Government does not actually buy the stock of monopolized goods because of the large capital required for such an undertaking. The Government, however, may buy a portion of the monopolized goods under necessary circumstances. The only exception is salt, which is purchased, although on a partial basis only, by the Government.

The production and manufacture of monopolized goods are still in the hands of private owners. The Government

only supervises their activities so that better raw materials may be used and new methods employed in their production. With the institution of salt monopoly on January 1, 1942, all previous practices both of private regional monopolies and free dealers have been declared null and void. The salt monopoly is operated on the basis of (1) production by the people, (2) purchase and transportation by the Government, and (3) distribution and sale by commercial firms. The 1942 quota of production was 24,000,000 piculs for the provinces of Szechwan, Yunnan, Kansu, Shensi, Kwangtung, Chekiang and Fukien. Attention has been devoted to the improvement of the production method and of the quality of salt. In Szechwan and Sikang provinces, refined salt is being produced. Whenever possible, labour-saving devices have been employed in salt-making. To reduce the presence of goitre among some people in Yunnan, iodine is added to table salt in that province.

Government purchase of all the salt produced has not been possible. Up to the present, only Kansu, Shensi, Yunnan, Fukien, and Chekiang provinces have started the new system. In Szechwan and Kwangtung, the system is only partially realized. Meanwhile, the Government is strengthening its control in transportation and, in certain cases, has entered into partnership with private business for salt shipment. In others, private dealers play the role of freight agents for the Government. These steps are deemed expedient since it requires much less capital on the part of the Government

to achieve its purpose. China's salt production in 1941 was 19,200,000 piculs. The Government has shipped from war areas 30,000 piculs of salt to the rear since the war started.

On the basis of the present cost of production and transportation, it is estimated that \$2,600,000,000 is needed to purchase the entire amount of salt in interior provinces. The capital available for this work is only \$880,000,000. To make up the deficit, the Directorate-General of Salt Administration of the Ministry of Finance is making maximum use of private capital. At the same time, to relieve the big demand for ready cash, papers from salt producers with salt as security may be mortgaged or discounted at commercial banks, with payments guaranteed by the Salt Administration.

There are 24 branches, 67 business offices and two transportation offices under the Sugar Monopoly Bureau for Szechwan-Sikang. Its main task in the fall of 1942 was to regulate and fix the prices of different grades of sugar at different places. The monopoly bureau for Kwangtung-Kwangsi is located at Kweilin, with an associate office at Kukong for Kwangtung province. Under the bureau are 10 branches and 40 sub-branches. The bureau in Fukien-Kiangsi was being formed at the end of 1942. Organizations for match and tobacco monopolies were also completed by the end of 1942.

In the national budget for 1942, Government profit from the institution of monopolies was listed at \$1,160,000,000 from salt, \$121,500,000 from sugar, \$82,280,000 from matches and \$200,000,000 from tobacco. According to reports available in October, 1942, salt monopoly between January 1 and the end of August, 1942, netted the Government \$711,650,000, a nine times' increase over corresponding periods in the past. The expected annual amount of salt revenue is \$1,000,000,000. Sugar monopoly in Szechwan-Sikang between February 15 and the end of July, 1942, netted \$53,920,000 for the Government. For the two months between May 1 and the end of June, 1942, the Government received a profit of \$1,090,000 from the match monopoly. It was estimated the Government monopoly profit on tobacco for 1942 would reach \$120,000,000.

CUSTOMS REVENUE

In 1927, the Customs Administration was established in the Ministry of Finance

for the supervision of the work entrusted to the Inspectorate-General of Customs. The Inspectorate-General of Customs, operating directly under the Customs Administration, was moved from Shanghai to Chungking after the outbreak of the Pacific War.

Chinese maritime customs stations numbered 36 before the war broke out. Following the Japanese seizure of most of the stations in the occupied areas, the Ministry of Finance established various commodity inspection offices near war areas and at transportation centers in order to control exports and imports. Some of these offices, reorganized into customs stations in January, 1942, are located at Shangjao, Kukong, Loyang, Sian and Lanchow.

The Chinese maritime customs was originally divided into import, export and interport tariffs. On account of treaty restrictions, until 1929 all imports were taxed on a flat 5% *ad valorem* basis. The returns were consequently small. With the attainment of tariff autonomy in 1929, the uniform 5% *ad valorem* was abolished. In its stead was inaugurated a new set of tariff rates divided into seven categories ranging from 7.5% to 27.5%. The import tariffs were revised in 1930 and twelve different rates ranging from 5% to 50% were instituted. Three subsequent revisions were made. In addition to changing the tariff unit from Haikwan taels into Customs Gold Units, the maximum rate for imported goods reached 80% *ad valorem*. The revisions were made to accommodate the changing conditions of international trade and domestic production. Following the enforcement of the new rates, the revenue returns showed marked increases. The new rates also resulted in a selective control over the goods imported. Foodstuffs have given way to machinery, iron and steel. In addition to import duties, a revenue surtax and a flood relief surtax of 5% each have been instituted as a measure to replenish customs revenue.

Formerly, export duties were subject to the same restrictions as import duties on a uniform 5% *ad valorem* basis. The restoration of tariff autonomy has not witnessed any change in the *ad valorem* rates inasmuch as the 5% flat rate plus 2.5% surtax was continued for some time afterwards. Export duties on the basis of the quantity of the goods had to be modified, because before the tariff autonomy was restored actually only

3% was collected. The loss to the customs revenue, hence, was considerable. When the tariff was again revised in May, 1931, *ad valorem* rates remained at 7.5%, while rates based on the quantity of goods were increased to 5%. Another revision was made in 1934, when lists of duty-free and duty-reduced goods were announced. All native goods bearing upon the promotion of China's export trade paid little or no tariff. The 5% revenue surtax and flood relief surtax were, however, collected together with the export duties.

The export tariff on native goods in transit was changed into interport tariff in 1931 and the 5% rate was still applied in order to make it lower than the export tax. The interport tax and all regional levies on goods in transit were substituted by a wartime consumption tax in April, 1942. The latter is collected for once only on the dutiables, and is divided into four classes ranging from 5% on necessities to 25% on luxuries. The tax is limited to specified native goods not already listed in the consolidated taxes as well as imported luxuries on which are levied heavy duties. All duty-free or duty-reduced imported daily necessities are exempt from the wartime consumption tax. Similarly the raw materials and manufactures thereof which have to be transported between the factories or godowns in the suburbs and the city are free from duty. All goods which are vital to people's livelihood and are produced domestically such as rice, wheat, cereals, vegetables, firewood, and charcoal are also exempt from the tax. The tax is collected according to the same procedure as that of the customs taxes. In August, 1942, measures for the enforcement of the tax were revised. The new ruling provides that goods dutiable for less than \$20 are exempt from levy. The customs was instructed to work expeditiously in collecting the tax and for urgent business to keep office 24 hours a day. Native goods are taxed by the customs station nearest their production centers, while imported goods are taxed at their ports of entry, together with the import duties. The evaluation of home-made goods is based on the average wholesale price over the last three-month period at the nearest production centre. Imported articles are evaluated according to the import duty assessment. Of the 245 groups of taxable goods, 19 only are included in the new list. The number of taxable goods in

a province vary from four to fourteen according to productive conditions. In the four months between April 15 and August 15, 1942, revenue returns from the wartime consumption tax totalled more than \$200,000,000.

LOAN SERVICES

The total amount of payments on debt service made by the Chinese Government between July, 1937 and the end of 1941 amounted to N.C. \$1,210,378,912, C.G.U. 13,925,000, £9,602,959, U.S. \$31,717,746, Frs. 76,828 and 212,673 guilders. These amounts represent only portions of prewar national debts paid and do not include the amortization of capital and payments of interest on loans concluded since the war started.

Of the total, \$530,414,900 were paid in the first 21 months of the war between July, 1937 and March, 1939. Out of this amount, \$198,764,508 was paid out for foreign obligations and \$331,650,392 for domestic loans.

In September, 1938, in face of the Japanese detention of, and interference with the salt tax collected in the war zones, the Chinese Government was constrained to defer payment on principal then due on the Anglo-French Loan of 1908 and the Crisp Loan of 1912, both of which are secured on salt revenue. The interest payments on these and other salt-secured loans, however, were duly met.

With regard to the customs duties, the actual receipts, as a result of the hostilities, were insufficient to meet customs-secured obligations. Yet the Chinese Government still authorized the Inspector-General of Customs to overdraw at the Central Bank of China from time to time so as to meet payments during the 18-month period ending December 31, 1938.

The Chinese Government was finally forced to take reluctant action. From January 15, 1939, the Ministry of Finance declined to make further advances, and instructed the Inspector-General to open special accounts in the Central Bank of China. Varying sums are deposited from time to time for the future settlement of loans secured on the customs duties. These deposits are proportionate to the share of the customs revenue collected in areas not subject to Japanese interference.

The principal and interest payments on the Anglo-German Loan of 1898 which fell due on March 1, 1939, were met, however, as a special case. By January 15, 1939, the Ministry of Finance had already paid to the fiscal agents five-sixths of the necessary amount, and funds to meet the remainder were in the hands of the Inspector-General of Customs so that no further advance was required.

With regard to the two domestic loans, five-sixths of the principal and interest payments due on the 25th Year Consolidated Loan for the six months ending January 31, 1939, were ready at the end of 1938. The deficiency was met from the surplus which had been previously accumulated by the National Loans Sinking Fund Administration, and so both these loans were paid.

In relation to salt-secured loans the Government took action similar to that of January 15 concerning customs loans. As a special case, however, the interest due April 5, 1939, on the Anglo-French Loan of 1908 was paid because the fiscal agents had on hand funds sufficient to cover the payment of this coupon. As to other salt loan payments, funds to cover a share of the service are being set aside as special accounts in the Central Bank of China.

Regarding China's loan situation, Dr. H. H. Kung stated on the occasion of the fifth war anniversary, in part: "China's scrupulous anxiety to honor her obligations continued even in wartime. Despite the seizure by the enemy of pledged revenues, without any provision for applying them to debt service, China maintained her foreign currency debt payments right up to 1939. Payments were temporarily suspended only with the greatest reluctance when the situation became patently anomalous and the remaining foreign currency funds had to be conserved for war purposes and for currency reserves.

"The granting of the American wood oil credit of U.S. \$25,000,000 in December, 1938, was a major event whereby a friendly country manifested its realization of the importance of China's cause against aggression. There were also the series of barter agreements with Soviet Russia, additional American credits for purchases secured by exports of minerals, the British stabilization credit of 1939 and British export guarantee credits, the Sino-American-British stabilization credits of 1941, culminating

in the American lend-lease arrangement and the large American and British financial assistance agreements recently concluded. While China has relied above all on her own financial efforts, the extension of external aid greatly assists her in financing war needs and maintaining economic stability."

Between 1935 and 1941 numerous credit loans were granted to China by foreign nations, principally by the U.S.A. and Great Britain. The loans were to be invested in materials and products to be used in promoting means of transportation in China. Prior to the hostilities, China's national debt was, roughly, equivalent to \$4,500,000,000, 60 per cent of which was internal debt.

All the credit loans were transactions between two governments, unaccompanied by the flotation or issue of bonds. There was no schedule for repayment. In many cases refunds of those credits had to be effected in kind, in terms of commodities from China, such as wood oil, tin, tungsten, antimony. Considerable advances, mostly of war materials, were made by the U.S.S.R. in the course of 1939 and 1941 under barter arrangements. China furnished the U.S.S.R. with tea and other commodities.

In general, the six years under review saw great changes in the composition of China's loans, domestic as well as foreign. The two outstanding features are: (a) the sincere desire on the part of the Chinese Government to resume loan payments and interest in arrears on equitable terms, and (b) the flotation by force of circumstances of large new loans, all of which bear the stamp "war."

LOANS ISSUED DURING THE WAR

The first domestic loan floated by the Government after the outbreak of the war was \$500,000,000 in National Liberty Bonds. This loan is different from other loans as it bears a lower interest rate, *i.e.*, 4 per cent annually, while the repayments of capital did not begin until 1941 and would extend over a period of thirty years. In spite of low interest and late maturity, subscriptions to this loan poured in from all sections of the nation as well as from overseas Chinese.

In May, 1938, another loan of \$500,000,000 was floated for the purpose of replenishing funds for national defence. This was called the 27th Year National Defence Loan. The loan was issued at par, bearing annual 6 per cent interest,

payable semi-annually on April 30 and October 31, and is secured on income tax collections.

Simultaneously with the issuance of the 27th Year National Defence Loan, the issuance of another loan, the 27th Year Gold Loan, in customs gold units, pounds sterling, and U.S. dollars was authorized. The amounts issued were C.G.U. 100,000,000; £10,000,000 and US \$50,000,000.

For the relief of refugees, the 27th Year Relief Loan was authorized in July, 1938. Whereas the issue authorized was \$100,000,000, only the first instalment of \$30,000,000 was floated on July 1, 1938, the remainder to be issued when and as the Ministry of Finance sees fit. Interest of this loan is secured on the reserve fund for relief set aside in the national budget, while repayment of principal is to be made from the general revenue account of the Rational Treasury.

In 1939, the 28th Year Military Supplies Bonds amounting to \$600,000,000 were issued. Another loan, called the 28th Year Reconstruction Loan, was issued in 1939. The 29th Year Military Supplies Bonds, amounting to \$1,200,000,000, was floated in 1940, while an additional one of £10,000,000 and US \$50,000,000, was floated in 1940 for carrying out various reconstruction projects in interior China. The year 1941 saw the floating of two new loans, the 30th Year War Supplies Loan and the 30th Year Reconstruction Loan, each of \$1,200,000,000. For 1942, China issued the Allied Victory Bonds of \$1,000,000,000 and the Allied Victory Gold Bonds of US \$100,000,000, totalling NC \$2,700,000,000. In addition, China concluded a US \$500,000,000 financial aid arrangement with the United States in March, 1942. The purpose of the two former loans is to effect a balance in the national budget, to stabilize the price level, to strengthen the monetary system, and to absorb idle capital, while that of the latter loan is primarily to help stabilize China's wartime finance and economy. Part of this loan is being used as reserve for the Allied Victory Gold Bonds and gold dollar savings certificates.

In order to promote the sales of bonds among the people, the Ministry of Finance organized the Wartime Government Bonds Promotion Commission in March, 1941. By the end of April, 1942, a total of \$453,130,000 worth of bonds had been sold. The Commission

was reorganized into the Wartime Government Bonds Subscription Commission in May, 1942.

THE BOXER INDEMNITY

The original sum of the Boxer Indemnity payable by China aggregated Kaping taels 450,000,000, plus an annual interest of 4 per cent. This obligation was at the time converted into sterling at the rate of exchange of 3 shillings per tael, yielding £146,518,585.

The original sum due to United States was US \$53,348,000. In 1908 the United States authorized its President to modify the indemnity bond to US \$13,655,192 and to remit the balance in favor of China. This act of friendship induced China to use the funds thus obtained for the education of Chinese students in American colleges. Out of the returned Boxer funds the Tsing Hwa College, now the Tsinghua University, was erected in Peking (now Peiping) in 1911.

In May, 1924, the U.S. Senate decided to remit the balance of the American Boxer Indemnity share, amounting to US \$6,137,552, for the purpose of further developing cultural and educational activities in China.

Since then America has agreed to waive all further claims on China from this source. Though nominally instalments are still due to the creditor, they are administered by a board which devotes the entire proceeds toward educational purposes.

Russia obtained the largest share in the Boxer Indemnity, namely, £42,476,000, or 29% of the total amount. But in 1924 the U.S.S.R. relieved China from further obligations by relinquishing unconditionally all claims for further payments. China continued to use the funds under the old heading of "Russia Boxer Indemnity" as security for two internal loans which, at the opening of 1936, stood at \$132,360,000. But from February 1, 1936, onward China's domestic loans were consolidated into one group, and simultaneously all were henceforth secured by China's Customs revenue without further connection with the Boxer Indemnity. Thus Russia's portion ceased to exist in 1924 and disappeared definitely from all records on February 1, 1936.

Originally, France's share in the Boxer Indemnity was Frs. 580,000,000, which then represented the equivalent of

£23,023,000. Instalment payments were regularly made, apart from the five-year period during the First World War, when they were postponed by mutual agreement. In 1925 the French Boxer Indemnity ceased to exist as such, since the total amount then outstanding was used to satisfy the claims of the Far Eastern creditors of the Banque Industrielle de Chine. A separate loan was floated in 1935 for this specific purpose for the sum of US \$43,893,500.

Britain's claim originally amounted to £16,537,000. A five-year postponement was granted to China during the First World War. In December, 1922, the following sums were due Great Britain under the style of "Boxer Indemnity:" Principal £6,935,319, interest £4,251,228, or altogether £11,186,547, payable by 1945.

By Parliamentary Act of June 30, 1925, it was resolved to remit the entire balance accumulated since December, 1922, as well as whatever was due until 1945, to China for cultural purposes. An Advisory Committee of eleven members was formed, of whom at least two were to be of Chinese nationality. It was proposed to devote 30% of available funds to agricultural education, 23% to scientific research, 17% to medicine and public health, and 30% to other educational purposes. Proposals for the creation of an endowment fund, the proceeds of which to be used for the building of railways in China, were perfected and considered.

In December, 1931, the Indemnity Bill was read in the British Parliament, repealing the China Indemnity Act of 1925 and replacing it by a law, providing for the reservation of one-half of all sums received from the Boxer Indemnity for a newly created Purchasing Commission in London, while the other half was to be devoted to educational purposes as recommended by the advisory board. The Purchasing Commission was to buy and ship to China such machinery and railway materials as are required by the Chinese Government for reconstruction purposes.

Two sterling loans are secured on the British portion of the Boxer Indemnity. The Chinese Government 23rd Year (1934) 6% Indemnity Loan for £1,500,000 was floated by the Central Bank of China, the Bank of China and the Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corporation for the final completion of the Canton-Hankow Railway. A loan to

the Hwai River Commission called the Sassoon Loan of January, 1937, for £238,000 at 6½ per cent interest, was paid over in four instalments in 1935.

Holland's original share in the Boxer Fund was Guilders 3,066,000 or £225,000. In 1934 the Netherlands authorities followed in the footsteps of other nations by remitting the balance of the then outstanding amounts to be used for conservancy work. Final payment of annual instalments of Guilders 110,344 was originally due in 1940, but owing to the current warfare in China the servicing of this item, as with all the other countries, ceased after the end of 1938. Holland also has abandoned all claims on the Boxer Indemnity.

In 1928 the unused portion of the Belgian Boxer Indemnity ceased to exist. It was converted into a special loan of US \$5,000,000. Proceeds were used entirely for the benefit of China, namely, 40% for the extension and repairs of the Lunghai railway, 35% for the construction of other railroads in China and the remaining 25% for educational and charitable purposes within this country. The bulk of the loan was already paid off when the servicing of all Customs loans ceased. A balance of approximately US \$1,000,000 was still outstanding when the foreign loan service was suspended. The original amount due to Belgium was Frs. 69,447,000, or £2,759,000.

The initial sum due to Italy by the Boxer Fund was Frs. 218,868,000, equal then to £8,659,000, later converted into U.S. currency. In 1933, it was arranged with Italy for the remittance of the still outstanding balance of the Italian share of the Boxer Indemnity, then amounting to about US \$20,000,000. Italy agreed under certain conditions to be a creditor of China. China raised a loan of \$44,000,000 from Chinese banks, giving them as security bonds based on the remitted balance of the Italian Boxer Indemnity.

The initial claim of Japan aggregated Yen 106,854,000, equal to £10,899,000. During the First World War, Japan, then one of the allies, agreed to a five-year postponement of payment by China. At the close of 1922 negotiations began between the two countries to try to find a mutual, suitable basis for the disposal of the outstanding balance. Negotiations continued for some years, but no definite agreement was reached. China continued

to remit what was due to Japan in sterling to London, payable to the Yokohama Specie Bank. Japan converted the proceeds into yen, invested the funds and used some of the interest for educational activities in China. A biological research institute was maintained in Shanghai, an Institute of Literature was established in Peiping and schools were opened in other parts of China. The committee administering the Japanese Boxer Fund, in contradistinction to all the other committees of a similar purpose, is composed of Japanese only. In 1938 the Chinese Government ceased paying monthly instalments due to Japan.

Germany was the second largest recipient of the Boxer Fund, her share being originally MKs. 600,271,000, or £29,442,000. When China joined the allies in 1917, she still owed Germany £22,920,000. This sum was cancelled when China and Germany signed the peace treaty. China used the balance of Germany's share in the Boxer Indemnity as security for domestic loans.

Originally, Austria claimed Kronen 31,418,000, equal to £1,313,000. In 1917, when China declared war, on the Central Powers, the sum still due to Austria stood at £1,022,000. The amount was cancelled when the war ended. The unused portion was employed by China as security for domestic loans.

There were some smaller claims, notably Portugal with £30,203, Sweden £20,568 and other international amounts for less than £50,000. The bulk of these has been liquidated.

FINANCIAL ADMINISTRATION

There was no fundamental change in China's financial administration in the first four years of the war. During that period, personnel for financial administration was reduced and a number of subsidiary organs and offices were abolished as a result of retrenchment measures. Beginning from the latter part of 1941, a number of additions were made in the Ministry of Finance. The organic law of the Ministry was revised for the second time in August, 1942. The new revised law was passed from the Executive Yuan to the Legislative Yuan in August, 1942, but has not been promulgated yet. Among the new organizations created were the Commission for the Control of Foreign Assets, established in September, 1941, the Government Bonds Subscription Commission, established in

May, 1942 and the Land Tax Readjustment Commission established in August, 1941, which was reorganized into the Land Tax Commission in May, 1942. The Levies and Taxation Department was merged into the Local Finance Department in July, 1942, while the Smuggling Prevention Bureau was enlarged to become the Smuggling Prevention Administration in August, 1942. The Department of Monopoly Enterprises was created in July, 1942. Other possible changes include the reorganization of the Direct Tax Department into the Direct Tax Administration, the Internal Revenue Administration into the National Revenue Administration, and the reorganization of the Currency Department into the Currency Administration.

LOCAL FINANCE

Up to recent times, local finance in China had within its purview the province only, leaving out almost entirely the *hsien*. During the Second Financial Conference convened in May, 1934, in Nanking, emphasis was placed, however, on *hsien* finance and this immediately had the salutary effect of calling public attention to this subject. The Conference recommended that the *hsien* must complete the compilation of its budget for a particular year and submit it to its provincial government and thence to the Ministry of Finance for perusal and approval prior to the opening of the fiscal year. The *hsien* was also prohibited from collecting any taxes, dues or levies other than those specified in the budget. By instituting the local budgetary system, it was made possible to supervise more effectively the general administration of financial affairs in the *hsien* and the execution of such important measures as readjustment of illegal imposts, amalgamation of collectorates and unification of the local treasury system.

Although *hsien* budgeting has made considerable progress in the last few years, there is still much to be done to ensure full development. The introduction of the new *hsien* autonomy system, which calls for bigger expenditures to finance its projects, presents the opportunity for such development. In accordance with the resolutions of the Eighth Plenary Session of the C.E.C. and at the recommendation of the Third National Financial Conference, the Government gave a year starting from July, 1942, to readjust local finance in such a thorough way as to help make

the *hsien* financially self-sufficient through a rational distribution of expenses, development of sources of revenue and reform in financial administration. The program aims at establishing a local revenue system, liquidating public properties and funds, instituting budgetary measures and developing reconstruction projects in villages and small towns. Provisions for reconstruction projects were promulgated in May, 1942. Other provisions include the collection of house and butchery taxes by local governments. By October, 1942, house tax had been collected by *hsien* governments in fourteen provinces and butchery tax in sixteen provinces. The Ministry of Finance also ordered *hsien* governments to levy taxes on business licences, special operation licences, feasts and amusements. Toward the end of 1942, business licence tax was being collected in sixteen provinces, special operations licence tax in twelve, and feast and amusement taxes in ten provinces. The Ministry ordered provincial departments of finance to send out circuit representatives to help plan, advise and supervise on matters relating to the administration of local finance. The Central Government appropriated to *hsien* and municipal governments portions of the land tax, business tax, revenue stamps and inheritance tax totalling more than \$290,000,000 for the 31st fiscal year. In addition, the National Treasury gave more than \$350,000,000 to local governments in the form of subsidies. As a result of these measures, *hsien* and municipal government budgets registered phenomenal increases in the last few years and the foundation of local finance in China has been laid on a solid basis.

The centralization of national and local finances has been accompanied by a systematization of all the revenue offices in the nation. Taxation bureaus have been established in *hsien* and municipalities for the collection of national and local taxes. These bureaus took the place of all previous provincial and *hsien* taxation agencies and are directly under the supervision of the Central Government. This step precludes the centralization of revenue-collecting organizations of *hsien* and municipalities as individual units.

In October, 1941, the Ministry of Finance established the Provincial Loans Readjustment Commission to study the conditions of provincial indebtedness

and to plan for its readjustment. In accordance with a resolution of the Eighth Plenary Session of the Central Executive Committee, beginning from 1942 the issuance of bonds by provincial governments was to stop. The ban also applies to those bonds for 1942, the issuance of which had been approved by the Central Government. All unsold bonds up to the end of 1941 were turned over to the local agencies of the National Treasury for safekeeping. The provincial departments of finance were instructed to pay in full the amounts of capital and interest due before the end of 1941. Amortization of capital and payment of interest beginning from January, 1942, are to be met by the National Treasury. The Ministry also sent representatives to the provinces to investigate the bond-issuing situation. Later, representatives were sent to take over the provincial bond administration. According to the latest reports, provincial bonds in Fukien, Kiangsi, Shensi and Chekiang provinces have been taken over by the Central Government. In Hunan and Kansu provinces, the work is in the process of being carried out.

Because of the more complicated nature of the bonds in Szechwan (these being administered jointly by the provincial department of finance and respective committees for the custody of sinking funds), different periods were set for the Central Government to take over different batches of bonds in that province. After the Central Government has taken over all the provincial bonds outstanding at the beginning of 1942, a plan based on the nature of the various bonds will be worked out for effecting their readjustment.

CHINA'S FUTURE FINANCIAL FOUNDATION

"China's future financial foundation is laid on solid rocks," wrote Dr. H. H. Kung, in the *Economic Bulletin* of the Central Bank of China of which he is governor. "Although the greatest danger to China's finance seems to be in the inflation of her currency," continued Dr. Kung, "the Government efforts of control have been both relentless and effective. The system of China's legal tender, although it has only a brief history, has not only withstood the sinister economic designs of the Japanese, but has actually shown increasing strength year by year."

Two reasons may be given for the soundness of China's currency condition,

according to Dr. Kung. The first is the adequate reserve behind the note-issue. Although the note-issue has increased during the war, its reserve has increased correspondingly. The Chinese Government adopted measures for Government purchase of gold and silver at official prices and established the Gold Mining Bureau to help increase gold production. All the precious metals thus obtained are used for currency reserve. The conclusion of the most recent Sino-American and Sino-British financial aid arrangements further helped to stabilize China's currency.

The second is the cautious policy governing the note-issue. Although war expenditures have drained heavily on China's treasury, the Government has been conservative regarding the issuance of bank notes. Due to the lack of money in circulation in the interior provinces and the need of capital for the development of resources, more money has been put into use. The Government lately raised the various tax collections to \$10,000,000,000 annually. Efforts are being made in the sales campaign of government bonds and thrift-savings certificates. The centralization of the right of note issue in the Central Bank of China as well as other steps is designed to exercise great care in issuing banknotes. Since the campaign for the sale of thrift-saving certificates was started in October, 1939, the total sales have exceeded \$2,000,000,000, while the grand goal is set at \$3,000,000,000.

Although China's wartime national expenditures have far exceeded her peacetime totals, the amounts are still far below those of other countries at war. The per capita burden of war cost of China is the lowest in the world. China's national indebtedness is also smaller than that of other nations!

The Government is striving to stress four principles: (1) enforcement of a strict retrenchment policy so that all financial resources may be pooled to war reconstruction needs to help achieve the final victory; (2) readjustment of all existing taxes dividing the war cost equitably among the various classes and the removing of all exorbitant levies so as to help develop the economy of the people; (3) promotion of thrift and savings so that all surplus money of the people may be mobilized for war effort; (4) improvement of the financial system in the war areas and strengthening the supervision of local financial administrations.

REVISED ORGANIC LAW OF THE MINISTRY OF FINANCE

*(Promulgated by the National Government on
March 26, 1940)*

Article I. The Ministry of Finance shall govern the financial affairs of the entire country.

Article II. The Ministry of Finance shall direct and supervise the highest administrative authorities of various localities in the execution of all financial affairs.

Article III. In regard to orders issued and penalties imposed by the highest administrative authorities in various localities in the execution of all financial matters, the Ministry of Finance may, upon discovering their violation of law or usurpation of power, suspend or cancel them upon the decision of the Executive Yuan at a general meeting.

Article IV. The Ministry of Finance shall have the following Administrations, Departments and Bureaus :—

- (1) Maritime Customs Administration
- (2) Internal Revenue Administration
- (3) National Treasury Administration
- (4) General Affairs Department
- (5) Salt Revenue Department
- (6) Levies and Taxation Department
- (7) Loans Department
- (8) Currency Department
- (9) Direct Tax Department
- (10) Accounting Bureau

Article V. Acting upon the decision of the Executive Yuan and the Legislative Yuan, the Ministry of Finance may establish, cancel and combine the various Administrations, Departments, Bureaus, Commissions and other institutions.

Article VI. The Maritime Customs Administration shall have charge of the following :—

- (1) Supervision over the regulation of tariff policy and the formation and enforcement of the tariff schedule.
- (2) Supervision over the formulation, inspection, interpretation and enforcement of Customs laws and regulations.
- (3) Matters in relation to tariff schedule and international trade under the provisions of treaties and agreements between China and foreign countries.
- (4) Prevention of and taxation on the dumping of foreign goods in the Chinese market.
- (5) Examination of cases of the exemption, reduction or refunding of taxes on imports and exports.

- (6) Establishment of customs stations, the enforcement of embargo and prohibition orders as well as the prevention against tax evasion.
- (7) Auditing of Customs receipts and disbursements.
- (8) Handling of tariff disputes and Customs petitions.
- (9) Supervision over the appointment, dismissal, transfer and general efficiency of all the members of the Chinese Customs service.
- (10) Supervision over the engineering and construction of buildings for subordinate offices of the Customs.
- (11) Other affairs of the Maritime Customs Administration.

(The organic law of the Maritime Customs Administration shall be separately drafted.)

Article VII. The Internal Revenue Administration shall have charge of the following:—

- (1) Administration and collection of taxes on various kinds of commodities as well as the planning of reform measures thereon.
- (2) Administration and collection of new taxes in addition to customs duties, salt tax, stamp tax, and direct taxes, as well as the planning of reform measures thereon.
- (3) Research into and determination on various tax rates under the jurisdiction of the Internal Revenue Administration.
- (4) Supervision over the formulation, inspection, interpretation and enforcement of laws and regulations concerning various taxes under the jurisdiction of the Administration.
- (5) Handling of cases of exemption, reduction and refunding of taxes under the jurisdiction of the Administration.
- (6) Inspection of stamps and certificates on taxable commodities as well as the restriction and prevention of tax evasion.
- (7) Collection, remittance, checking and compilation of all receipts from various taxes under the jurisdiction of the Administration.
- (8) Handling of tax rate disputes and taxation petition cases.
- (9) Printing, custody, issue and inspection of all stamps and certificates for various taxes under the jurisdiction of the Administration.
- (10) Appointment, dismissal, transfer and efficiency of all taxation workers under the jurisdiction of the Administration.

- (11) Supervision over administrative matters on various taxes under the jurisdiction of the Administration.
- (12) Other matters of Internal Revenue Administration.

(The organic law of the Internal Revenue Administration shall be separately drafted.)

Article VIII. The National Treasury Administration shall have charge of the following:—

- (1) Receipt, payment, custody and transfer of all Treasury notes and certificates.
- (2) Inspection of receipts and payments of the National Treasury.
- (3) Reports on receipts and payments of the National Treasury.
- (4) Supervision over the administration of special Sinking Funds.
- (5) Inspection of the receipt and disposal of special Sinking Funds.
- (6) Estimate of national revenue and expenditure and the auditing of actual receipts and disbursements of the National Treasury.
- (7) Management of state-owned properties.
- (8) Inspection of receipts and payments of state-owned properties.
- (9) Supervision and direction of banks acting as fiscal agents.
- (10) Appointment, dismissal, transfer and efficiency of staff members in charge of receipts and disbursements of the National Treasury.
- (11) Other matters of the National Treasury.
- (12) Formulation, inspection and interpretation of the Public Treasury System.
- (13) Supervision over the administration of the Public Treasury System in various grades of local government.

(The organic law of the National Treasury Administration shall be separately drafted.)

Article IX. The General Affairs Department shall have charge of the following:—

- (1) Receipts, despatch and safekeeping of official documents.
- (2) Promulgation of orders and instructions of the Ministry.
- (3) Custody of official seals.
- (4) Record-keeping of the appointment and dismissal of staff members of the Ministry.
- (5) Editing and publication of the official gazette of the Ministry.
- (6) Cataloguing and circulation of books and periodicals.
- (7) Registration and management of property and articles owned by the Ministry.

- (8) Receipt, payment and safekeeping of cash, bills and securities possessed by the Ministry.
- (9) Designing and printing of all papers and certificates used by the Ministry.
- (10) Sundry affairs and other matters not belonging to other administrations, departments and bureaus.

Article X. The Salt Revenue Department shall have charge of the following:—

- (1) Planning and reform of salt affairs.
- (2) Investigation for decision on the permission for saltnaking and the regulations for salt production.
- (3) Erection and management of warehouses and the inspection of other engineering projects.
- (4) Inspection of the testing and improving of the quality of salt.
- (5) Inspection of salt collected and distributed and prices charged thereon.
- (6) Inspection and interpretation of salt tax rates and salt tax regulations.
- (7) Inspection of certificates required of salt and nitre mines.
- (8) Inspection of cases of exemption and reduction of taxes on salt and its by-products.
- (9) Inspection of the receipts, and payments, of the salt tax.
- (10) Organization and investigation of salt police forces.
- (11) Planning and regulations for reclamation of and surveying in salt-producing areas.
- (12) Improvement in the production and sale of nitre mines and determination of a fair charge thereon.
- (13) Appointment, dismissal, transfer and efficiency of staff members in the Salt Administration.
- (14) Other matters of salt administration.

Article XI. The Levies and Taxation Department shall have charge of the following:—

- (1) Research, planning and preparation of taxes not under the direct control of the Maritime Customs Administration, Internal Revenue Administration, and Direct Taxation Bureau.
- (2) Supervision and inspection of public properties.
- (3) Determination of the demarcating, improving, and subsidizing of the revenues between the Central Government and various local governments.
- (4) Inspection and improvement of local taxation systems.

- (5) Investigation of the reduction and exemption of local taxes.
- (6) Supervision and inspection of the receipts and payments of local financial authorities.

Article XII. The Loans Department shall have charge of the following:—

- (1) Flotation, payment and readjustment of Central Government bonds.
- (2) Appropriation, management and utilization of the sinking funds of Central Government bonds.
- (3) Supervision over the formulation, inspection, interpretation and enforcement of laws and regulations governing various issues of Central Government bonds.
- (4) Formulation, supervision and custody of regulations governing Central Government bonds and agreements for long-time borrowing and lending.
- (5) Registration of the names and changes of names, of Central Government bondholders.
- (6) Sealing, numbering and issuing of Central Government bonds and other loan certificates as well as the custody of unissued Government securities.
- (7) Cancellation of Central Government bonds and other loan certificates.
- (8) Registration, report and periodic announcement of Central Government bonds and other long-term loan certificates.
- (9) Supervision over the purchase and sale of Government bonds and Government shares in the market.
- (10) Supervision over the amortization of principal and payments of interest on Central Government bonds and other long-term loan certificates.
- (11) Registration of actual issue prices of Central Government bonds and the periodic registration of their buying and selling quotations.
- (12) Other matters related to Central Government bonds.
- (13) Inspection, supervision and investigation of local government bonds.

Article XIII. The Currency Department shall have charge of the following:—

- (1) Planning and regulation of monetary system as well as the testing and analysis of metallic currency.
- (2) Inspection of gold, silver and metallic currency imported into and exported from the country.
- (3) Supervision and direction of Government mint and government printing office.

- (4) Issue and supervision of note issue as well as the inspection and announcement of currency reserves.
- (5) Supervision of and restrictions on commercial banks, savings banks and trust companies.
- (6) Supervision of and restrictions on stock exchanges, insurance companies, and other special financial institutions.
- (7) Regulation of credits within and outside the country.
- (8) Control of domestic and foreign exchange.
- (9) Statistical investigation of conditions and problems of currency and finance.
- (10) Supervision of and restrictions on various kinds of lotteries.
- (11) Other matters of currency.
- (5) Approval of the distribution of the budget among the subordinate offices of the Ministry.
- (6) Auditing and recording of actual expenditures of the subordinate offices of the Ministry.
- (7) Approval of the petition for receipt, appropriation and remittance of funds by subordinate offices of the Ministry.
- (8) Auditing of statements of receipts and payments submitted by subordinate offices of the Ministry.
- (9) Auditing and recording of the accounts as well as the compilation of accounting reports submitted by subordinate offices of the Ministry.
- (10) Inspection of all documents and papers of subordinate offices of the Ministry submitted on the occasion of succession of responsible officials.
- (11) Appointment, dismissal, transfer and efficiency of all accounting chiefs and clerks of subordinate offices of the Ministry.
- (12) Handling of all statistical work of subordinate offices of the Ministry. The statistical work mentioned in Section 12 shall be undertaken by the Statistical Division of the Accounting Bureau.

Article XIV. The Direct Tax Department shall have charge of the following :—

- (1) Imposition and collection of the income tax, the inheritance tax and other direct taxes, as well as the stamp tax.
- (2) Research in, improvement on, and formulation of the various tax systems and tax rates under the jurisdiction of the Department.
- (3) Handling of cases of the reduction, exemption and refunding of taxes under the jurisdiction of the Department.
- (4) Calculation, accounting, auditing and reporting of all the tax receipts under the jurisdiction of the Department.
- (5) Formulation, examination and interpretation of laws and regulations governing the taxes under the jurisdiction of the Department as well as the handling of cases of tax payment disputes.
- (6) Appointment, dismissal, transfer and general efficiency of staff members of various tax administrations under the jurisdiction of the Department.
- (7) Other matters concerning direct taxes.

(The Organic Law of the Direct Tax Department shall be separately drafted.)

Article XV. The Accounting Bureau shall have charge of the following :—

- (1) General auditing of the revenues and expenditures of the Central Government.
- (2) Examination and formulation of the accounting systems used by the subordinate offices of the Ministry.
- (3) Planning and compilation of estimated and actual figures of the receipts and payments of the Ministry.
- (4) Collection, inspection and readjustment of the estimated and actual figures of receipts and payments of the subordinate offices of the Ministry.

Article XVI. The Minister of Finance shall have full power in the administration of all affairs of the Ministry and the supervision of all subordinate offices and officials.

Article XVII. The Political Vice-Minister and the Administrative Vice-Minister shall assist the Minister in administering the affairs of the Ministry.

Article XVIII. The Ministry of Finance shall have from 6 to 8 Counsellors whose duty is to draft and study the laws and ordinances to be issued or promulgated by the Ministry of Finance.

Article XIX. The Ministry of Finance shall have from 12 to 16 Secretaries to keep the records of general meetings of the Ministry, compile various reports and handle all other affairs assigned by their superior officials.

Article XX. Besides the appointment of the Chief Accountant under separate regulations, the Ministry of Finance shall have 3 Directors-General, 1 Assistant Director-General, 5 Directors and 1 Superintendent in charge of the affairs of the respective administrations, departments and bureaus.

Article XXI. Besides the appointment of officials of various Administrations and Bureaus under separate regulations, the Ministry of Finance shall have from 18 to 20 Division Chiefs, from 180 to 220 clerks, from 50 to 70 clerical assistants, from 2 to 4 Chief Technicians, from

6 to 8 technicians and from 10 to 12 technical assistants in charge of various affairs under the direction of their superior officials.

Article XXII. The Ministry of Finance shall have from 6 to 8 compilers to handle the compilation and translation of papers and documents on currency and finance under the direction of their superior officials.

Article XXIII. The Ministry of Finance shall have from 6 to 10 Inspectors to inspect the achievements of various subordinate offices in the field of taxation, the suppression of smuggling and other activities. They shall be sent to various provinces, municipalities and cities to investigate the financial conditions of the localities as well as the faithful handling of all affairs assigned by the Ministry.

Article XXIV. The Minister of Finance shall be appointed by a mandate of the National Government, with the "Special Appointment" rank. The Vice-Ministers, the Counsellors, the Directors-General, the Assistant Director-General, the Directors, the Superintendent and 4 Secretaries shall be appointed by the National Government, with the "Selected Appointment" rank.

All other Secretaries, Division Chiefs, Chief Technicians, Compilers, Inspectors and 4 Technicians shall be appointed upon the recommendation of the Minister, with the "Recommended Appointment" rank.

All other technicians, technical assistants, clerks and clerical assistants shall be appointed directly by the Minister, with the "Delegate Appointment" rank.

Article XXV. The Ministry of Finance may, in case of necessity, solicit the service of from 2 to 4 Advisers and from 5 to 9 Experts.

Article XXVI. The Ministry of Finance may, owing to urgent requirements of its affairs, employ additional staff members.

Article XXVII. The Ministry of Finance shall have 1 Chief Accountant with the "Selected Appointment" rank, 1 Statistical Division Chief and 4 Division Chiefs with the "Recommended Appointment" rank, from 40 to 50 clerks and from 6 to 10 clerical assistants with the "Delegated Appointment" rank in charge of affairs prescribed in Article XV under the supervision and direction of their superior officials. They are concurrently directly responsible to the Comptroller-General's Office of the National Government in accordance with the organic law of the said office.

The Accounting Bureau and Statistical Division of the Ministry may employ additional staff members when urgent occasions arise.

Article XXVIII. The organization of subordinate institutions of the Ministry in charge of the imposition and collection of the Customs duty and the salt tax as well as the Nationa

Tariff Commission shall be separately determined according to law.

Article XXIX. The detailed regulations governing the routine activities of the Ministry of Finance shall be drafted and enacted by an order of the Ministry.

Article XXX. This Organic Law shall come into force from the date of its promulgation.

DIFFERENTIATION OF NATIONAL AND LOCAL FINANCES

(Promulgated on October 8, 1941)

Article I. The nation's finances are divided into national finance and local finance.

Article II. National finance includes all revenues and expenditures pertaining to the Central Government, provinces and municipalities under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan and therefore not included in the local finance.

Article III. Local finance includes all revenues and expenditures pertaining to municipalities, *hsien*, towns and villages.

Article IV. National government tax receipts to be apportioned to *hsien* and municipalities are based on the following standard:—

- (a) 30 per cent of net stamp tax receipts to *hsien* and municipalities;
- (b) 25 per cent of net inheritance tax receipts to *hsien* and municipalities;
- (c) 30 to 50 per cent of net business tax receipts to *hsien* and municipalities;
- (d) The portion of land tax (in areas where the Land Tax Law is not enforced the name farm tax is still used), originally belonging to the provinces, is now turned over to the National Government, while the *hsien* and municipal governments still retain their original shares. During the period when land tax is collected in kind, the National Government collects the entire amount in kind. The *hsien* and municipal government portion is paid back to them by the National Government in cash;
- (e) The portion of tax on title-deeds, originally belonging to the provinces, is turned over to the National Government while the *hsien* and municipal governments still retain their original shares;
- (f) The entire butchery tax, separated from the business tax, goes to *hsien* and municipal governments.

Article V. The entire income tax goes to the National Government.

Article VI. Subsidies to *hsien* and municipal governments are decided by the National Government.

DIFFERENTIATION OF NATIONAL AND LOCAL REVENUES AND EXPENDITURES**NATIONAL****A. Revenues :****I. Tax Receipts**

- (1) Land Tax (in areas where the Land Tax Law is not enforced the name farm tax is still used).
- (2) Income Tax
- (3) Inheritance Tax
- (4) Excess Profit Tax
- (5) Business Tax
- (6) Special Business Profit Tax
- (7) Special Business Operation Tax
- (8) Stamp Tax
- (9) Customs Revenue
- (10) Salt Revenue
- (11) Mining Tax
- (12) Factory Production Tax
- (13) Taxes on Banned Goods
- (14) Wartime Consumption Tax

II. Revenue From Government Monopolies**III. Special Assessments****IV. Fines and Compensation****V. Income From Government Administration****VI. Fees****VII. Income From Administration of Trusts****VIII. Income From National Property****IX. Profit From Government Commercial Enterprises****X. Income From Government-Operated Enterprises****XI. Quota Remitted by the Provinces and Municipalities****XII. Contributions and Gifts****XIII. Receipts From Selling of Non-movable Property and Rights****XIV. Receipts From Cancellation or Reduction of Invested Capital****XV. Income From Government Bonds****XVI. Proceeds From Borrowing****XVII. Other Revenues****B. Expenditures :****I. Party Expenses****II. National Government Expenses****III. Administrative Expenses****IV. Expenses for Legislative Administration****V. Expenses for Judicial Administration****VI. Expenses for Administration of Examinations****VII. Expenses for Control Administration****VIII. Expenses for Education and Culture****IX. Expenses for Economic Reconstruction****X. Expenses for Public Health and Sanitation****XI. Expenses for Child Welfare and Relief****XII. Capital Investments****XIII. Expenses for National Defence****XIV. Public Safety Expenses****XV. Diplomatic Expenses****XVI. Loans Service****XVII. Expenses for Migration and Land Reclamation****XVIII. Expenses for Financial Administration****XIX. Pensions and Retirement Allowance****XX. Losses****XXI. Expenses for Administration of Trusts****XXII. Subsidies****XXIII. Other Expenses****LOCAL****A. Revenues :****I. Tax Receipts****(1) Farm Tax****(2) Butchery Tax****(3) Business Licences****(4) Special Operations Licences****(5) Punitive Tax****(6) Portion of Land Tax (in areas where the new Land Tax Law is not enforced the names of farm tax and tax on title-deed are still used).****(7) 25 per cent of Inheritance Tax from Central Government****(8) 30 to 50 per cent of Business Tax from Central Government****(9) 30 per cent of Stamp Tax from Central Government****II. Special Assessments****III. Fines and Compensation****IV. Fees****V. Receipts from Administration of Trusts****VI. Income From Property and Rights****VII. Profits From Public-owned Business Enterprises****VIII. Income From Public Enterprises****IX. Subsidies****X. Local Donations and Gifts****XI. Receipts From Selling of Non-movable Property and Rights****XII. Receipts From Cancellation or Reduction of Invested Capital**

- XIII. Income From Loans
- XIV. Proceeds From Borrowing
- XV. Other Revenues

B. Expenditures :

- I. Party Expenses
- II. Administrative Expenses
- III. Legislative Expenses
- IV. Expenses for Education and Culture
- V. Expenses for Economic Reconstruction
- VI. Expenses for Public Health and Sanitation
- VII. Expenses for Child Welfare and Relief
- VIII. Capital Investments
- IX. Expenses for National Defence
- X. Expenses for Financial Administration
- XI. Loans Service
- XII. Pensions and Retirement Allowance
- XIII. Losses
- XIV. Expenses for Administration of Trusts
- XV. Contributions and Subsidies
- XVI. Other Expenses

THE PUBLIC TREASURY LAW

*(Promulgated by the National Government
on June 9, 1938)*

Article I. All public treasuries of Central, Provincial and Local Governments, in the Republic of China shall be administered in accordance with the present law.

Article II. Public institutions handling cash, bonds and stocks, and other properties on behalf of the Government are to be called Government Treasuries. The Government Treasury of the Central Government is called the National Treasury under the control of the Ministry of Finance, the Government treasuries of the Provincial Governments are called the Provincial Treasuries under the control of the departments of finance of the provincial governments; the Government treasuries of the municipalities and (the treasuries of) *hsien* governments are called the Municipal Treasuries and the *Hsien* Treasuries, respectively, both under the control of the bureaus of finance of their respective local governments. In case no bureau of finance has been established, their control shall remain in the hands of local authorities.

For local governments similar in character to provincial, municipal and *hsien* governments, the aforesaid regulations are also applicable to their respective treasuries.

Article III. Deposits, transfers, receipts and payments of cash, bills, and bonds and stocks, as well as the safekeeping of records of Government Treasury property shall be handled by

banks appointed to act as agents of the Government Treasury unless otherwise stipulated in separate regulations.

The affairs of National Treasury are to be handled by the Central Bank of China in the capacity of chief agent. Affairs of other grades of Government Treasuries are to be handled by banks appointed as agents, whose appointments are to be approved by the superior authorities of the subordinate treasuries. In localities where no banks have been established the local Post Offices may be appointed as treasury agents.

Article IV. With regard to the following receipts, Government institutions may collect funds within the specified period and deposit them under their own custody :

- (1) Petty receipts.
- (2) Receipts of Government institutions located beyond the specified distance from the agent banks of Government Treasuries and the Post Offices.
- (3) Receipts collected and payments made in localities upon the approval and with facilities of the superior authority.
- (4) Receipts of Government institutions with no definite locations.

Article V. With regard to the following payments, Government institutions may draw in advance from the Government Treasury within a specified period required funds for safekeeping and meeting payments :

- (1) Payments of Government institutions located beyond the specified distance from the agent banks of Government Treasuries or the Post Offices.
- (2) Payments of Government institutions with no definite localities.
- (3) Other payments for hired labor approved by law.

Article VI. The highest amount of the receipts mentioned in Article II as well as other restrictive conditions, unless otherwise stipulated by law, are to be decided by the Government Treasury authorities. The Accounting and Auditing Offices concerned shall also be notified of the decisions.

Article VII. Aside from the provisions in Article IV and Article V as well as other stipulations approved by law, Government institutions may not handle upon their own initiative matters regarding receipts, payments, transfers of cash, bills, and bonds and stocks, or the safekeeping of property documents ; such matters are to be managed by the agent banks of Government treasuries or the post offices.

Article VIII. The receipts of cash and collection of bills and bonds due by the agent banks on behalf of the Government Treasuries are to be credited to the latter's accounts. The rights and obligations of the two parties unless

otherwise restricted by law, are to be determined by mutual agreement. The agreement shall be presented by the Government treasuries to their superior authorities for approval.

Post Offices acting as agents of Government Treasuries shall perform such functions according to the same regulations.

Article IX. When banks acting as agents of Government Treasuries go into liquidation or bankruptcy, the respective Government treasuries shall have the foremost priority of claim on their assets.

Article X. The funds of Government Treasuries are to be deposited under the following separate headings :—

- (1) Total Receipts.
- (2) Various Public Expenses.
- (3) Various Special Sinking Funds.

The Total Receipt Account represents the total amount of the Common Sinking Fund specified by the National Budget Law.

Article XI. All receipts outside the scope of the Government budget, except those to be credited to the Special Sinking Fund Account, shall be credited to the Total Receipts Account, but separate Treasury Receipts Accounts are to be kept by the authorities of Government Treasuries.

Article XII. The receipts mentioned in Article XI in the form of cash, bills, and bonds and stocks are all to be collected by the agent banks or the post offices on behalf of the Government Treasuries or by the banks' or post offices' representatives at the collecting offices. A report shall be submitted to the collecting offices and the auditing offices in charge on the type of receipts and the grade of government institutions. The agent banks or post offices of Government Treasuries as well as the collecting offices shall separately report same to the authorities of Government Treasuries.

Article XIII. All expenses shall be transferred from the Total Receipts Account either to the Public Expenses Account or the Special Sinking Fund Account, according to the budget, before payments can be made. It is permissible to transfer the credits of Total Receipts Account to the Public Expenses Account for payment under emergency law, and payments made under such arrangements must be inserted in the budget for future sanction.

Article XIV. The transfer of public expenses must be made according to the appropriations of the approved budget. Government treasury authorities shall notify the agent banks or the post offices to transfer the respective expenses from the Total Receipts Account to the Public Expenses Account for individual government institutions. At the time when the transfers

of the aforesaid expenses are made, the government treasury authorities and the agent banks or the post offices must notify the accounting and auditing offices as well as the government institutions applying for the expenses.

Article XV. Government institutions may draw funds from the Public Expenses Account only by means of checks. With the exception of those payments mentioned in Article V, checks are used only for payments to government creditors, or for advance payments of contractual obligations. Regarding the payments of salaries of military and police officers, checks may be made out for the whole amount for the group to be presented by the respective group representatives for immediate payment. Checks are to be signed by the responsible heads of the institutions or their authorized delegates and countersigned by the accountant; and, in case there are auditors attached to the institutions, checks must be verified and signed by the auditor. Otherwise, these checks will not be honored by the agent banks or the post offices.

Article XVI. The Public Expenses Accounts of government institutions are to be kept by the respective authorities of government treasuries. All transfers, safekeeping, receipts and payments effected by government institutions must be reported to the treasury separately by the agent banks, the post offices and the institutions responsible for the expenses.

Article XVII. If there is any balance in favor of the Public Expenses Account at the end of each fiscal year, it shall be credited to the Total Receipt Account, with the exception of those items otherwise specified by law.

Article XVIII. In case of financial necessity, governments may secure temporary loans, either by overdrawing on the banks, or giving short term bonds and stocks or bills due before the end of the fiscal year as security for temporary loans. All receipts therefrom shall also be credited to the Total Receipts Account, and the same account shall be debited at the time of repayment.

Such temporary loans and their repayment shall be made by government treasury authorities under the supervision of their respective auditing offices.

Article XIX. The special sinking funds and their receipts must be placed to the credit of the respective Special Sinking Fund Accounts. The transfer, payments and management of such funds must be governed by the provisions of law, contract or will in respect to the individual sinking funds. In the absence of instructions to such effect, the regulations governing the Public Expenses Account shall be applicable.

Article XX. All subsidies and contributions with definite instructions as regards their use shall be treated as the ordinary public expenses,

and payments and transfers thereof are subject to the terms of Article XIV of the present law. For those with no directions for definite use the government treasury authorities and auditing offices shall notify the agent banks or the post offices to make payment directly from the Total Receipts Account to government treasuries entitled to such subsidies and contributions.

Article XXI. The reimbursements of funds received by, and of funds paid to, the government treasury must be recorded within the scope of the original account according to their nature. Such procedures are to be determined by the government treasury together with the collecting and paying offices as well as the accounting and auditing offices.

Article XXII. The receipts, payments, and transfers of cash, bills and bonds and stocks of those institutions either with no definite locations or situated in foreign countries, except otherwise stipulated in Article IV to Article VI, may be handled by a person appointed by the government treasury. The said person or persons must deposit a cash bond or other reliable securities with the government treasury.

Article XXIII. The government treasury and agent banks or post offices must keep detailed records of all government documents, important contracts regarding government assets and liabilities, and bonds and stocks on hand; and in case of need, a duplicate or photographed copy of each item should also be kept.

Article XXIV. All accounting of the government treasuries has to be done by the accounting and auditing offices.

Article XXV. The auditing work of Government Treasuries shall be done by their respective auditing offices. The auditing work of the banks or post offices acting as agents of Government Treasuries shall be done by the same offices.

Article XXVI. Government treasuries and their agents, banks and post offices, shall report their daily balances to the accounting and auditing offices.

Article XXVII. Any breach of the present law regarding receipts to be made shall be dealt with according to law.

Article XXVIII. Any breach of the present law regarding payments to be made shall be dealt with according to law; and the law-breaker shall be held responsible for the loss sustained by the government treasuries, agent banks and post offices. In case such indemnities are found insufficient to meet the actual losses sustained by the government treasuries, the banks and post offices shall be jointly held responsible for the deficiency.

Article XXIX. For the management of properties separate regulations shall be formulated.

Article XXX. The regulations regarding government institutions embodied in the present law are applicable to all public bodies duly organized.

Article XXXI. The by-laws of this law are to be drafted by the Ministry of Finance and approved by the Executive Yuan.

Article XXXII. The date and places for the enforcement of the present law are to be decided by National Government mandate.

REGULATIONS GOVERNING LOCAL FINANCIAL REFORM

(Promulgated by the Ministry of Finance on April 29, 1938)

Article I. The Ministry of Finance promulgates an outline of practical measures for the reform of local financial structure in order to meet the wartime need of the regulation of currency and finance, to assist in agricultural and industrial development and to increase general production in the various localities.

Article II. All local financial institutions applying for one-dollar and subsidiary currency notes in accordance with Article III shall, in addition to their existing business operations, engage in the following types of activities:

- (1) Operate warehouses for agricultural products.
- (2) Give mortgages on agricultural products.
- (3) Extend loans for the purchase of seeds, fertilizers, farming cattle and farming implements.
- (4) Extend loans for the improvement of farm land and water conservancy work.
- (5) Accept and discount agricultural papers.
- (6) Give mortgages on legally acquired real estate.
- (7) Give mortgages on factory plants and other fixed assets.
- (8) Give mortgages on raw materials and finished products.
- (9) Accept and discount commercial papers.
- (10) Underwrite and give collateral loans on industrial bonds.
- (11) Give collateral loans on industrial stocks.
- (12) Give mortgages on agricultural, forestry, fishery and mining products and native goods for daily use.

Article III. Local financial institutions may apply under the terms of Article IV for one-dollar and subsidiary currency notes at the Central Bank of China, Bank of China, Bank of Communications and the Farmers' Bank of China for an amount approved by the Ministry of Finance.

Article IV. The security reserves for these notes shall include the following varieties:

- (1) Legal tender notes.
- (2) National Government Bonds and Provincial Government Bonds approved by the National Government.
- (3) Legally acquired real estate and factory assets.
- (4) Agricultural products.
- (5) Agricultural papers of not more than 180 days attached with bills of lading, warehouse receipts, and insurance certificates.
- (6) Industrial raw materials and finished products.
- (7) Commercial papers of not more than 120 days attached with bills of lading, warehouse receipts and insurance certificates.
- (8) Industrial bonds in the process of amortization of principal and interest.
- (9) Industrial stocks with regular interest payments.
- (10) Agricultural, forestry, fishery and mining products and native goods for daily use.

Legal tender notes under Section 1 shall not be less than 20 per cent. Government bonds under Section 2 shall not be less than 30 per cent. All other securities under Sections 3-10 shall make up the rest of the total loan.

Article V. The Ministry of Finance shall designate a staff member of the Central Bank of China, Bank of China, Bank of Communications or the Farmers' Bank of China to investigate the business operations and inspect the books of local financial institutions applying for one-dollar and subsidiary currency notes and submit a report within ten days to the Ministry of Finance.

When a further examination is called for, he may make a confidential recommendation to the Ministry for the appointment of a special examiner for the undertaking.

Article VI. All securities accepted as reserves for these notes shall be kept in the custody of the Central Bank of China, Bank of China, Bank of Communications or the Farmers' Bank of China.

The government banks shall submit to the Ministry of Finance monthly reports with classified tables of these securities.

Article VII. If local financial institutions applying for one-dollar and subsidiary currency notes should fail to carry on the type of business activities specified in these Regulations, the privilege of obtaining such notes shall be suspended and the security reserves previously submitted shall be subjected to confiscation.

Article VIII. The time limit, composition and printing cost of the one-dollar and subsidiary currency notes shall be as follows:

- (1) The time is limited to a period of 2 years with an extension of one year.
- (2) The notes shall be 60 per cent one-dollar notes and 40 per cent subsidiary currency notes.
- (3) The printing cost is figured on the basis of \$25,500 for the amount of \$1,000,000, besides the accrued interest on legal tender under Article IV Section 1 amounting to 20 per cent of the total notes.

Article IX. The rules regarding the application for one-dollar and subsidiary currency notes shall be jointly formulated by the Central Bank of China, Bank of China, Bank of Communications, and the Farmers' Bank of China and submitted to the Ministry of Finance for inspection and enforcement.

Article X. Local financial institutions shall cooperate with the Farmers' Bank of China and the Agricultural Credit Administration in matters relating to agricultural loans of all kinds.

Securities against agricultural loans may be used as securities for mortgages from the Farmers' Bank of China and Agricultural Credit Administration. Securities against industrial and commercial loans may be used as securities for mortgage loans from the Bank of China and Bank of Communications.

REGULATIONS GOVERNING THE 31ST YEAR ALLIED VICTORY GOLD BONDS

Article I. For the purpose of helping effect a balance in the budget, stabilize the price level, strengthen the monetary system, absorb idle capital and achieve victory for the Allied democracies, the National Government of China authorizes the issue of bonds to be entitled the 31st Year Allied Victory Gold Bonds.

Article II. The total amount of the bonds shall be US \$100,000,000 to be issued on May 1, 1942. The bonds shall be issued at 100 per cent of their face value.

Article III. The bonds shall be purchased in Chinese national currency at the equivalent rate to be announced by the Ministry of Finance on the day of issuance.

Article IV. The bearers shall receive amounts in U. S. dollars in accordance with the face value of the bonds at the time of the payment of interest and amortization of principal.

Article V. The bonds shall bear an annual interest of 5 per cent payable every six months as from the day of issuance.

Article VI. The principal of the bonds shall be amortized within ten years, the amortization for the first instalment beginning from 1944. Amortization of the bonds by public drawings shall be effected every six months. The amount of each principal payment shall be fixed according to the amortization table.

Article VII. The proceeds from the US \$500,000,000 loan from the Government of the United States of America shall be designated as the sinking fund for the payment of the principal of and interest on the bonds. The proceeds shall be forwarded to the Central Bank of China to meet specified payments.

Article VIII. The Central Bank of China and designated banks shall be appointed as official institutions for the payments of principal and interest on the bonds.

Article IX. The bonds are bearer bonds in denominations of US \$5,000; US \$1,000; US \$500; US \$100; US \$50 and US \$20.

Article X. The bonds may be freely bought, sold or mortgaged. They may be used as a substitute for cash bonds as required in civil service, or used by commercial banks as security reserve.

Article XI. Any person attempting to counterfeit or in any way endanger the credit of the bonds shall be punished by the court according to law.

Article XII. These regulations shall come into force from the date of promulgation.

Appendix.—A Table for the Conversion of the 31st Year Allied Victory Gold Bonds into Chinese National Currency:—

US \$5,000	=	NC \$83,333.34
US \$1,000	=	NC \$16,666.67
US \$ 500	=	NC \$ 8,333.34
US \$ 100	=	NC \$ 1,666.67
US \$ 50	=	NC \$ 833.34
US \$ 20	=	NC \$ 333.34

REGULATIONS GOVERNING THE 31ST ALLIED VICTORY BONDS

Article I. For the purpose of helping effect a balance in the budget, stabilize the price level, strengthen the monetary system, absorb idle capital and achieve victory for the Allied democracies, the National Government of China authorizes the issue of bonds to be entitled the 31st Allied Victory Bonds.

Article II. The total amount of the bonds shall be NC \$100,000,000, to be issued on July 1, 1942. The bonds shall be issued at 100 per cent of their face value.

Article III. The bonds shall bear annual interest of 6 per cent payable every six months as from the day of issuance.

Article IV. The principal of the bonds shall be amortized within ten years, with amortization for the first instalment beginning from 1945. Amortizations of the bonds by public drawings shall be effected every six months. The amount of each principal payment shall be fixed according to the amortization table.

Article V. The proceeds from the £50,000,000 loan from the British Government shall be designated as the sinking fund for the payment of the principal of and interest on these bonds.

Article VI. The Central Bank of China and designated banks shall be appointed as official institutions for the payments of the principal of and interest on these bonds.

Article VII. The bonds shall be bearer bonds in denominations of NC \$100,000; NC \$10,000; NC \$5,000; NC \$1,000; NC \$ 500 and NC \$100.

Article VIII. The bonds may be freely bought, sold or mortgaged. They may be used as a substitute for cash bonds as required in civil service; or used by commercial banks as security reserve.

Article IX. Any person attempting to counterfeit or in any way endanger the credit of the bonds shall be punished by the court according to law.

Article X. These regulations shall come into force from the date of promulgation.

EXCESS PROFIT TAX RATE TABLE ON PROFIT-SEEKING BUSINESS ENTERPRISES

Excess Profit Tax on Profits on Actual Capital	Rate
20% 25%	10%
25% 30%	15%
30% 40%	20%
40% 50%	30%
50% 60%	40%
60% above ..	50%

EXCESS PROFIT TAX RATE TABLE ON RENTAL OF IMMOVABLE PROPERTY

Excess Profit Tax on Profits on Actual Property	Rate
15% 20%	10%
20% 30%	15%
30% 40%	20%
30% 40%	20%
40% 50%	30%
50% 60%	40%
60% above ..	50%

INCOME TAX RATES

For incomes of profit-seeking business enterprises the following rates shall be imposed :

- (a) 2 per cent on profits less than 5 per cent of actual capital
- (b) 4 per cent on profits between 10 and 15 per cent of actual capital
- (c) 6 per cent on profits between 15 and 20 per cent of actual capital
- (d) 8 per cent on profits between 20 and 25 per cent of actual capital
- (e) 10 per cent on profits above 25 per cent of actual capital

For earnings of business establishments which cannot be calculated on the basis of the preceding categories, the following rates shall be imposed :

- (a) Incomes not exceeding \$100 free
- (b) 3 per cent on earnings \$100 to \$1,000
- (c) 4 per cent on earnings \$1,000 to \$2,500
- (d) 6 per cent on earnings \$2,500 to \$5,000
- (e) 1 per cent for every \$1,000 above \$5,000

Income tax rates on emoluments and salaries shall be as follows :

On average monthly incomes

- (a) \$30 to \$60, 5 cents on every \$10
- (b) \$60 to \$100, 10 cents on every \$10 above \$60
- (c) \$100 to \$200, 20 cents on every \$10 above \$100
- (d) \$200 to \$300, 30 cents on every \$10 above \$200
- (e) \$300 to \$400, 40 cents on every \$10 above \$300
- (f) \$400 to \$500, 60 cents on every \$10 above \$400
- (g) \$500 to \$600, 80 cents on every \$10 above \$500
- (h) \$600 to \$700, \$1 on every \$10 above \$600
- (i) \$700 to \$800, \$1.20 on every \$10 above \$700
- (j) Above \$800, 20 cents on every \$10 of first \$100 above \$800 until it reaches \$2 on every \$10
- (k) No tax on amounts above any mark but below \$5 in difference, while amounts above \$5 shall be counted as \$10

Flat rate of 5 per cent shall be imposed on interest accrued from Government bonds, on corporation debentures and banking deposits.

RATES OF INHERITANCE TAX

%			
1	above \$	5,000 and under \$	50,000
1	between \$	50,000 and \$	100,000
2	.. \$	100,000	\$ 250,000
3	.. \$	250,000	\$ 500,000
4	.. \$	500,000	\$ 750,000
5	.. \$	750,000	\$ 1,000,000
7	.. \$	1,000,000	\$ 1,500,000
9	.. \$	1,500,000	\$ 2,000,000
12	.. \$	2,000,000	\$ 3,000,000
15	.. \$	3,000,000	\$ 4,000,000
20	.. \$	4,000,000	\$ 5,000,000
25	.. \$	5,000,000	\$ 6,000,000
30	.. \$	6,000,000	\$ 7,000,000
35	.. \$	7,000,000	\$ 8,000,000
40	.. \$	8,000,000	\$ 9,000,000
45	.. \$	9,000,000	\$10,000,000
50	above	\$10,000,000	

EXEMPTIONS FROM TAXATION

1. Property or properties under \$5,000 in value.

2. Properties belonging to officers and soldiers of the Army, Navy and Air Force, who have lost their lives in the act of war or as a result of injuries received in the act of war.

3. Special literary articles that have a cultural, historical and art value when they are registered with the Inheritance Tax Office. But such articles must pay the inheritance tax when subsequently transferred to other person or persons.

4. Properties of any grade donated to the Government.

5. Properties donated to public institutions of education, culture, charity or public welfare which do not exceed a total value of \$500,000.

6. All copyrights of authors, patent rights for scientific discoveries and articles of original arts.

New Provisional Regulations for stamp duties were promulgated by the National Government in July, 1927, which divided dutiable documents into four groups.

Group I comprises fifteen kinds of documents grouped under three classes :—

Class A (seven kinds) : bills, receipts for goods deposited, receipts for goods hired, pawn-tickets, value of \$4 upwards, etc. (one cent stamp) ;

Class B (six kinds) : invoices, agreements for hire, receipts for advance orders, etc. (1 cent stamp if value between \$1 and \$10, otherwise 2 cent stamp) ;

Class C (two kinds) : bank pass-books and account books of business houses (each book, 10 cent stamp).

Group II comprises fourteen kinds :

Bills of lading, insurance policies, deposit receipts, share certificates, checks, drafts, loan agreements, etc. (1 cent stamp if value between \$1 and \$10, 2 cent if over \$10 and under \$100, 4 cent over \$100 and under \$500, 10 cent over \$500 and under \$1,000, 20 cent over \$1,000 and under \$5,000, 50 cent over \$5,000 and under \$10,000, \$1 over \$10,000 and under \$50,000, \$1.50 if \$50,000 or upwards).

Group III comprises 45 kinds :

Passports, certificates, testimonials, permits, licences, charters, etc., for which the stamp duty varies from 1 cent to \$10.

Group IV comprises four kinds, to be affixed on foreign wines and aerated water bottles, alcohol, fireworks, etc., ranging from 2 cents for aerated water, to \$10 for alcohol.

With the exception of those to be affixed on the articles included in Group IV, the stamps will partake of the following five colors : buff

(1 cent), green (2 cent), red (10 cent), purple (50 cent), blue (\$1).

The penalty for non-affixing of stamps is a fine for each document concerned of from ten to 100 dollars, and that for affixing insufficient stamps, a fine of from five to 50 dollars.

All stamp duties were doubled after the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese hostilities.

TAX EXEMPTIONS

According to the latest revision of the Stamp Tax Law, the following are exempt from stamp duty :—

- (1) Books and documents used by Government offices
- (2) Bonds and stocks issued by the Government
- (3) Account books for family use, for philanthropic and cultural organs, and cooperative societies
- (4) Bills and certificates of any organization in connection with their own internal working.

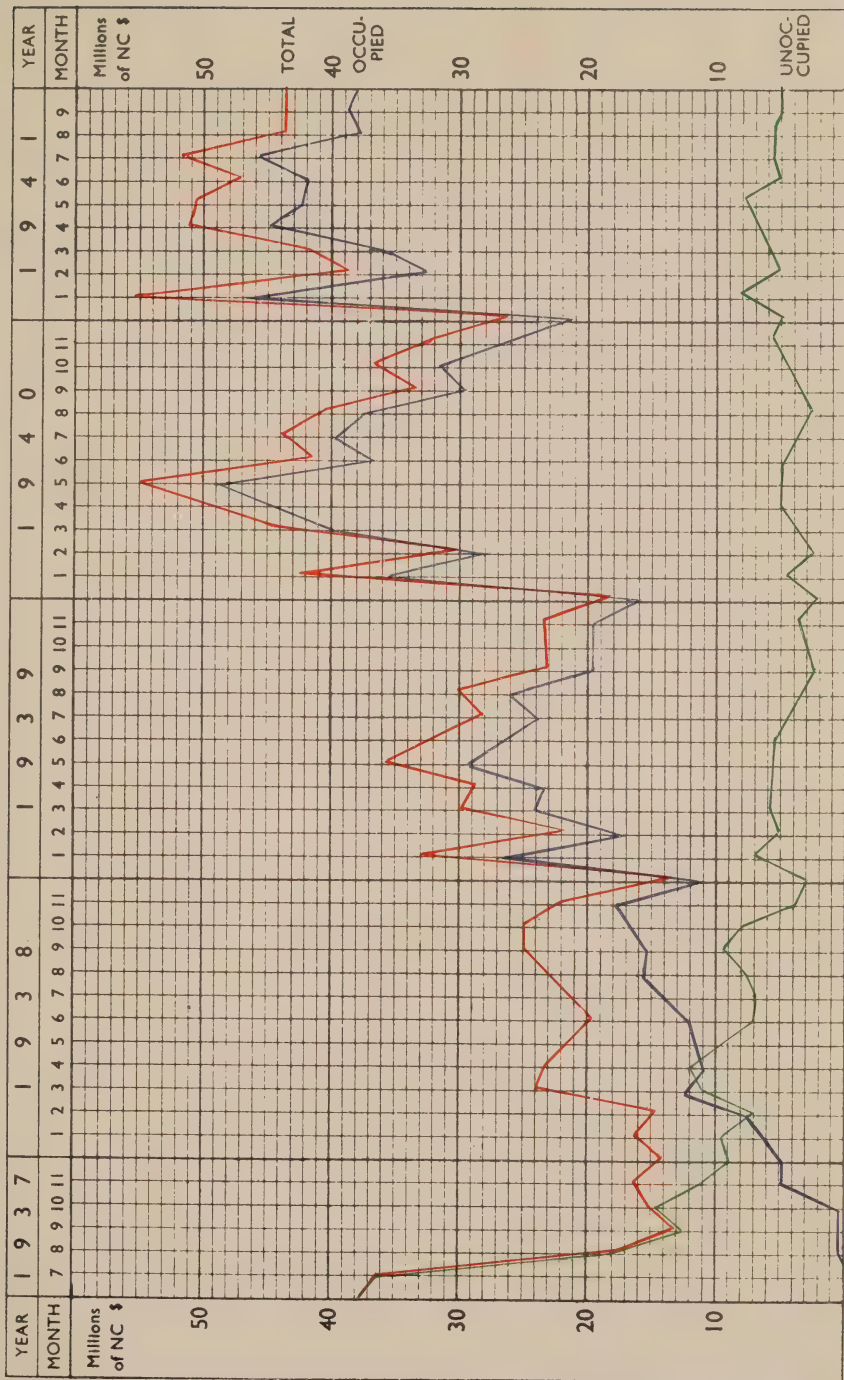
TARIFF RATES OF CHINESE MARITIME CUSTOMS

Taxes	Groups of Goods.	Tariff Rates	Explanations
		C. G. U. (Customs Gold Unit)	
Import Tax	I. Cotton and Cotton Piece Goods.	25-50%	The present customs tariffs were revised in 1934. Beginning with July 1, 1939, certain products were prohibited from importation. All prohibited goods and non-necessities were taxed on their full value. Those goods formerly taxed according to their quantity were all taxed <i>ad valorem</i> beginning from January 1, 1942. Goods not falling under the prohibited list were taxed only one-third of the original tariffs, either according to their quantity or <i>ad valorem</i> beginning from September 2, 1939. Because of the increase of the pure gold content in the Customs Gold Unit and the fixing of the ratio between national dollars and C. G. U. at 20 to 1, <i>ad valorem</i> taxes were levied at only one-third of, and taxes on quantity of goods, only one-sixth of, their original tariffs from April 1, 1942.
	II. Flax and Manufactures Thereof.	7.5-50%	
	III. Wool and Manufactures Thereof.	15 -70%	
	IV. Silk and Manufactures Thereof.	15 -80%	
	V. Metals and Manufactures Thereof.	5 -40%	
	VI. Food, Beverages and Medicinal Plants.	10 -80%	
	VII. Tobacco	15 -50%	
	VIII. Chemicals and Dyes	5 -35%	
	IX. Candles, Soap, Oils, Fats, Gums and Resins.	10 -30%	
	X. Books, Maps, Paper and Wood Pulp.	7.5-30%	
	XI. Hides, Leather, and other Animal Substances.	7.5-40%	
	XII. Wood, Bamboos, Rattans, Coir, Straw, and Manufactures Thereof.	7.5-35%	
	XIII. Coal, Fuel, Pitch and Tar.	10 -15%	
	XIV. Chinaware, Enamelled-ware, Glass.	20 -50%	
	XV. Stone, Earth, and Manufactures Thereof	10 -20%	
	XVI. Sundry	10 -40%	
		NC \$	
Export Tax	<i>ad valorem</i> by quantity	7.5% 5%	The export tariff rates were revised and promulgated in 1934.
Interport Tax	<i>ad valorem</i> by quantity	7.5% 5%	The interport tariff rates were revised and enforced in October 1937 and abolished on April 15, 1942.
Wartime Consumption Tax	<i>ad valorem</i> : Ordinary Daily Necessities With Exception of Those that Are Duty-Free.	5%	Tariff rates of wartime consumption tax were promulgated in April, 1942. Collection on imported goods shall be made by the customs at the time of importation together with the imposition of import tax.
	„ Non-Necessities	10%	
	„ Semi-Luxuries	15%	
	„ Luxuries	25%	

CHINESE MARITIME CUSTOMS REVENUE OF OCCUPIED PORTS DEPOSITED IN THE YOKOHAMA SPECIE BANK

Port	Date of Deposit	Oct. 1937-Dec. 1939	1940	Jan.-Sept. 1941	Total
		NC \$	NC \$	NC \$	NC \$
Chinwangtao	October 25, 1937	9,385,292.84	7,293,183.29	3,886,571.57	20,565,047.70
Tientsin	October 25, 1937	121,716,672.41	88,377,867.83	56,047,864.67	266,142,404.91
Cheefoo	April 27, 1938	4,675,426.66	2,797,262.85	—299,045.60	7,173,643.91
Tsingtao	February 11, 1938	35,534,529.78	34,471,149.64	20,903,038.60	90,908,718.02
Shanghai	May 3, 1938	208,227,275.73	248,563,451.96	231,543,540.46	688,334,268.15
Amoy	September 1, 1938	405,147.75	928,265.82	696,484.31	2,029,897.88
Canton	January, 1939	131,634.65	3,774,598.84	11,637,923.16	15,544,156.65
Kiungchow	May 8, 1939	22,016.09	18,301.77	—5,877.24	34,440.62
Total	National Currency	380,097,995.91	386,224,082.00	324,410,499.93	1,090,732,577.84

CUSTOMS REVENUE COLLECTIONS OF OCCUPIED AND UNOCCUPIED PORTS AFTER THE OUTBREAK OF THE SINO-JAPANESE HOSTILITIES



CHINESE MARITIME CUSTOMS REVENUE FROM VARIOUS SOURCES IN THE WAR

	1937		1938		1939		1940		(Jan.-Sept.) 1941
	NC \$	%	NC \$	%	NC \$	%	NC \$	%	
Taxes									
Total	342,899,739	100.00	254,565,468	100.00	331,323,640	100.00	475,749,134	100.00	422,689,540
Import Tax	261,286,534	76.20	160,936,329	63.22	237,683,384	71.74	343,597,869	72.22	284,487,421
Export Tax	29,073,179	8.48	16,532,939	6.49	17,415,280	5.26	27,552,965	5.80	26,697,583
Interport Tax	20,148,871	5.88	55,840,004	21.94	46,661,699	14.08	63,813,940	13.41	78,153,860
Tonnage Dues	3,224,610	.94	2,913,405	1.14	3,660,836	1.10	3,094,980	.65	1,717,128
Revenue Surtax	14,578,836	4.25	9,163,631	3.60	12,951,045	3.91	18,844,021	3.96	15,816,396
Flood Relief Surtax	14,587,709	4.25	9,179,160	3.61	12,951,396	3.91	18,845,359	3.96	15,817,152
Receipts of Unoccupied Ports	328,590,811	95.83	95,294,044	37.43	53,953,952	16.28	52,064,062	10.94	54,281,124
Receipts of Occupied Ports	14,308,928	4.17	159,271,424	62.57	277,369,688	83.72	423,685,072	89.06	368,408,416

CHINESE MARITIME CUSTOMS REVENUE OF UNOCCUPIED PORTS BETWEEN OCTOBER 1941 AND SEPTEMBER 1942

Date	Import Tax		Export Tax		Interport Tax		Others		Wartime Consumption Tax		Total	
	NC \$	%	NC \$	%	NC \$	%	NC \$	%	NC \$	%	NC \$	%
1941												
October	1,984,555	33.41	142,775	2.40	3,594,435	60.50	218,981	3.69	5,940,746	100.00
November	1,902,962	28.24	180,709	2.68	4,441,393	65.90	214,778	3.18	6,739,842	100.00
December	1,680,746	33.28	129,565	2.57	3,055,558	60.51	183,886	3.64	5,049,755	100.00
1942												
January	4,768,846	34.08	112,820	0.81	8,620,657	61.60	492,005	3.51	13,944,328	100.00
February	3,865,884	32.58	47,768	0.40	7,560,958	63.71	392,645	3.31	11,867,255	100.00
March	5,918,939	30.75	64,582	0.34	12,661,581	65.78	601,682	3.13	19,246,784	100.00
April	5,431,314	15.25	89,309	0.25	13,952,744	39.18	555,373	1.57	15,580,039	43.75	35,608,779	100.00
May	7,036,575	9.57	147,359	0.20	875,833	1.19	825,865	0.99	64,757,343	88.05	73,642,975	100.00
June	5,353,411	10.03	324,682	0.61	129,191	0.24	569,089	1.07	46,987,405	88.05	53,363,778	100.00
July	4,004,505	9.31	213,464	0.50	9,223	0.02	421,849	0.98	38,378,946	89.19	43,027,987	100.00
August	13,100,572	21.83	375,910	0.63	12,164,365	20.26	1,451,899	2.42	32,929,663	54.86	60,022,409	100.00
September	9,931,096	26.29	512,236	1.36	11,398	0.03	1,049,880	2.78	26,271,933	69.54	37,776,543	100.00
Total	77,278,781	17.78	3,083,600	0.71	67,109,980	15.44	8,336,798	1.92	278,823,547	64.15	434,632,706	100.00

PERCENTAGE OF CHINESE MARITIME CUSTOMS REVENUE LOST IN OCCUPIED PORTS IN RELATION TO CHINA'S WHOLE

Month	1937		1938		1939		1940		1941	
	Revenue		Revenue		Revenue		Revenue		Revenue	
	NC \$	%	NC \$	%	NC \$	%	NC \$	%	NC \$	%
January	7,071,604	42.15	26,970,456	79.55	37,321,681	88.60	47,244,567	85.16
February	8,214,835	52.75	17,461,483	76.45	28,137,449	91.73	33,122,368	86.65
March	13,344,684	54.92	24,414,511	81.04	40,459,294	91.82	36,170,789	85.81
April	11,654,837	49.30	23,827,810	81.01	43,860,435	89.50	44,531,823	87.40
May	12,104,508	55.43	30,206,930	83.89	49,535,682	90.51	42,587,941	84.51
June	12,745,006	62.24	26,716,111	83.26	36,835,156	88.75	42,163,230	89.49
July	126,652	..	14,703,845	68.11	24,256,698	85.39	40,094,304	91.66	46,198,484	89.36
August	1,023,013	5.33	16,300,109	68.40	26,777,664	88.58	37,810,084	92.93	37,863,666	87.36
September	1,163,127	8.30	15,851,678	62.68	20,296,583	87.75	29,736,210	88.88	38,525,548	88.91
October	1,210,051	7.65	17,369,528	68.59	20,307,628	86.34	31,778,770	87.13
November	5,407,067	9.26	18,456,652	82.72	19,848,291	84.95	26,743,080	81.79
December	5,379,018	36.44	11,454,138	79.20	16,285,523	87.21	21,372,927	80.38
Total	14,308,928	4.17	159,271,424	62.57	277,369,688	83.72	423,685,072	89.06	368,408,416	87.16

TOTAL IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF CHINA IN THE WAR

Year	Import		Export		Total Value		Excess of Imports		Unoccupied Ports		Occupied Ports	
	Amount of Trade		Amount of Trade		Amount of Trade		Amount of Trade		Amount of Trade		Amount of Trade	
	NC \$	%	NC \$	%	NC \$	%	NC \$	%	NC \$	%	NC \$	%
1937	953,386,007	..	838,255,705	..	1,791,641,712	..	115,130,302	..	569,510,000	..	1,079,330,000	65.46
1938	886,199,569	..	762,641,058	..	1,648,840,627	..	123,558,511	..	598,418,000	..	2,062,482,000	87.36
1939	1,333,653,896	..	1,027,246,508	..	2,360,900,404	..	306,407,388	..	508,852,000	..	3,468,412,000	87.27
1940	2,027,143,048	..	1,970,120,647	..	3,997,263,695	..	57,022,401	..	705,296,000	..	3,468,055,000	83.10
1941 (Jan.-Sept.)	1,886,020,344	..	2,287,330,971	..	4,173,351,315	..	†401,310,627

†Excess of Exports.

KINDS OF GOODS LEVIED UNDER WARTIME CONSUMPTION TAX AND TARIFF RATES

(A) Domestic Goods.

* Represents goods taxed in that province.

Goods	Tariff Rates <i>ad valorem</i>	Szechwan and Sikang	Hupeh	Hunan	Kiangsi	Chekang and Kiangsu	Fukien	Kwangtung	Kwangsi	Kweichow	Yunnan	Kansu, Ningxia and Suiyuan	Shensi and Shansi	Honan	Anhui
Cotton	5%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Raw Silk	5%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Ramie	5%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Linen Cloth	5%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Vegetable Oil	5%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Paper	5%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Pottery	5%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Raw Hides	5%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Bamboo	10%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Lumber	10%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Lacquer	10%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Silk Piece Goods	10%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Ham	10%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Medicinal Plants and Spices	10%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Leather Goods	15%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Rugs	15%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Paper Money	20%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Firecrackers and Fireworks	20%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dried Sea Products	10-20%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Total	..	12	9	10	10	14	6	13	5	4	7	5	8	10	8

Remarks:—Under dry sea products item, awabi, biculo de mar, compoy, sharks' fin, fish maw, and fish skin are taxed 20% *ad valorem*. All other kinds of sea products, with the exception of salted fish, dried fish, shrimps, shrimp skins, shells and crushed shrimps which are not taxed, are taxed 10% *ad valorem*.

RELATION OF MARITIME CUSTOMS REVENUE TO FOREIGN LOANS AND INDEMNITIES
AND INTERNAL LOANS CHARGED THEREON

Year	Average Exchange	Combined Maritime Customs Gross Revenue		Combined Maritime Customs Net Revenue		Total Amounts Paid from Combined Maritime Customs Revenue towards Foreign Loans and Indemnities charged thereon		Total Amounts Paid from Com- bined Maritime Customs Revenue Surplus towards Internal Loans Service
		NC \$1 =	NC \$	£ Sterling	NC \$	£ Sterling	NC \$	
1937	1/2½ (nom.)		310,508,584	18,759,894	275,758,423	16,660,405	76,911,283	129,141,463
1938	1/2½ (")		233,309,273	14,095,769	77,269,408	4,668,360	77,958,676†	129,121,249‡
1939	1/2½ (")		301,760,363	18,231,355	31,178,409	1,883,696	15,229,943§	15,161,301
1940	1/2½ (")		434,964,774	26,279,122	18,359,176	1,109,200	8,929,413	9,132,633¶
1941 (Jan.—Sept.)	1/2½ (")		389,338,864	23,522,557	47,711,186	2,882,551	7,305,940	8,603,204

†Of this amount of NC \$77,958,676 the sum of NC \$77,269,408 (or @ 1/2½ = £4,668,360) was provided for from the Customs net revenue and the sum of NC \$689,268 (or @ 1/2½ = £41,643) advanced by the Chinese Government.

‡Whole amount was advanced by the Chinese Government.

§Of which NC \$2,379,679 (=£141,293,8/4) representing two monthly instalments of the Anglo-German loan of 1898 was paid in full while the remainders, NC \$12,850,264, was placed on deposit in special accounts with the Central Bank of China pending future application towards service of the foreign obligations.

||Placed on deposit in special accounts with the Central Bank of China pending future application towards service of the loans.

¶Including NC \$808,978 representing surplus revenue during 1940 applied toward making up part of the deficiencies of quotas outstanding at the end of 1939.

Note:—Gross Revenue=Net Revenue + Revenue seized by the Japanese Invaders.

LOANS SECURED BY CUSTOMS REVENUE

	<i>Outstanding Dec. 31, 1940</i>	<i>In Arrears Principal</i>	<i>Interest</i>
4½% Loan of 1898	£ 2,996,425	700,400	£119,081
5% Reorganization Loan	£19,691,880	537,020	£959,022
1925 French Indemnity	US\$14,835,910	US\$3,873,567	US\$155,229
1928 Belgian Indemnity	US\$1,148,687	US\$463,678	US\$18,581

LIST OF INTERNAL LOANS ISSUED BY THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

<i>Name of Loan</i>	<i>Amount Issued</i>	<i>Amount Outstanding June 30, 1938</i>
1. 2½% Surtax Treasury Bonds, 1st Issue	NC\$30,000,000.00	Fully repaid
2. 2½% Surtax Treasury Bonds, 2nd Issue	40,000,000.00	"
3. 17th Year Short-Term Currency Loan	30,000,000.00	"
4. Rolled Tobacco Tax Treasury Bonds, 1st Issue	16,000,000.00	"
5. 17th Year Military Loan	10,000,000.00	Converted
6. 17th Year Short-Term Rehabilitation Loan	40,000,000.00	Fully repaid
7. Tientsin Customs 2½% Surtax Treasury Bonds	9,000,000.00	"
8. 17th Year Long-Term Currency Loan	45,000,000.00	\$34,875,000.00
9. 18th Year Famine Relief Loan	10,000,000.00	Converted
10. 18th Year Disbandment Loan	50,000,000.00	"
11. Rolled Tobacco Tax Treasury Bonds, 2nd Issue	24,000,000.00	Fully repaid
12. Haiho Improvement Short-Term Loan ¹	4,000,000.00	\$400,000.00
13. 18th Year Customs Revenue Treasury Notes	40,000,000.00	Converted
14. 18th Year Reorganization Treasury Notes	70,000,000.00	"
15. 19th Year Customs Revenue Loan ..	20,000,000.00	"
16. 19th Year Rolled Tobacco Treasury Notes	24,000,000.00	Fully repaid
17. 19th Year Customs Revenue Short-Term Treasury Notes	80,000,000.00	Converted
18. 19th Year Rehabilitation Short-Term Treasury Notes	50,000,000.00	"
19. 20th Year Rolled Tobacco Treasury Notes	60,000,000.00	"
20. 20th Year Customs Revenue Short-Term Treasury Notes	80,000,000.00	"
21. Kiangsu and Chekiang Silk Loan	6,000,000.00	"
22. 20th Year Consolidated Tax Treasury Notes	80,000,000.00	"
23. 20th Year Salt Revenue Treasury Notes	80,000,000.00	"
24. 20th Year Flood Relief Loan	30,000,000.00	"

LIST OF INTERNAL LOANS ISSUED BY THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

<i>Name of Loan</i>	<i>Amount Issued</i>	<i>Amount Outstanding June 30, 1938</i>
25. 20th Year Short-Term Currency Loan	NC \$80,000,000.00	Converted
26. Patriotic Loan	20,000,000.00	"
27. 22nd Year Customs Revenue Treasury Notes	100,000,000.00	"
28. North China War Relief Short-Term Loan ²	4,000,000.00	"
29. 23rd Year Customs Revenue Treasury Notes ³	50,000,000.00	"
30. Railway Construction Bonds, 1st Issue	12,000,000.00	6,750,000.00
31. Yuping Railway Loan	12,000,000.00	8,400,000.00
32. 23rd Year 6% Boxer Indemnity Sterling Loan	£1,500,000.00	£1,102,000.00
33. 24th Year Currency Loan	\$100,000,000.00	Converted
34. 23rd Year Customs Revenue Loan ⁴	\$100,000,000.00	"
35. 24th Year Relief Loan	20,000,000.00	"
36. 24th Year Szechwan Currency Treasury Notes ⁵	30,000,000.00	"
37. 24th Year Szechwan Rehabilitation Loan ⁶	70,000,000.00	\$54,600,000.00
38. 24th Year Electric Bonds	10,000,000.00	6,900,000.00
39. Railway Construction Bonds, 2nd Issue	27,000,000.00	20,575,000.00
40. Italian Boxer Indemnity Loan	44,000,000.00	Converted
41. Russian Boxer Indemnity Notes	120,000,000.00	"
42. Consolidated Tax Notes ¹	120,000,000.00	"
43. 25th Year Short-Term Notes ¹	100,000,000.00	"
44. Consolidated Loan :—		
A	150,000,000.00	\$1,429,420,000.00
B	150,000,000.00	
C	350,000,000.00	
D	550,000,000.00	
E	260,000,000.00	
45. Recovery Loan	340,000,000.00	333,200,000.00
46. 25th Year Szechwan Rehabilitation Loan	15,000,000.00	13,800,000.00
47. Railway Construction Bonds, 3rd Issue	80,000,000.00	77,382,500.00
48. 25th Year Kwangtung Currency Readjustment Loan	120,000,000.00	115,200,000.00
49. 26th Year Nanking-Kiangsi Railway Loan	14,000,000.00	13,300,000.00
50. 26th Year U. S. Dollar Loan for Engineering Projects and Harbor Development in Kwangtung	US \$2,000,000.00	US \$1,920,000.00
51. 26th Year Kwangtung Province Railway Develop- ment Loan	£2,700,000.00	Withdrawn

¹Not included in Consolidation Scheme of 1936. Amortization and interest payments met from Haiho Surtax.

²Not included in Consolidation Scheme of 1936. Amortization and interest payments met from Changlu (North China) Surtax.

³Original amount issued \$100,000,000. Later reduced to \$50,000,000, balance replaced by equal amount of 23rd Year Customs Revenue Loan Bonds.

⁴Half of amount issued to replace 23rd Year Customs Treasury Notes.

⁵Secured on Wine and Tobacco Taxes of Szechwan Province.

⁶Secured on Salt Tax of Szechwan area.

LOANS* EXTENDED TO CHINA BY BRITISH AND AMERICAN GOVERNMENTS DURING THE WAR

From Great Britain

1938	Export Credit Loan	£ 3,500,000
1939	Currency Stabilization Loan	£ 5,000,000
1940	Currency Stabilization Loan	£ 5,000,000
1941	Credit Loan	£ 5,000,000
1942	Credit Loan	£50,000,000
Total		<u>£68,500,000</u>

From the United States

1938	Wood Oil Loan	US\$ 25,000,000
1940	Tin Loan	US\$ 20,000,000
	Wolfram Loan	US\$ 25,000,000
1941	Currency Stabilization Loan	US\$ 50,000,000
	Credit Loan	US\$ 50,000,000
	Mineral Products Loan	US\$ 60,000,000
1942	Credit Loan	US\$500,000,000
Total		<u>US\$730,000,000</u>

*Represent only loans announced to the Public.

LIST OF INTERNAL LOANS ISSUED BY NATIONAL GOVERNMENT BETWEEN JULY, 1937 AND 1942

Kinds	Date of Issuance	Amount	Interest	Discount
National Liberty Bonds	September, 1937	NC\$ 500,000,000	4%	0
26th Year Kwangsi Currency Re-adjustment Loan	December, 1937	NC\$ 17,000,000	4%	0
27th Year National Defense Bonds	May, 1938	NC\$ 500,000,000	6%	0
27th Year Gold Loan	May, 1938	C.G.U. 100,000,000	5%	0
		£ 10,000,000	5%	0
		US\$ 50,000,000	5%	0
27th Year Relief Loan	July, 1938	NC\$ 30,000,000	4%	98
28th Year Reconstruction Loan	April, 1939	NC\$ 600,000,000	6%	0
28th Year War Supplies Loan	June, 1939	NC\$ 600,000,000	6%	0
29th Year Reconstruction Loan	March, 1940	£ 10,000,000	5%	98
		US\$ 50,000,000	5%	98
29th Year War Supplies Loan	March, 1940	NC\$1,200,000,000	6%	94
30th Year War Supplies Loan	February, 1941	NC\$1,200,000,000	6%	0
30th Year Reconstruction Loan	February, 1941	NC\$1,200,000,000	6%	0
31st Year Allied Victory Loan	May, 1942	NC\$1,000,000,000	6%	0
31st Year Allied Victory Gold Loan	May, 1942	US\$ 100,000,000	4%	83.33
31st Year Thrift-Savings Gold Certificates	May, 1942	US\$ 100,000,000	3%	0

CAPITAL REDEEMED AND INTEREST PAID OF GOVERNMENT FOREIGN LOANS, 1940

Loans	Amount Issued	Amount of Capital Outstanding	Capital and Interest to be Paid		Capital Redeemed and Interest Paid	
			Capital	Interest	Capital	Interest
Anglo-German Loan of 1898	£16,000,000	£2,996,425	£700,400	£119,081
Reorganization Loan of 1913	25,000,000	19,691,880	537,020	959,022
Anglo-French Loan of 1908	5,000,000	250,000	..	11,250
Crisp Loan of 1912	5,000,000	2,666,971	..	183,349
Vickers-Macaulay Loans	2,403,200	2,403,200	..	57,076
Hukuang Loan of 1911	5,656,000	5,656,000	..	282,800
Wheat and Cotton Loan of 1931, 1933	US\$26,299,109	US\$10,500,000	..	US\$4,200,000	US\$4,200,000	..
Chicago Continental Bank Loan of 1919	5,500,000	5,500,000	..	275,000
Pacific Development Corporation Loan	4,900,000	4,900,000	..	147,000
Siangkwei Loan of 1938	£144,000	£144,000	..	£10,080	..	£5,040
Siangkwei Loan of 1938	Fr.180,000,000	Fr.180,000,000	Y188,000	Fr.12,600,000	Y188,000	Fr.6,300,000
.. An Lee " Company Treasury Notes	Y1,034,000	Y1,034,000	Y188,000	..	Y188,000	..
	\$1,910,000	\$1,460,000	\$120,000	..	\$120,000	..

CAPITAL REDEEMED AND INTEREST PAID OF GOVERNMENT INTERNAL LOANS, 1940

Loans	Amount Issued	Amount of Capital Outstanding	Capital and Interest to be Paid		Capital Redeemed and Interest Paid	
			Capital	Interest	Capital	Interest
17th Year Long Term Currency Loan	\$45,000,000	\$32,625,000	\$2,250,000	\$773,438
Consolidated Loan	1,460,000,000	1,412,450,000	29,510,000	83,457,300
Recovery Loan	340,000,000	329,800,000	3,400,000	19,635,000
25th Year Kwangtung Currency Readjustment Loan	120,000,000	105,600,000	3,600,000	4,344,000	\$3,600,000	\$4,344,000
26th Year U.S. \$ Loan for Engineering Projects and Harbor Development in Kwangtung	US\$2,000,000	US\$1,880,000	US\$80,000	US\$106,800
National Liberty Bonds	\$500,000,000	\$500,000,000	..	\$20,000,000	..	\$20,000,000
26th Year Kwangsi Currency Readjustment Loan	17,000,000	15,980,000	\$340,000	\$20,000,000	340,000	649,400
27th Year National Defense Bonds	500,000,000	494,000,000	4,000,000	29,820,000	4,000,000	29,820,000
27th Year Gold Loan	C.G.U.100,000,000	C.G.U.99,100,000	C.G.U.600,000	C.G.U.4,977,500	C.G.U.600,000	C.G.U.4,977,500
27th Year Gold Loan	£10,000,000	£9,910,000	£60,000	£497,750	£60,000	£497,750
27th Year Gold Loan	US\$50,000,000	US\$49,550,000	US\$300,000	US\$2,488,750	US\$300,000	US\$2,488,750
28th Year Construction Loan	\$600,000,000	\$600,000,000	..	\$36,000,000	..	\$36,000,000
28th Year Ammunition Loan	600,000,000	600,000,000	..	36,000,000	..	36,000,000
29th Year Ammunition Loan	1,200,000,000	1,200,000,000	..	18,000,000	..	18,000,000
29th Year Construction Gold Loan	£10,000,000	£10,000,000	..	£125,000	..	£125,000
29th Year Construction Gold Loan	US\$12,000,000	US\$10,000,000	..	US\$625,000	..	US\$625,000
Yuping Railway Loan	\$4,680,000	\$4,680,000	\$1,680,000	\$356,400	\$1,680,000	\$356,400
23rd Year 6% Boxer Indemnity Sterling Loan	£1,500,000	£972,000	£141,000	£52,170
24th Year Szechwan Rehabilitation Loan	\$70,000,000	\$33,600,000	\$8,400,000	\$2,394,000	\$8,400,000	\$2,994,000
24th Year Electric Bonds	10,000,000	6,900,000	1,400,000	249,000
Railway Construction Bonds 3rd Issue	\$80,000,000	\$77,382,500	\$4,000,000	\$4,800,000
25th Year Szechwan Rehabilitation Loan	15,000,000	12,300,000	600,000	765,000	..	765,000
26th Year Nanking-Kiangsi Railway Loan	14,000,000	13,200,000	1,400,000	684,000	..	684,000
27th Year Relief Loan	30,000,000	30,000,000	..	600,000	..	600,000

CAPITAL REDEEMED AND INTEREST PAID OF BOXER INDEMNITY, 1940

Country	Amount Issued	Amount of Capital Outstanding	Capital and Interest to be Paid		Capital Redeemed and Interest Paid	
			Capital	Interest	Capital	Interest
Great Britain	£7,593,082	£2,282,689	£573,499	£22,962
Japan	5,014,226	1,228,842	378,720	15,176
Portugal ¹	13,838	3,391	1,045	42
Norway and Sweden	9,423	1,397	712	29
U.S.A.	US \$24,440,779	US \$5,942,018	US \$1,845,991	US \$73,796
France	Fr 265,793,400	US \$14,835,910	US \$3,873,567	Fl. 155,229
Belgium	31,816,294	US \$1,148,687	US \$463,678	18,581
Netherlands	Fl. 1,464,652	Fl. 208,300	Fl. 106,092	Fl. 4,202
Spain	Fr. 507,431	Fr. 75,248	Fl. 38,326	Fr. 1,336

CHAPTER VI

COMMUNICATIONS

ADMINISTRATION

For centuries in China, matters relating to communications and transportation were not placed under any particular branch of the government. It was not until the close of the Manchu dynasty, or at the beginning of the 20th century, that a Ministry of Communications and Posts was established. This ministry was abolished after the establishment of the Republic and in its place the Ministry of Communications came into being.

After the completion of the Northern Expedition in 1928, the National Government took over from the defunct Peking Government all matters concerning communications and placed them under one unified organization. The Ministry of Railways was established in 1928 to take charge of railway construction and administration. This ministry was merged into the Ministry of Communications in January, 1938, in accordance with the Government's policy of readjusting communications organizations. In the same way the highway department of the National Economic Council was also handed over at the same time to the Ministry of Communications.

For a year and a half beginning July 1, 1941, highway administration including engineering, transportation, control and inspection was handled by the Transport Control Bureau under the National Military Council. At the end of 1942, however, the entire administration of this important phase of communications was returned to the Ministry.

Today there are six branches of services under the Ministry of Communications. They are: railways, highways, waterways, civil aviation, posts and telecommunications, and stage transportation.

Until recently the Ministry was headed by Mr. Chang Kia-ngau. He resigned early in December, 1942, and was succeeded by Mr. Tseng Yang-fu.

Before Mr. Chang joined the Government to direct communications, he had had a banking career of twenty-three years. When he took up the portfolio of Railways, he foresaw that large funds would be necessary to rehabilitate the

old roads and to build new ones, and, in order to attract new investment, railway credit and national credit would have to be restored. To this end, he devoted his first two years to a thorough re-organization of the different railway administrations in order to increase their operating efficiency and traffic revenues. At the same time he regulated those railway bond issues which had been in default, and succeeded in resuming their loan service. His labor was well-rewarded in that he was able to obtain new loans with which to start his construction program. His services with the Ministry of Communications since early 1938, when the Ministry of Railways was merged into the Ministry of Communications, were equally progressive and successful despite the numerous wartime difficulties.

RAILWAYS

Seventy-six years ago (in 1876) the first—and shortest-lived—railway in China was laid from Shanghai to Woosung by British promoters who had obtained the grudging consent of the Manchu authorities. The Shanghai-Woosung Railway of two-feet-six-inches gauge was only ten miles in length. Operation of this short railway was soon stopped as the Manchu government bought it and tore it up. Beginning with the days of this first attempt, the history of China's railways has been full of vicissitudes. At the outset the antagonism of the obstinate ruling officials against the enlightened statesmen of the time had to be contended with. Concessions made to, and vested interests of, various Powers as well as political changes and unease have greatly handicapped the development of railway construction in China.

Up to the time of the Mukden Incident (September 18, 1931), the total length of railways in China, including all government-owned, provincial and private-owned, was less than 15,000 kilometers. Traversing over or passing through only one-eighth of the national territory, most of the railways were located in North China and the North-eastern provinces.

In view of the importance of railways to national defense and military operations, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek in 1936 drafted a five-year railway construction plan. Based on the ideas laid down by Dr. Sun Yat-sen, the plan called for the construction of 8,500 kilometers of railroads within five years, with special emphasis on the Northwest, the Southwest and the Southeast (areas south of the Yangtze River). The plan aimed at the formation of a national railway network and was designed to enhance the welfare of the people and to meet the needs of national defense.

Efforts made by Mr. Chang Kia-ngau, then Minister of Railway, to restore railway credit and increase efficiency were successful and the first stages of the construction program progressed smoothly and rapidly. The war, however, rendered the execution of this important plan either too difficult or impossible for the present. Even then, what was completed before the outbreak of the war became a great help in military and ordinary transportation during the first phase of the war.

Among the more important achievements in connection with the five-year railway construction plan are the following:—

- (1) The Chuchow-Kukong (Shaokwan) section of the Canton-Hankow Railway of 456 kilometers was opened to traffic in April, 1936;
- (2) The Canton-Hankow and the Canton-Kowloon Railways were connected and through traffic began ten days after the war broke out;
- (3) Extension of the Lunghai Railway from Sian to Paoki (174 kilometers) before the war;
- (4) The Nanchang-Pinghsiang section of the Chekiang-Kiangsi Railway was rushed to completion and opened to traffic within a month's time after the war broke out;
- (5) Completion of the 75-kilometer Soochow-Kashing Railway;
- (6) Completion of the Hangchow-Tsaowokiang section and the bridge across the Chientang River;
- (7) Construction of the 365-kilometer Hengyang-Kweilin section of the

Hunan-Kwangsi Railway at a speed of one kilometer a day. The work was begun three months after the war broke out and completed in October, 1938. A speed record in railway construction in China was thus set. (The previous records were an average of 12 days per kilometer on the Peiping-Liaoning Railway and six days per kilometer on the Shanghai-Nanking Railway.)

Besides, there were several new construction works which, completed before or shortly after the war began, had to be destroyed as necessitated by the war situation in certain areas. Examples are the dynamiting of the Chientang River Bridge, the Yellow River Bridge at Tungkwan, and the railway from Chennankwan to Tungkiang on the Chennankwan-Nanning section of the Hunan-Kwangsi Railway, after the fall of Nanning. Shortage of materials due to transportation difficulties in wartime has caused suspension or slowing-down of construction of new lines. The 525-kilometer Chungking-Chengtou Railway is a good example. Work on this road began before the war and a large part of the railway foundation work has been completed, but due to the fact that necessary materials failed to be shipped in before the enemy blockade of the Yangtze, actual construction had to be suspended.

CONSTRUCTION IN WARTIME

After five and a half years of war only a little more than ten per cent of the old railways in coastal provinces or in North China remained in Chinese hands. Up to September, 1942, only 1,148 kilometers of all the lines constructed before the war were in operation in Free China. Statistics of the Ministry of Communications show that up to that time 1,207 kilometers of new railways had been constructed while 613 kilometers were under construction.

Practically all of the projected or partially completed railway lines in the Southwest and Northwest pass through difficult terrain characterized by high hills, steep passes, and thinly populated areas. This is particularly true with the Yunnan-Burma, the Kweichow-Kwangsi, and the Suifu-Kunming lines, the construction of which had to be preceded by building highways first in order to facilitate the transport of materials and equipment.

Among the railway construction undertakings during wartime are:

(1) The Hunan-Kwangsi Railway—From Hengyang in Hunan, the road is planned to terminate at Chennankwan on the China-Indo-China border, with a total length of 1,029 kilometers. Construction of the railway is divided into four sections. The first section from Hengyang to Kweilin (361 kilometers) was completed in 12 months at a record speed of one kilometer a day and it was opened to traffic on October 1, 1938. This section of the road played an important part in the evacuation of Canton and Hankow and the removal of both governmental and private properties from the war areas. Work on the second section of 174 kilometers from Kweilin to Liuchow began in August, 1938. It was opened to traffic on December 17, 1939.

Work on the 268-kilometer Liuchow-Nanning section began in 1938 but was entirely suspended in December, 1939, following enemy occupation of Nanning. After Nanning was recovered, construction of the Liukiang bridge was resumed and completed in 1940. Now through traffic is maintained by the Kweichow-Kwangsi Railway with the Hunan-Kwangsi and the Canton-Hankow lines. The section between Liuchow and Laiping, where rich coal mines are located, is also open to traffic.

The fourth section, 234 kilometers in length, which connects Nanning with the Dongdang station of the Indo-China Railway, four kilometers from Chennankwan, traverses a difficult terrain. As required by a loan agreement, engineering work on this section was entrusted to the French and work began in April, 1938, from the Chennankwan end. Between May and December, 1939, rails were laid over the 67-kilometer section from Dongdang to Ningming. But on account of the battle of Nanning work was suspended and a part of the rails taken up and carried into Indo-China. Some of the rest of the rails and materials were later used to construct the Kweichow-Kwangsi Railway.

(2) The Yunnan-Burma Railway—From Kunming to Kunlong on the border of Burma, this road is 880 kilometers in length and was calculated to serve as a main international supply line. Surveying work on the whole line was completed early in 1938 and building commenced in November, 1938. Circumstantial difficulties, particularly

since the outbreak of the Pacific war, have caused the suspension of construction. Rails have been laid on only the 34-kilometer section from Kunming to Anning.

(3) The Suifu-Kunming Railway—This road covers a distance of 859 kilometers from Kunming to Suifu (Ipin) in Szechwan, via Hsuanwei and Weining. Construction began in November, 1938. As the line was planned to connect at Kunming with the Yunnan-Indo-China Railway, arrangements were made with French authorities to supply construction materials on credit. This agreement, however, was never carried out as a result of the European war and the subsequent French capitulation. The engineering work was thus affected, and at present only the 162-kilometer section from Kunming to Chutsing is in operation.

(4) The Kweichow-Kwangsi Railway—With a length of 620 kilometers, the line connects with the Hunan-Kwangsi Railway at Liuchow and forms an important trunk line in Free China. Surveying work began in April, 1939. All materials necessary for this line are drawn from the projected Hunan-Kweichow Railway and also from certain dismantled sections of the Chekiang-Kiangsi Railway. Traffic was opened from Liuchow to Chinchengkiang of Hochih *hsien* (160 kilometers) at the end of January, 1941. Work is being continued on the section between Hochih and Kweiyang.

(5) The Hsienyang-Tungkwan Branch Line—Constructed primarily for the purpose of supplying and transporting Tungkwan coal for railway use, this line is a feeder line of the Lunghai Railway. Connecting Hsienyang and Tungkwan, with a length of 138 kilometers, the whole line has been completed.

(6) The Paoki-Tienshui Railway—This line is an extension of the Lunghai Railway. Linking Paoki and Tienshui, the terrain covered by the 168-kilometer line is full of high mountains. No less than 107 tunnels, with an aggregate length of 22 kilometers, will have to be cut through the mountain sides. Up to the summer of 1942, 37 per cent of the engineering work was completed.

(7) The Tienshui-Chengtu Railway—Surveying work on this line of 750 kilometers has been completed.

(8) The Kikiang Railway—Construction on this short line (86 kilometers)

which runs from Kiangtsin to Kikiang (in Szechwan), begun in the summer of 1942, is hoped to be completed in the near future.

(9) The Chengtu-Chungking Railway—Most of the stone and earth work on this road has been completed but due to shortage of materials, there is no immediate prospect of rail-laying.

RAILWAYS IN OPERATION

Railways in operation at the beginning of 1943 totalled 2,725 kilometers, including branch lines. In the first half of 1942, prior to the enemy occupation of the area through which the Chekiang-Kiangsi Railway passes, the total kilometrage was higher.

Railways in operation at present include the following:

TABLE 1.—RAILWAYS IN OPERATION IN JANUARY, 1943

Railways	Terminals	Distance
Canton-Hankow	Kukong to Siangtan	491 kilometers
Hunan-Kwangsi	Hengyang to Laiping and branches	647 "
Kweichow-Kwangsi	Liuchow to Chelin	230 "
Lunghai	Loyang to Paoki and branches	680 "
Szechwan-Yunnan	Kunming to Chutsing	160 "
Yunnan-Burma	Kunming to Anning	36 "
Yunnan-Indo-China	Kunming to Pishihchai...	288 "
Pei-Chuan		15 "
Ku-Pi-Shih	Pishihchai to Kuchiu to Shihping	178 "
		2,725 kilometers

During the period from October, 1941 to the end of August, 1942, more than 9,000,000 passengers and 3,200,000 troops were carried by these lines which also hauled more than 1,200,000 tons of freight and half a million tons of military supplies.

In conformity with the decision of the Ministry of Interior, the Kansu-Szechwan Standard Time (same as Chungking Time) has been introduced as the standard time for all the railways.

LIQUIDATION OF LOST RAILWAYS

During the period from July, 1937, to the end of 1939, no less than 16 railways were totally lost as a result of enemy occupation of the territory they traverse. These lines were either dismantled by order of the Government for military reason or seized by the enemy. The 16 lines are: the Peiping-Liaoning, Peiping-Suiyuan, Nanking-Shanghai, Shanghai-Hangchow-Ningpo, Chengting-Taiyuan, Kiaochow-Tsinan, Tientsin-Pukow (including the train ferry from

Nanking to Pukow), Nanking-Kiangsi, Peiping-Hankow, Canton-Kowloon, Nanchang-Kiukiang, Tatung-Puchow, Hui-nan, and the private-owned Nanking-Wuhu, Sunning, and Swatow-Chaochow Railways.

All of these lost railways have been declared in liquidation. On February 10, 1939, a Committee for the Control of Suspended Railways was formed. The committee is charged with the supervision and direction of the liquidation of government railways which have suspended operation and also with the custody of their properties after liquidation. The Ministry of Communications, in preparation for the restoration of the lost railways, instructed the committee to study and devise projects for the rehabilitation and improvement of the respective railways as soon as they are recovered.

WAR TRANSPORTATION

Chinese railways had to assume the heavy burden of transporting troops and materials immediately upon the

outbreak of the war with Japan. Close co-operation has been maintained by the Ministry of Railways (and later the Ministry of Communications after the amalgamation of the Railway Ministry) and the Railway Transportation Headquarters under the National Military Council.

War transportation may be summarized and grouped into six stages. The first stage began from July 7, 1937, to the fall of Nanking. During this period war spread over the Peiping-Liaoning, the Peiping-Suiyuan and the northern sections of the Peiping-Hankow and Tientsin-Pukow Railways. The Chengting-Taiyuan and the Tatung-Puchow Railways were soon affected. These railways had to undertake military transport and look after their own requirements and the evacuation from war areas of important materials and equipment. When the war broke out on August 13, 1937, in the Shanghai area, the carrying capacities of the railways such as the Shanghai-Nanking, the Shanghai-Hangchow-Ningpo and the Soochow-Kashing lines were taxed to a maximum. Under continuous enemy artillery fire and air-raids, all operations were conducted under great risk and uncertainty. During the period from July to December, 1937, the railways in operation moved a total of 4,467,376 officers and men and 1,236,629 tons of military supplies.

The period from the evacuation of Nanking through the great battle of Hsuechow and up to the loss of Kaifeng marked the second stage. During this stage the direction of the war was gradually moving from the Eastern Front to the West and a stalemate prevailed in Chekiang, Kiangsi, Kiangsu, Anhwei and south of the Yangtze River. Enemy troops advanced northward along the Tientsin-Pukow Railway and southward from Tientsin and across the Yellow River, in a pincer movement on Hsuechow. The tension thus created on the entire Tientsin-Pukow Railway and sections of the Peiping-Hankow, the Lunghai as well as the Chekiang-Kiangsi Railways was tremendous. Large-scale evacuation of civilians and materials toward the interior during this stage was perhaps most significant. When Hsuechow was threatened, the Peiping-Hankow Railway daily ran 30 trains, a record unsurpassed in China's war transportation. The great victory at Taierchwang was attributed in part to the high degree of efficiency of the

railway workers and their devotion to duty. During this stage, from January to June, 1938, the railways carried a total of 4,337,777 officers and men and 1,146,998 tons of military supplies.

The third stage started with the evacuation of Kaifeng up to the preparatory stage by the enemy for the siege of Hankow. War was then raging in the northwest and the western section of the Lunghai Railway was also affected. Enemy batteries on the north bank of the Yellow River kept up their barrage at the railroad on the opposite bank at Tungkwan. Despite the regular bombardment, traffic remained uninterrupted. Enemy troop movements were at the same time gradually converging on the Wuchang-Hankow area. The burden of transport then fell on the Peiping-Hankow Railway. Through traffic from Canton to Hankow was never for a day relaxed. Realizing the tremendous economic value of the Canton-Hankow line which hauled supplies northward from Hongkong, the enemy raided by air the railway on the average of once every ten hours. During the period from July to December of 1938, the railways moved a total of 2,647,583 officers and men and 486,163 tons of military supplies.

The fourth period followed with the enemy occupation of Canton and Hankow up to the loss of Nanning. After the evacuation of the Canton and Hankow areas, the war verged toward western Hupeh and northern Honan, northwest of Canton, and southern Kwangsi. With both ends of the Canton-Hankow Railway held by the enemy, railway traffic took an inevitable turn westward, making Hengyang and Kweilin new transportation centers. Up to the loss of Nanchang, the Chekiang-Kiangsi Railway assumed the functions of a trunk line. For several months through traffic was maintained from Kinshwa all the way to Hengyang and Kweilin, constituting a supply line equivalent to that from Hongkong to Hankow. Completion of the Hengyang-Kweilin section of the Hunan-Kwangsi Railway formed a much needed outlet for large quantities of materials and rolling stock withdrawn from the Northern railways to the Canton-Hankow line. During the period from January to December, 1939, the four railways concerned (Lunghai, Canton-Hankow, Chekiang-Kiangsi and Hunan-Kwangsi) moved a total of 2,823,872 officers and men and 359,863 tons of military supplies.

In the history of war transportation the year 1940 may be designated as the fifth stage. A characteristic of this period was the great hampering of enemy movements. The sections of railways under Chinese control enjoyed a breathing spell to get consolidated and stabilized. During this period the railways (Canton-Hankow, Chekiang-Kiangsi, Lunghai, and Hunan-Kwangsi) carried a total of 8,297,574 passengers, 2,915,725 military personnel, and hauled 1,195,593 tons of commercial goods and 475,984 tons of military supplies.

The sixth stage is from the beginning of 1941 to the close of 1942. Parts of the Kweichow-Kwangsi and the Suifu-Kunming Railways as well as several smaller branch lines were in operation. Several sections of old railways, such as sections of the Chekiang-Kiangsi, the Canton-Hankow and the Lunghai Railways, were dismantled. During the period from January, 1941 to the end of August, 1942, the railways carried a total of 17,042,763 passengers and 4,495,620 troops and also 970,071 tons of freight, including military supplies and commercial commodities.

WARTIME SERVICE

Railway workers in wartime have in most cases carried out their duties faithfully even under heavy enemy fire or bombardment. As a result of frequent enemy action against railway junctions and bridges, emergency engineering corps have been organized on each railway and relief engineering cars placed ready for any emergency work. Persistency and promptness in repair work has greatly contributed to the maintenance and continuation of railway service in certain areas.

During the first stage of the war the southern section of the Canton-Hankow Railway and the Canton-Kowloon Railway, owing to their importance as international supply lines, were heavily bombed by the enemy. Later the enemy changed their tactics from small-scale bombings on all railroads to concentrated aerial bombardments on some particularly important points. Within a period of two years after the war broke out, the whole length of the Canton-Hankow Railway was bombed 827 times during which 9,789 bombs were unloaded by the enemy. As a result of these bombings 179 railway employees were killed or injured.

The Tungkwan and Lingpao bridges on the Lunghai Railway, owing to their

location along the Yellow River which has been under constant enemy artillery fire, have been frequently damaged. But each time the bridges are damaged they are soon repaired so that traffic may not be held up.

The engineers have another important duty to perform—that of dismantling and removing rails, ties, parts of bridges and other equipment just before Chinese troop withdrawals or enemy approach, and also the dynamiting of the road-bed and all materials that cannot be taken away.

At the very outset of the war the Ministry of Communications promulgated two significant instructions. The first was to repair and keep on repairing any damaged portion of the railway or railway property under all conditions and at all costs; and the second was never to evacuate unless told to do so by the military authorities concerned. These two simple and yet fundamental commandments have now become a tradition. Although in their faithfulness to this tradition many railway workers have been killed, such contribution toward military and civilian transportation is of great value.

HIGHWAYS

Systematic construction of highways in China started late but has had a relatively rapid growth. The first highway for motor traffic was built in Hunan in 1912. It ran from Changsha to Siangtan. Five years later, in 1917, a Kalgan-Urga Motor Company was established for transportation business. The company built a highway from Kalgan (Changchiakou) to Urga (Kulun) and was the first commercial highway transportation concern in China. Since then highway construction was left to the discretion of different provincial authorities. In 1929 the National Roads Planning Commission was organized. Belonging first to the Ministry of Communications and later to the Ministry of Railways, the commission made plans for the construction of "national ways" throughout China with Lanchow as the center. However, it was not until 1932 with the establishment of the National Economic Council that a Bureau of Roads (one of the departments under the Council) was organized to handle centralized planning, construction and supervision of highways on a national scale.

Within the short space of five years up to the time when war broke out in 1937,

rehabilitation and extension of motor roads was carried out with great speed, first in the Southeastern provinces and later extended to provinces in the Southwest and Northwest. With central and provincial authorities pushing the road-building work together, highway networks began to take form in practically all the provinces. In July, 1937, highways in China totalled 109,500 kilometers, 25,000 kilometers being surfaced roads and 84,500 kilometers earth roads.

Up to the summer of 1942, of the highways constructed before the war 76,604 kilometers remained in Chinese hands. In addition, 6,023 kilometers of new highways have been built, 5,407 kilometers of roads were either under construction or being surveyed, while another 2,754 kilometers were projected, making a total of 90,780 kilometers. Length of roads in proportion to territorial areas has greatly increased over the pre-war ratio.

In consequence of the heavy losses sustained by the railways and due to the fact that motor roads can be built more easily and at lower cost, highways have assumed a leading role in both military and civil transportation in wartime China. The increasing importance of highways led to the establishment of the Bureau of Highways under the Ministry of Communications in January, 1938. The bureau took over from the National Economic Council administration of all existing highways and was charged with the construction and maintenance of new and old roads. In August, 1939, the National Highway Transport Administration was established as an additional subsidiary organization under the Ministry. It was charged with complete control of all matters pertaining to civil transport on the highways and the supervision of all highway administrations in order to meet urgent military and commercial requirements and to enhance the capacity of export and import commodities. With this organization in operation, functions of the Bureau of Highways were limited to highway construction and engineering and traffic control.

With highway construction centralized and systematized, motor roads in China were grouped into three main sections. The Southwest highway network has Kweiyang as its center, the Northwest network has Lanchow as its center, while Chengtu is the pivot of the intermediary group linking the Southwestern and the Northwestern networks.

(The Northwest system runs from Hankow through the provinces of Honan, Shensi, Kansu into Sinkiang. The Southwest runs from Hunan through Szechwan, Yunnan, Burma, Kwangsi and Kwangtung. The intermediary network, connecting the two, runs from Szechwan to Shensi and Kansu.)

Both the Bureau of Highways and the National Highway Transport Administration were transferred to the Transport Control Bureau under the National Military Council in July 1941. At the end of 1942, however, all matters relating to highway construction and transportation were transferred back to the Ministry of Communications.

Highways in different sections of the country are placed under regional administrations. The Northwestern Highway Transportation Administration is in charge of passenger and freight traffic in the Northwest, and the Southwestern Highway Transportation Administration in the Southwest. The management of the Yunnan-Burma Highway is separated from the Southwestern Highway Transportation Administration.

CONSTRUCTION OF NEW ROADS

In view of the importance of highways to wartime transportation, construction of highways has been speeded up during the war years while those already built have been greatly improved and resurfaced. Within the first two and a half years after war broke out, 3,223 kilometers of new roads were built and 17,824 kilometers of old highways were improved. On the average 1,290 kilometers of new roads were constructed and 7,130 kilometers of old roads were improved each year.

Standards for highway construction were fixed by the Government, providing that the width of road base on trunk highways must be at least 12 meters, on secondary lines nine meters, and on branch or feeder lines seven and a half meters. The maximum degree of elevation on slopes was fixed at six per cent unless under special conditions when it could be increased to eight per cent. Maximum and minimum standards or requirements have also been fixed for road curves, road surface, and bridges.

In the construction of highways in wartime, emphasis has been laid on building, connecting and maintaining international lines and arteries linking provinces in the interior. Besides the famous Yunnan-Burma Highway several other highways

connecting with roads or railways beyond the national borders have been built, extended or improved. In the Northwest is the 2,674-kilometer highway which runs from Lanchow to the Chinese-Soviet border via Sinsinchia and Tihwa (Urumchi). Another international line was built in the South from Cheho on the Kweichow-Kwangsi Highway to Yohsu on the Kwangsi-Indo-China border via Tienchow and Maping. Work on this road began in March, 1939, and was completed in January, 1940. The road took the place of the Nanning-Chennankwan Highway after Nanning fell into enemy hands. The Kunming-Hokow Highway between the Yunnan provincial capital and the Yunnan-Indo-China border town (496 kilometers) was built in 1940 to supplement transportation over the Yunnan-Indo-China Railway which was then under constant Japanese bombings. Both lines, however, lost their value as soon as the enemy occupied Indo-China.

Another international line built after the war began is the Canton-Hongkong Highway via Shumchun which served as a feeder or supplementary line of Canton-Kowloon Railway before Canton was lost. The length of this highway is 163 kilometers.

Plans for the construction of a highway from China to India had been under way following the enemy occupation of Indo-China. At the beginning a line running from Sichang to Sadiya with an estimated length of approximately 1,500 kilometers was projected. Later, another line to the north of the first was planned. Surveying work on the southern or the first line has been completed but no actual construction work has yet begun.

Construction of highways for military uses is carried out directly by the provincial authorities in whose territories the projected lines lie or pass through. The Bureau of Highways, however, provides the provincial authorities concerned with all necessary assistance in the form of technical advice and construction supervision. Subsidies are also given besides sending technical staff of the bureau to various provinces.

Among the important highways built since the war are the following:

Szechwan-Hunan Highway.—The 698-kilometer section from Kikiang in Szechwan to Chatung in Hunan (on the Hunan-Szechwan border) was completed in 1938, linking the two provinces directly by highway.

Hengyang-Paoching and Tunghou-Yushuwan Highways.—These two lines with an aggregate length of 284 kilometers connect the provinces in the Southeast with Szechwan, Kweichow and Yunnan. The highways were built in 1939 by the Hunan provincial authorities with funds appropriated by the Central Government.

Ankang-Paiho Section of the Hanchung-Paiho Highway.—The 259-kilometer section between Ankang and Paiho in Shensi, together with the 266-kilometer section from Nancheng to Ankang are important motor-road links between southern Shensi and northern Hupeh.

Tienshui-Shuangshihpu Highway.—This highway of 231 kilometers from Tienshui in southeastern Kansu to Shuangshihpu in southwestern Shensi forming junctions with the Sian-Lanchow and Szechwan-Shensi Highways was completed in 1939 by Kansu provincial authorities with funds from the Central Government.

Hohsien-Lienhsien Highway.—This highway of 150 kilometers linking Hohsien in eastern Kwangsi and Lienhsien in northern Kwangtung was built in 1939 by Kwangtung and Kwangsi provincial authorities with Central Government appropriations. It has served well in the inter-provincial communication between the two provinces.

Szechwan-Yunnan Highway.—Known also as the Szechwan-Yunnan Eastern Highway, this road from Luhsien to Kunming direct is 240 kilometers shorter than the Chungking-Kunming highway via Kweiyang. The highway passes through extremely difficult mountainous terrain, and crosses seven large rivers which are covered by means of two bridges and five ferries.

Neikiang-Loshan Highway.—The 190-kilometer highway runs from Neikiang to Loshan via Tzeliutsing. Crossing through central Szechwan, it connects with the Chungking-Chengtou and Loshan-Sichang trunk lines. The road was completed at the end of 1940.

Sichang-Hsiangyun Highway.—Construction of this highway linking Sichang in Sikang and Hsiangyun in Yunnan on the Yunnan-Burma Highway began on December 1, 1940. Branching off the Burma Road west of Kunming, the road runs almost straight north, most of it through mountainous terrain. The road assumed primary importance in the fighting along the Yunnan-Burma Highway in 1942.

Loshan-Sichang Highway.—Running from Loshan to Sichang via Omei,

Chinhokou, Fulin and Mienning, the road is 524 kilometers in length. Work began in August, 1940. Construction got under way even before surveying was completed. This highway from Szechwan to Sikang traverses vast stretches of sparsely populated country. Most of the workmen had to be brought from central and eastern Szechwan. Owing to scarce means of transportation, many of the workers went on foot for several hundred kilometers to reach their places of work.

Loiwing-Wanting Highway.—Although only 59 kilometers in length, the Loiwing-Wanting Highway served well as a supplementary line on the western section of the Yunnan-Burma Highway. Bhamo in Burma can be reached via this road.

Kweilin-Sansui Highway.—Starting from Kweilin, the road connects with the Hunan-Kweichow Highway. Passing through the provinces of Kwangsi, Hunan and Kweichow, direct connection without passing through Liuchow is made between Kweilin and Kweiyang. The length of the road is 479 kilometers. Work began in January, 1940 and construction was undertaken by sections. Earth road was completed in March, 1941. Road-surfacing work was 90 per cent completed in October, 1942.

Besides the new highways constructed, improvement work has progressed constantly on the existing highways. Improvement work includes reducing of road curves, resurfacing of certain sections of the highways, strengthening of bridges, viaducts and ferries, and widening of roads. The extent of road improvement work can be seen from the fact that within the 11 months from October, 1941 to August, 1942, improvement work was carried out on a total length of 15,899 kilometers.

YUNNAN-BURMA HIGHWAY

Much has been said or written about the Yunnan-Burma Highway which is popularly known as the Burma Road. This famous highway connecting China's backdoor with Burma is almost a legend in itself. Previously considered impossible, the highway measuring 960 kilometers from Kunming to Wanting on the China-Burma border was completed and opened to traffic after only about eight months of work. To construct the road, some 160,000 men, women and children were mobilized and set to work, using mostly only crude implements such as spades, chisels, picks and baskets. Only less than

\$10,000,000 was spent on this gigantic road which runs through a difficult and mountainous country and fever-ridden areas. As a great human achievement, construction of the Burma Road—particularly during wartime and without much machinery—has been compared to the building of the Union Pacific Railway in the United States. Traversing difficult terrain, the Yunnan-Burma Highway is well-known as a hard road. When it was first completed, the general fear was that during the monsoon season (June to September) there would probably be many dangerous landslides which might make the road impassable. However, due to constant, untiring efforts to keep the highway open to traffic, no landslide ever caused the suspension of traffic on any section of the road for more than 48 hours at a stretch. Millions of dollars have been spent since the completion of the highway to improve the general condition, reduce curvature, strengthen bridges and viaducts, widen the road surface, and provide health station facilities.

The section from Kunming to Hsiakwan (411 kilometers) was first built by the Yunnan Provincial Government in 1935. It was later resurfaced and improved. Work on the Hsiakwan-Wanting section began in the winter of 1937 and traffic on the whole road was opened late in 1938.

In the summer of 1940, the Burma Road was closed by British authorities for three months. It was reopened on October 18, 1940. Seven minutes after midnight, October 17, a fleet of 60 trucks left Lashio for Kunming via the Yunnan-Burma Highway. Traffic on the road was heavy and ever-increasing until April, 1942 when the loss of Burma made the famous "back-door supply route" lose its significance for the time being. In autumn, 1941, the monthly capacity of the road had reached 15,000 tons; the previous average amount transported per month was only 9,000 tons.

From November, 1941 to the end of January, 1942, 125 kilometers of the Burma Road (from Wanting on the border to Lungling in west Yunnan) was asphalted at a cost of \$7,000,000. Six thousand villagers, conscripted from adjoining districts, including many aboriginals of both sexes, were placed under three contracting firms. In addition, the Yunnan-Burma Highway Administration fielded its own engineering Labor Corps of 7,000 men.

To help improve transportation efficiency on the Burma Road, Harry Hopkins, Lend-Lease Co-ordinator of the U.S. Government, in 1941 sent a mission of three highway experts to study actual conditions of the road and plan for handling heavier traffic. The mission was headed by Daniel Arnstein, head of the huge New York Terminal Cab Company, with 30 years of trucking experience in the United States. The other members were Harold Davis and Marco Hellman, also traffic experts. In his report published in *Life* magazine, Arnstein described the Yunnan-Burma Highway as follows:

"My first sight of the Burma Road was at Kunming, the Chinese terminus and the last flat spot before this incredible highway begins. There is nothing like this Burma Road anywhere else in the world. When you see it, you understand the American engineer who exclaimed, 'My God, they scratched these roads out of the mountains with their fingernails.' From Kunming, at one end, the road winds perilously for 726 miles through the jagged Burma mountain ranges, over the deep Mekong and Salween canyons and down to the British end in Lashio. A crow with a liking for high altitudes could fly it in 360 miles, but after Kunming we never saw as much as one-eighth of a mile of straight road ahead.

"The Burma Road is only a few years old, for the Chinese built it after the war began. Yet it was built with the same technique used 2,000 years ago on the Great Wall of China. Each village and hamlet along the way supplies the workers who are still finishing the road. They bring with them their own food and adzes to chip the rock by hand. Then they haul the earth away by hand in baskets. During the early stages of the work, 200 out of every 250 workers died of malaria. Any laborer in the United States would refuse to work under conditions which I saw 10-year-old children quietly enduring. There were landslides, 1,000-ft. precipices and great bomb holes."

HIGHWAY TRAFFIC CONTROL

The Transport Control Bureau under the National Military Council was established in March, 1940. On July 1, 1941 the bureau took over from the Ministry of Communications control of highway transportation. After 18 months, close to the end of 1942, matters relating to highway transportation were

again placed under the administration of the Ministry of Communications.

One of the chief functions of the Transport Control Bureau is centralized inspection and examination. Sixty-one inspection stations have been set up at highway and waterway communication junctions while prior to the establishment of these stations under unified control there were more than 700 inspection units operating under different authorities. The bureau amalgamated 349 inspection units in 11 provinces and put out of commission 373 unauthorized inspection units in 12 provinces.

From July, 1941 to September, 1942, the bureau handled 3,679 cases of violation of regulations or law by motor vehicles, 71 out of which were serious cases. During the same period the administration seized 1,155 tons and 705 kilograms of goods which were transported in violation of the law.

NATIONAL LICENCES

Since the establishment by the Ministry of Communications of the Motor Vehicle Licence Bureau in Chungking in August, 1939 (which was placed under the Transport Control Bureau in July, 1941), all matters relating to registration, examination and issuance of licences for motor vehicles, drivers and mechanics in the country were handled by one central office.

Drivers of all motor vehicles who were holders of driving licences issued by the National Communications Commission or various provincial or municipal authorities were required to apply, within a specified period of time, to the Motor Vehicle Licence Bureau or offices designated by the Ministry for a new national driving licence after submitting their original licences for examination. Examinations were held after expiration of this period for those who failed to apply for the exchange of licence or who had lost their original licences. Such examinations were also open to applicants who had completed driving courses. Up to the end of 1940, the bureau issued a total of 24,441 licences, including 23,644 professional licences, 691 ordinary licences, and 106 licences to those who were learning to drive.

National licences for all types of motor vehicles, excepting those for military use, are also issued by the bureau. Classified according to the types and service of vehicles, eight different kinds of licences (private passenger car,

passenger car for hire, trucks, special vehicles, motor cycles, testing or cars-on-trial, temporary, and postal trucks) are used. The national licences are valid throughout the country. Up to the end, of 1940, licences issued totalled 16,429 of which 11,829 were for trucks, 2,421 for passenger cars, 1,593 for buses, 338 for special vehicles, 16 for motor cycles and 232 for postal trucks.

On the highways along the national border, the bureau also set up branch offices to register and issue licences for new motor vehicles entering the country.

FUEL PROBLEM AND SUBSTITUTES

To save tonnage on trucks which usually had to reserve a part of their loading capacity to carry enough gasoline for single or return trips, the Ministry of Communications in March and May, 1941, signed contracts with British and American petroleum companies to supply fuel to motor vehicles on the highways by establishing filling stations. The Yunnan-Burma Highway was the first highway to have road-side filling stations which were located at Kunming, Chuhsing, Paoshan and Hsiakwan. It was estimated that together these stations could supply enough gasoline to some 4,000 motor vehicles plying the road every month.

Following the outbreak of the Pacific war and especially after the enemy occupation of Burma, strict measures were enforced to limit consumption of gasoline. Efforts were made to improve and popularize gasoline substitutes and various types of converter systems or devices which provide other-than-gasoline power to motor vehicles. Among the gasoline substitutes are synthetic gasoline refined from vegetable oils which China produces in abundance, alcohol, natural gas, acetylene gas from calcium carbide, heavy oils, and charcoal. Among these, charcoal is most economical and no refining process is involved. All private-owned lorries and buses as well as passenger buses on the highways were required to be converted into non-gasoline-powered cars.

Encouraging owners of trucks to convert their vehicles into non-gasoline vehicles, the Transport Control Bureau in September, 1942, announced that any truck owner who does not have sufficient funds to convert or remodel his truck or trucks can apply for a loan from the Bureau. Using the vehicles as collateral, the loans are to be paid back in four months' time.

Early in November, 1942, the Bureau sponsored a long-distance contest of charcoal-burning or heavy-oil-powered trucks to check up on efficiency and special merits of different types of trucks powered by neither gasoline nor alcohol. Open to all government-owned and private factories manufacturing or remodelling such motor vehicles, the contest covered the 488-kilometer distance between Chungking and Kweiyang. As gasoline or alcohol was only allowed to be used for starting, trucks fitted with apparatus using partly these volatile fuels and partly other fuels were not eligible to compete. Trucks participating in the contest each carried 80 per cent of the full-load capacity fixed by its manufacturer or remodeller. For hauling the loads to Kweiyang, contesting concerns were paid according to the regular highway transportation rates.

It was found, following the contest, that in general trucks using heavy oils were more expensive to operate but had better speed than charcoal vehicles.

Motor fuel has been less of a problem in the Northwest where promising oil wells have been and are being worked. Their present output is but a fraction of their potentialities. Circumstances limit the production to only as large as the capacity of the existing refining machinery. Even then, enough is produced to service trucks taking wool and tungsten to Soviet Russia via Sinkiang and returning from the border with Soviet barter goods.

A step of permanent importance is the formation of a fuel research committee by the Transport Control Bureau. More than 40 specialists have pooled their technical knowledge and experience for a more satisfactory solution of China's fuel problem. Plans, designs, charts and patents, formerly regarded as professional secrets, have been placed at the disposal of the committee for study and for perfection by joint efforts.

MOTOR VEHICLE REPAIRS AND SUPPLIES

With 14 complete sets of apparatus and tools for repairing motor vehicles purchased from the United States, the Ministry of Communications set up repair workshops in Chungking, Kunming, Kweiyang, Lanchow, Chengtu, Luhsien and Paocheng. Two additional workshops, one in Chungking and the other in Chengtu, were established in 1941, raising the total number of such workshops to nine.

In Chungking the Ministry has also established a motor accessories factory with two plants manufacturing a number of essential and relatively-simple-to-make motor vehicle parts as well as sundry repairing tools.

CHINA TRANSPORT CORPORATION

Incorporated under a special charter granted by the National Government, the China Transport Corporation was established in Chungking on January 1, 1940, by amalgamation of the former Szechwan-Kwangsi Highway Transportation Administration of the Ministry of Communications and the transportation department of the Foo Shing Trading Corporation under the Foreign Trade Commission. Formation of this corporation conducted on lines similar to those in the United States was recommended by the American Highway Mission (consisting of highway experts M.E. Sheahan, A. B. Bassi and C. W. Van Patter) which came to China in September, 1939, at the invitation of the Ministry of Communications. Capitalized at \$50,000,000 and with an initial term of operation of 30 years, the China Transport Corporation was entrusted with the centralized control and operation of civil highway transport services, passenger as well as freight.

Organization of the corporation follows the general pattern of a transport company in the United States. With a controlling board of directors, the company is divided into departments of transportation, business, and auditing and checking. Six business districts—Chungking, Kweiyang, Kunming, Liuchow, Yuanling, and Luhsien are placed under the business department which is sub-divided into two sections of passenger and freight transportation.

A reorganization was effected on October 10, 1940. The corporation was placed under the Transport Control Bureau of the National Military Council on July 1, 1941, following which the board of directors was dissolved. (The corporation regained its status as an independent unit following the turning-over to the Ministry of Communications of matters regarding highway transport by the Transport Control Bureau at the end of 1942.)

The scope of business of this corporation, according to a resolution adopted at the 441st meeting of the Executive Yuan, includes (1) undertaking passenger, freight and parcel transportation by highways, railways, waterways and by

air; (2) manufacturing and assembling of transportation vehicles; (3) manufacturing, assembling, storing and distributing of all necessary materials and accessories; (4) purchasing, renting or leasing of land or house properties for necessary business operation; (5) carrying postal matters; (6) construction and operation of facilities for the convenience of passengers and employees of the corporation; (7) investing in other transportation companies or buying their shares and stocks; (8) operating other business which is related to transportation. Since the inauguration of the corporation its business has so far been limited to only highway transportation.

When the corporation was formed, highway lines in the Southwest covered by vehicles of the corporation totalled more than 5,640 kilometers, passing through the five provinces of Szechwan, Kweichow, Yunnan, Hunan and Kwangsi. Its network extended in the west to Wanting on the China-Burma border, in the south to Yoyu on the Indo-China border, in the east to Taoyuan in Hunan, in the southeast to Liuchow, and in the northeast to Chatung in Hunan.

Following the enemy occupation of Indo-China and Burma and the transfer of the corporation to the Transport Control Bureau, drastic changes were made. At the end of 1942 the corporation's transportation routes included the 990-kilometer Chungking-Chutsing line via Kweiyang, the Kweiyang-Hochih and Kweiyang-Taoyuan lines with an aggregate length of 1,206 kilometers, and the Kikiang-Chatung line of 709 kilometers. Freight transport on the Chungking-Chutsing line is heavier than passenger transportation as the Chungking-Kweiyang-Kunming Highway forms the main line of transportation for both import and export goods. Due to the fact that the Kweiyang-Hochih line links with the Kweichow-Kwangsi Railway, thus forming an important connection between provinces in the Southeast and those in the Southwest and the Northwest, passenger service is heavier than freight transportation. The Kweiyang-Taoyuan and the Kikiang-Chatung lines are mainly for the convenience of merchants.

In its first three years of existence, the corporation's freight service was at first mainly to transport tung oil for export by the Foo Shing Trading Corporation, with antimony and tungsten for the National Resources Commission occupying secondary importance. In

imports, liquid fuels and various kinds of supplies for the Ministry of Communications, the Ministry of War and other government offices were the main items. After the corporation was placed under the control of the Transport Control Bureau, military supplies formed the bulk of freight carried in, with salt and antimony and tungsten transported on the return journeys.

Upon formation of the corporation and amalgamation of the two old units, there were 254 passenger vehicles. After conversion of some lorries into passenger buses, the number was increased to 333

at the end of June, 1940. The number of buses at the end of June, 1941, was 338, including relief trucks and obsolete vehicles. In the last year or so, due to shortage of parts and accessories which resulted in difficulties in repairs, and also due to the fact some vehicles are over-aged while others have been converted into charcoal-burning buses, only about 100 passenger buses could be placed in regular service. All passenger buses in service at present are powered by charcoal.

The following table summarizes the passenger service record of the corporation :

TABLE 2.—PASSENGER SERVICE STATISTICS OF THE CHINA TRANSPORT CORPORATION, 1940 TO 1942

Item	1940	1941	1942 (Jan.-June)
Passenger Service	61,246,763 passenger-kilometers	44,136,922 passenger-kilometers	17,356,265 passenger-kilometers
Paid Baggage	255,290 ton-kilometers	159,421 ton-kilometers	57,463 ton-kilometers
Parcel Service	129,896 ton-kilometers	159,421 ton-kilometers	22,880 ton-kilometers

The corporation had a total of 1,287 trucks of various makes and loading capacity during the first part of 1940. At the end of June, 1940, with the addition of new vehicles the number was increased to 1,652. In January,

1943, the number of lorries was some 1,400, about half of which were in regular operation and powered by alcohol or charcoal.

The following table summarizes the freight service record of the corporation :

TABLE 3.—FREIGHT SERVICE STATISTICS OF THE CHINA TRANSPORT CORPORATION, 1940 TO 1942

Period	Freight Carried in Ton-Kilometers
January-June, 1940	6,493,060
July-December, 1940	8,790,328 (1940 annual total—15,283,388)
January-June, 1941	9,534,683
July-December, 1941	5,379,633 (1941 annual total—14,914,316)
January-June, 1942	6,084,080

Freight carried included goods for export, military supplies, materials for construction and transfer of supplies for use of the depots and offices of the corporation. Tung

oil for export transported for the Foo Shing Trading Corporation formed the bulk of the freight (11,938,691 ton-kilometers) carried in two and a half years.

TABLE 4.—PRINCIPAL HIGHWAYS IN OCCUPIED AREAS

Name of Highway	Distance
	Km.
Chefoo-Shihtao	207
Chefoo-Weihsien	340
Chiaohsien-Tungshung	138
Tsihsien-Tsincheng	349
Tsinan-Chanhua	222
Tsinan-Licheng	260
Tsinan-Litsin ...	226
Chinan-Puhsien	290
Chinkiang-Liyang	104
Chinkiang-Shuyang	251
Hankow-Ichang	307
Haohsien-Tungliu	666
Hsiaotang-Nanchiao	125
Huangmei-Hankow	222
Ihing-Changshu	105
Kalgan-Kuyuan	206
Kalgan-Pailingmiao	705
Kalgan-Tatung	205
Kalgan-Tolun	305
Kweisui-Aptonking	855
Kweisui-Fengcheng	220
Kweisui-Pailingmiao	173
Luhochitung	328
Macheng-Yanghsin	249
Nanking-Hangchow (Trunk Line)	322
Nanking-Hsuencheng	162
Nanking-Shanghai (Trunk Line)	327
Nanking-Taierchwang (Trunk Line)	425
Paotow-Sunid	350
Peiping-Kupeikou	134
Peiping-Paoting	173
Peiping-Shanhaikwan	333
Peiping-Tientsin	124
Pukow-Susung	454
Shanghai-Hangchow (Trunk Line)	210
Taierchwang-Weihsien	464
Taiyuan-Chuntu	288
Taiyuan-Fenlingtu	649
Taiyuan-Tatung	369
Tientsin-Hsifengkou	256
Tientsin-Paoting	223
Tientsin-Tsangchow	69
Tsingtao-Chefoo	310
Tsingtao-Huanghsien	198
Tunghai-Hsuehow	365

SHIPPING

Before the war Chinese shipping was handicapped by the inland navigation rights enjoyed by treaty powers and the total tonnage of Chinese steamships then was only a little more than half a million tons. Timely measures in the evacuation of merchant vessels when the war broke out saved the major portion of the shipping tonnage. All steamships were

ordered to rush into the Yangtze or sail to Hongkong and some other ports if it was not possible to enter the Yangtze. As a result of this precautionary step, it was estimated that the Japanese were only able to seize 29 ships (48,359 tons) at the beginning of the war. At Hankow there were only 450 ships totalling 42,682 tons before the war. But in February, 1938, following the shipping evacuation measure the number of steamships was increased to 645 and the tonnage to 143,790. When the situation at Hankow became critical, the Hankow Bureau of Navigation in collaboration with military transport authorities supervised further evacuation of ships. At that time 208 ships sailed to Ichang, 66 to Changsha, 16 to Changteh and 105 ships moved to Chungking from Ichang.

Although receiving little public attention, the part played by shipping in wartime transportation has been great. As a big river junk attains a maximum capacity of 60 tons while a truck averages only three, the saving in transportation costs on freight not requiring speed is apparent. Besides the cheaper cost, certain goods and materials too bulky to be transported by trucks usually can be shipped without difficulty. In the evacuation of Hankow, steamships and junks transported more than 100,000 tons of arsenal machinery, equipment, supplies and arms into Szechwan and about the same quantity of machinery and supplies for private factories which were located in coastal cities.

More attention has been given to the development of inland navigation since the war. More ships, mostly of the improved type, have been built and trial runs have been made on rivers which heretofore were uncharted and new navigation lines opened. In order to ensure safer and faster shipping, towing stations have been established to pull ships upstream, especially through rapids and at difficult stretches of rivers. Shipping administration has also been greatly improved.

Although at present the number and tonnage of ships are less than in pre-war times, the establishment of towing stations and other facilities coupled with the fact that ships have been structurally improved, make the total shipping capacity greater than before the war.

WARTIME MEASURES

In any country at war the transfer of ownership and lease of ships to foreign countries or to the enemy is forbidden

and China is no exception. In order to maintain coastal sailings and to preserve Chinese shipping tonnage, during the first stages of the war ships were, in accordance with regulations fixed by the Executive Yuan, allowed to be transferred to foreign interests with the approval of the Ministry of Communications. The Government in wartime reserves the right to commandeer and control all private-owned ships, wharves and godowns, rentals and fees for the use of which are paid to the owners.

Except for the bureaus of navigation which had to be closed down due to the war (such as those in Shanghai and Tientsin), the Ministry of Communications has improved all navigation bureaus located along inland waterways so as to meet the exigencies of the new situation. The bureaus of navigation at Hankow and Canton were moved to Chungking and Wuchow (Kwangsi) in the winter of 1938. In Szechwan and Kwangsi where provincial authorities originally had their own navigation offices, negotiations were made to avoid duplication of work and conflicting authorities. The Hankow Bureau of Navigation was on August 1, 1941, reorganized into the Bureau of Navigation for the Yangtze Area with its sphere of administration covering all the provinces in the Yangtze valley. In addition to its old offices at Kiukiang, Changsha, Changteh and Ichang, new ones were set up in Szechwan at Luhsien, Hochwan and Nanchung.

With the aim of placing shipping under one centralized control for emergency services, the Ministry of Communications in 1937 ordered the China Merchants' Steam Navigation Company and all private shipping concerns to organize a joint office known as the Yangtze Shipping Administration Office. The office was inaugurated on August 24, 1937, to control the disposition and distribution of all passenger and freight vessels plying the Yangtze, arrangement of sailing schedules, and the supply of ships for military transport. In September, 1937, the bureaus of navigation were instructed to organize, in conjunction with local authorities and private shipping interests, inland waterway shipping business joint offices. Such offices were established for the control of (1) disposition and distribution of vessels for various services; (2) arrangement of sailing schedules; (3) supply of vessels for military transport; (4) supply of vessels for coal and other cargo; (5) sharing of wharves and godowns

among the various shipping concerns; (6) standardization of freight rates; (7) supply of bunker coal; and (8) cooperation and coordination of technical and business matters among the different shipping concerns.

To safeguard life and property, the Ministry of Communications obtained the concurrence of the National Military Council in issuing an order that all ships assigned for military transport duty should be subject to inspection by the bureaus of navigation in the same way as commercial or ordinary ships. This step was taken because formerly vessels for military transport were not subjected to inspection so that there were frequent boiler explosions or engine troubles on these ships. Another measure taken by the Ministry was the appointment of travelling inspectors to check on the age limit, condition of the engine, completeness of equipment, whether there were any case of overloading and other conditions of steamships. Action is taken to remedy or stop any factor considered detrimental to the seaworthiness of the vessels.

To encourage needed repairs in order to ensure safety, the Ministry of Communications has also granted loans to shipowners who needed funds to keep their craft in good running order. Besides, the Ministry has given encouragement and help to shipyards for their removal from coastal cities to the interior in order to facilitate ship repairing for inland river steamers. Shipyards which moved to the interior were given the needed assistance in the form of financial and technical help, transporting facilities for their machinery, as well as suitable land to set up the yards.

COMMANDEERING OF SHIPS FOR DEFENSE

As an emergency measure for defense of harbors and coastal inlets to prevent invasion by enemy men-of-war, communications authorities at the beginning of the war assisted the military high command in commandeering ships and barges of the merchant marine and scuttled them as blockade defense works. In commandeering these vessels, the principles of using over-aged ships or sea-going vessels which were not suitable for inland navigation were adopted and followed. A total of 87 ships with an aggregate tonnage of more than 116,000 tons were sunk. The following table gives the location, number and tonnage of vessels sunk for defense works:

TABLE 5.—SHIPS SCUTTLED FOR DEFENSE WORKS

Location	No. of Vessels	Total Tonnage of Vessels
Kiangying	24	43,948
Matang	18	24,995
Mouth of Min River	12	7,562
Whangpoo River	10	18,642
Chenghai	7	6,657
Haichow	6	10,747
Mouth of Pearl River	6	1,979
Wulungshan	4	2,063
TOTAL	87	116,593 Tons

In the defense of Hankow, the Ministry of Communications specially constructed four large reinforced concrete vessels and used them in building the boom instead of scuttling steamships in order to preserve the already low shipping tonnage.

SHIPBUILDING PROGRAM

In view of the fact that the structure of ships originally plying the lower reaches of the Yangtze was not suitable for navigation in Szechwan waters and also that the number was far from being sufficient to meet the great demand, the Ministry of Communications in 1939 formulated a shipbuilding program which calls for the construction of large numbers of improved river junks and shallow-draft steamers.

Main advantages of the improved type of junks are : (1) being more streamlined, thus lowering the water resistance, better speed can be attained ; (2) stronger in structure, those with bigger tonnage are built with keels ; (3) easier and better manœuverability as a result of careful scientific planning and calculation in construction ; (4) being built like wood-bodied steamers, the junks are easily convertible into tug-boats ; and (5) using the same number of crew members, the new junks are 30 per cent faster than ships of the traditional type with the same capacity.

The shallow-draft steamers for inland navigation are built with the principle of big power and small displacement. Besides being a passenger and freight vessel, a shallow-draft steamer can also

be used to tow other ships. Most of the materials needed for the construction are native-produced and the ship engines are powered with native fuels.

In pushing this program, the Ministry, in addition to establishing its own shipyards, grants loans for shipbuilding. The West River Shipbuilding Office was established in Liuchow in November, 1939 by the Ministry to build exclusively improved junks and shallow-draft steamers. Yards are maintained at Kukong, Yuanling, Hengyang and Taiho. In January, 1941, the Ministry established in Chungking the Szechwan River Shipyard with factories at Chaohua, Hengyang, Yuanling, Taiho and Kukong in order to build enough ships for use in the upper reaches of the Yangtze, the Chialing, Chu and Fow river areas.

In the years of 1939, 1940, 1941 and the first half of 1942, a total of 1,015 junks aggregating 14,566 tons were built in the Szechwan rivers and 1,147 junks totalling 8,437 tons in the West River (running through Kwangtung and Kwangsi) area. In addition, loans were made to the China Merchants' Steam Navigation Company for the construction of one shallow-draft steamer in Szechwan, and to the Ming Sung Industrial Company for two such vessels. Six shallow-draft steamers have been completed by the Hengyang yard of the West River Shipbuilding Office. The Min Sung Company received loans for the building of 12 more steamers of which nine have been completed.

ESTABLISHMENT OF TOWING STATIONS

Due to the presence of many swift rapids, navigation in certain sections of the rivers of Szechwan, Hupeh, Hunan and some other provinces are extremely difficult and dangerous. In the Yangtze River, for instance, there are more than 50 dangerous rapids in the stretch of 350 nautical miles between Ichang and Chungking. The maximum speed at some of the rapids is more than 13 knots and at one of the rapids the height of the water frequently changes as much as 19 feet. The speed of the current, which normally is from four to five nautical miles per hour, makes it extremely difficult and not infrequently impossible for high-power steamships to negotiate the up-stream run on their own steam. It is all the more risky and difficult for smaller steamers and junks. Similar situations exist on the Chialing River which connects Szechwan with Shensi and which empties into the Yangtze at Chungking, the Yuan River in Hunan and several other rivers.

Determined to remove such handicaps and make shipping on the rivers safer and faster, the Ministry of Communications in the fall of 1938 instructed the Hankow Bureau of Navigation to organize a towing station committee and institute mechanical heaving stations at the rapids in the rivers. Within the short period of three months, the committee had established seven towing stations which contributed greatly toward the evacuation ships, material resources and men from the Wuhan areas. The work of

providing towing stations was extended in the winter of 1939 to the Yuan and the Chialing Rivers, in 1940 to the upper reaches of the Yangtze and the Yeu River which is vital in Szechwan-Shensi and Szechwan-Hunan water communication, and in 1941 to the Wu River connecting the provinces of Szechwan and Hunan.

Up to the end of 1942, a total of 61 towing stations had been established. Their distribution is: 18 in the Yangtze River within Szechwan, ten in the Yuan River, 25 in the Chialing River, five in the Yeu River, and three in the Wu River. The efficiency of towing stations can be seen from the record that some 50 towing stations in the 26 months from November, 1938, to the end of 1940, towing service was rendered 1,258 times to steamers and 62,426 times to junks.

NATIONAL CONSERVANCY COMMISSION

The National Conservancy Commission was established on September 1, 1941, to take charge on a nation-wide scale of all matters relating to conservancy, including river conservancy for shipping, agricultural irrigation, flood prevention, development of hydraulic electric-power, and testing and surveying. Since then all the conservancy organizations under the National Government have been amalgamated under one centralized organ. There are ten conservancy offices, each assigned to its special duties in specified areas. The names of these units and their designated areas of operation are given in the following table:

TABLE 6.—WATER CONSERVANCY OFFICES UNDER THE NATIONAL CONSERVANCY COMMISSION OF THE EXECUTIVE YUAN

NAME	Original Location	Present Location	Designated Areas of Operation at Present
Hwai River Commission	Nanking	Kikiang, Szechwan	Northern Anhwei, Szechwan (tributaries to the South of the Yangtze River), Kweichow (Yangtze Valley), Yunnan
Yellow River Commission	Kaifeng	Sian	Honan, Shensi, Kansu, Suiyuan, Ningsia, Chinghai
Yangtze River Commission	Nanking	Chungking	Hunan, Szechwan (the Yangtze and tributaries to the North of the Yangtze), Sikang

TABLE 6.—WATER CONSERVANCY OFFICES UNDER THE NATIONAL CONSERVANCY COMMISSION OF THE EXECUTIVE YUAN—Contd.

NAME		Original Location	Present Location	Designated Areas of Operation at Present
North China Rivers Commission		Tientsin	Chungking	Kiangsi, Southern Anhwei, Eastern Chekiang, Fukien
Pearl River Commission		Panyu	Kweilin	Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Kweichow (non-Yangtze Valley)
Kiangnan Bureau	Engineering	Hankow	Chungking	Hupei, Honan (Han River Valley), Shensi (Han River Valley)
Chin-Lo Bureau	Engineering	Tali (Shensi)	Tali	
Gold Sand River Engineering Bureau		Pingshan (Szechwan)	Pingshan	
Central Hydraulic Laboratory		Nanking	Chungking	
Hupei Dykes Fund Committee		Wuchang	Enshih	

Outstanding among the Commission's achievements is the conquering of the Chinshakiang or the Gold Sand River, the upper Yangtze above Ipin (Suifu) which for hundreds of years defied navigation. Perseverance, ingenuity and dynamite have today made several hundred kilometers of the originally impassable rock and water course navigable throughout the year.

Up to the summer of 1942, the Commission had completed the survey of 11,000 kilometers of rivers with the aim of creating more navigable waterways, planned to survey another 15,000 kilometers and was rushing construction on river courses aggregating 3,780 kilometers.

SHIPPING COMPANIES

Among the principal shipping concerns in China are the Ming Sung Industrial Company and the China Merchants' Steam Navigation Company. Established in 1924, the Ming Sung Company has developed rapidly, especially since the war began. At present it is the foremost shipping concern in China. The facts that most of the company's shipping activities were limited to the Yangtze and Szechwan rivers, that its ships were not commandeered or conscripted at the beginning of the war,

that it did not lose any vessel in the enemy blockade, and that it had purchased some ships from the middle and lower reaches of the Yangtze at reasonable costs have contributed to the increasing importance and prosperity of the concern.

With its capitalization increased to \$7,000,000, the Ming Sung Industrial Company at the close of 1942 owned a fleet of 87 steamers totalling more than 21,000 tons which is a big increase over pre-war times. With Chungking as the center, its long distance lines reach Patung, Wanhhsien, Luhsien, Ipin and Loshan and there are more than a dozen shorter lines. Rivers plied by Ming Sung ships include the Yangtze, the Min, the Chialing, Gold Sand Rivers and other Szechwan waters.

The China Merchants' Steam Navigation Company which before the war confined its shipping schedule chiefly to coastal lines and river service below Ichang with Shanghai and Hankow as centers met some setback after the fall of Hankow and Ichang when its business came to a virtual standstill with the exception of a few small boats operating in Szechwan waters. The company was revitalized early in 1942 with a government appropriation of \$6,000,000. Plans were made to develop a comprehensive

program of inland-water lines in Szechwan and Hunan. Two lines were projected to connect the two provinces—one between Chungking and Changsha via Kweiyang along the Chen and Chien rivers and the other between Changteh in western Hunan and Wanhhsien in eastern Szechwan via Tungting Lake and Patung in western Hupeh.

Organized in 1872 as a government and commercial joint enterprise, the company was bought by the Ministry of Communications in 1932 and again reorganized in 1936. Before the fall of Hankow, the company was ordered by the Ministry to organize the Yangtze Shipping Administration Offices to develop and administer water transportation on the river and to utilize to the utmost all available ships. The company then strengthened its various services by increasing regular sailings, shortening the scheduled time of each voyage, developing inland water shipping, inaugurating rail-water and highway-water services and increasing the efficiency and capacity of its repair shops. Most of the company's 2,000-ton class or larger ships were used for the evacuation of important materials from areas affected by the war in 1937.

MERCHANT MARINE COLLEGE

With the fall of Shanghai, the Woosung Merchant Marine College established by the Ministry of Communications was suspended. In view of the urgent need for and importance of trained maritime personnel, the Ministry of Communications in collaboration with the Ministry of Education in the fall of 1939 founded the National Chungking Merchant Marine College to prepare ship-building and technical personnel. The school was suspended in May, 1943,

CIVIL AVIATION

Despite the fact that commercial aviation has had but a short history in China compared with other modern means of communications, it has made much progress during the last two decades or so. Development has been rapid, particularly since the war began

Up to the time the war broke out China had gradually built up a total of 13,826 kilometers of air routes with 30 airplanes of different sizes and makes operating on the lines. Of the 13,826 kilometers, only 940 kilometers still remain in operation in Free China. But during the first five warring years (up to the end of September, 1942)

the distances of new air-lines opened totalled 9,300 kilometers. The Chinese people as a whole have become much more air-conscious than before and the demand for airplane seats is ever-increasing.

Better and more extensive connections, too, have been maintained during wartime with foreign airways. Before the fall of Hankow, connections were already maintained with Hongkong and Indo-China by the Chinese Chungking-Hongkong and Kunming-Hanoi lines. Aircraft of the China National Aviation Corporation began to fly to Burma and India in 1939 and 1941, respectively. In December, 1939, a new Sino-Soviet Aviation Corporation was formed as a result of co-operation between the governments of China and the U.S.S.R., joining Chungking and Alma-Ata by an airline which passes through Hami, Tihwa (Urumchi), and Ili.

Within Free China regular airlines have been established with Chungking as the central terminus. Major cities in the Southwest, Southeast and Northwest are all accessible by air. Besides the regular airlines, planes may be chartered for places like Nanshiung (Namyung), Hengyang, Liuchow, Kweiyang, Chaotung, Hanchung, Sian, Liangchow, Tienshui, Sining and Ningsia, which are not ports of calls of the regular lines.

Both the China National Aviation Corporation and the Eurasia Aviation Corporation have rendered unsurpassed services in passenger as well as freight and mail transportation during the war, despite the tremendous losses they have sustained as a result of the hostilities and despite repeated Japanese murderous attacks on civil aircraft in flight. In the evacuation of Hongkong after the Japanese began their attack on the colony on December 8, 1941, Chinese aircraft braved enemy ground and air action and made a number of flights from Hongkong to either Chungking direct or to Nanshiung and Kweilin until the moment when it became suicidal for an unarmed commercial airplane to fly to Hongkong. In the Burma campaign, a station was established at Myitkyina immediately following the occupation of Lashio by the enemy. Planes were used to deliver food supplies by parachute and specially packed bales to the Chinese Expeditionary Force who remained fighting in Burma.

In the course of 26 months after the summer of 1938, Japanese military planes repeatedly attacked passenger and mail planes of the C.N.A.C. and Eurasia. The pre-meditated attacks on Chinese civilian planes began with the machine-gunning of the C.N.A.C.'s Douglas DC-2 passenger liner "Kweilin" over the Pearl River delta near Macao on August 24, 1938. This ill-fated ship, later rechristened "Chungking—No. 39" after a complete overhaul, was shot down by five Japanese pursuit planes over Chanyi, near the Yunnan-Kweichow border, on October 29, 1940. In this tragic incident seven passengers (six adults and one baby) lost their lives. In addition, W. C. Kent, 36-year old American pilot, and 26-year old air-hostess Miss Lu Mei-ying were killed in the strafed plane. Only one of the nine passengers escaped injury while another was seriously wounded. Even during the period the Eurasia Aviation Corporation was a Sino-German concern, planes of the Eurasia were repeatedly subjected to attacks and machine-gunning by Japanese. Only three days before the shooting down of the "Chungking," Eurasia's 14-seater Junker No. 53 plane was shot down over Kunming by nine Japanese pursuits. The aircraft was set ablaze by machine-gun fire after it was forced to land. Among those wounded was W. Lutz, German pilot who had been with the Sino-German corporation for ten years. In trying to dodge the air-raid on Kunming by taking off from the airfield there, Pilot Lutz was wounded in the face, left shoulder and hip.

Shortage of equipment or supplies has failed to discourage the aviation concerns from making fullest and best use of their planes and other facilities. The classic story is that of a damaged Douglas DC-3 plane which was ferried to its hangar some 1,800 kilometers away with one DC-2 and one DC-3 wing. The plane was left on the airfield at Suifu after flying from Chungking at the outset of an air-raid alarm. The haven was discovered by enemy raiders which swooped down and strafed the passenger plane, damaging one of the wings. When the pilot radioed to the C.N.A.C. head office for a spare DC-3 wing, he was told there was no such wing in storage and that he could perhaps try with a spare DC-2 wing. The pilot, with the assistance of some carpenters and workmen, lengthened the shorter DC-2 wing when it arrived, and flew back to his base.

The phenomenally low accident rate in Chinese civil aviation is worth special mention. Since commercial aviation became a regular means of transportation in China, the total number of accidents and mishaps, whether involving casualties or damage or destruction of aircraft, has been much lower than in any other country in the world where commercial airlines exist. Considering the fact that there is no radio homing beacon to guide the airships in flight, that planes take off or land in thick fog (particularly in Chungking) and at night on fields without proper or adequate lighting, fly over enemy-occupied areas, and fly in foul weather, this record is definitely something to be proud of. Particularly on trips covering in part enemy-held territory, some of the pilots prefer to take off or navigate in weather conditions which in other countries will ground the planes. During the first five and a half years of war, only a few ships of the two aviation corporations have been lost because of accidents and two or three as a result of enemy action.

THE CHINA NATIONAL AVIATION CORPORATION

Pioneer in the field of commercial aviation in China, the China National Aviation Corporation is a Sino-American joint enterprise first inaugurated in 1929 and reorganized in 1930. When the C.N.A.C. was established, a contract was concluded with Aviation Exploration Inc., a subsidiary of the Curtiss Company (American), for the joint operation of mail and passenger air service in China. The company underwent a thorough reorganization in 1930 when a new contract was signed between the Ministry of Communications and China Airways, Federal Inc., U.S.A. on July 8. This contract, providing for the joint establishment of the China National Aviation Corporation, became effective on July 17, 1930, following ratification by the National Government.

The authorized capitalization of the reorganized C.N.A.C. is \$10,000,000, Chinese national currency, of which the Ministry of Communications is entitled to subscribe to 55 per cent and China Airways, Federal Inc., in the United States, the remaining 45 per cent.

The management of this Sino-American commercial aviation enterprise is vested in a board of seven directors, four appointed by the Ministry of Communications and three by the American shareholders. From among the members

of the board of directors a president and two vice-presidents are elected. Appointment of the president and one of the vice-presidents comes from the Ministry of Communications while that for the second vice-president comes from the American interests, with the board of directors electing the persons so nominated. The president is to act concurrently as the managing director of the corporation and chairman of the board.

All the airplanes the C.N.A.C. has had and is now using are of U.S. manufacture. American technical personnel, including both pilots and ground mechanics, have been and are still in C.N.A.C. service. Since 1936 C.N.A.C. has been general traffic agents in China and Hongkong (until December, 1941) for the Pan American Airways while in the United States Pan American Airways act as general traffic agents for C.N.A.C. C.N.A.C. is also booking agent for the British Imperial Airways.

In the early years of C.N.A.C. only Loening flying-boats with a capacity for six passengers and Stinson land planes with a capacity for four passengers

were used on its air lines. As the years went on, newer-modelled, bigger and more serviceable aircraft, including Sikorsky S-38 flying-boats, Douglas Dolphin flying-boats, tri-motored Ford planes, Commodore giant flying-boats, and Douglas DC-2 and Douglas DC-3 giant passenger liners, were added, to the fleet of aircraft from time to time.

In the last decade or so, much wider and more extensive use has been made of commercial aviation, both in passenger service and air freight and mail. The total number of passengers carried during the year 1929 was only 220 but the annual total for 1941 was 21,292, almost a hundred times the record of 1929. During the first half year of 1942, 11,225 passengers were carried by C.N.A.C. planes. The annual aggregate weight of freight and mail transported by C.N.A.C. liners have also shown a marked increase. In 1929 the total kilometrage flown by C.N.A.C. was 93,369 kilometers, that for the year 1942 had jumped to 2,127,377 kilometers.

The performance record of the corporation from 1929 to the end of June, 1942, is tabulated as follows:

TABLE 7.—TRAFFIC STATISTICS OF C. N. A. C., 1929-1942

(Source :—The China National Aviation Corporation)

YEAR	Kilometers Flown	Passengers Carried	Passenger Kilometers Flown	Weight in Kilograms of Mail Carried	*Weight in Kilograms of Freight Carried
1929	93,369	220	106,922	3,932	
1930	531,266	1,979	1,028,349	17,892	
1931	716,513	1,989	977,256	34,428	
1932	694,143	2,741	1,247,808	50,851	
1933	1,074,868	2,644	1,484,548	50,183	
1934	1,434,862	4,545	2,501,428	63,234	
1935	1,906,452	9,147	5,756,748	74,045	26,763
1936	2,483,572	15,748	11,033,585	86,466	46,940
1937	2,061,093	12,758	9,400,510	85,470	41,732
1938	1,307,918	13,701	8,625,886	124,463	76,007
1939	1,179,295	16,546	8,868,908	102,093	117,375
1940	1,616,794	16,432	11,340,724	82,756	496,499
1941	2,127,377	21,292	15,308,269	90,271	5,477,409
1942 (Jan.-June)	726,105	11,225	9,303,520	28,596	191,771

NOTE :—*Tonnage carried by freight planes operating between India and China not included.

Since the closure of the Burma Road in May, 1942, there has been some decrease in the freight traffic not including freight carried by the lend-lease freight planes maintained by C.N.A.C., but no material change in the passenger and mail traffic. Operation of the Chungking-Calcutta international line has more or less made up for the loss of Hongkong and Rangoon which caused the termination of air service to the British Crown Colony and the new capital of Burma.

C.N.A.C.'s air services commenced on October 21, 1929, when the first flight from Shanghai to Hankow was made by a Loening plane with passengers and mail, covering a distance of 873 kilometers in seven hours.

On September 20, 1935, tri-motored Ford planes with a capacity of 10 passengers were placed in service on the Shanghai-Hankow line, making the round trip from Shanghai to Hankow and back in 10 hours' flying time the same day. On October 23, 1935, the first Douglas DC-2 giant land plane of the C.N.A.C. fleet carrying 14 passengers was used on this line, covering the trip between Shanghai and Hankow in less than three hours. On the same day an express service of two round trips weekly between Shanghai and Chengtu was inaugurated with a Douglas DC-2 plane, covering the distance of 1,981 kilometers in less than seven hours of actual flying. The express service from Shanghai to Chengtu was increased to three round trips a week in July, 1936.

The Shanghai-Peiping line, via Haichow, Tsingtao and Tientsin, was inaugurated with a Stinson plane, making the trip of 1,197 kilometers in seven and a half hours. On May 18, 1935, a Douglas DC-2 plane was used to operate the service between Shanghai and Peiping. Flying via Nanking, Haichow, Tsingtao and Tientsin, and covering the longer distance of 1,327 kilometers, a saving of fully three hours of flying time was made. On July 26, 1936, the schedule was increased from two round trips weekly to three, the round trip from Shanghai to Peiping and back being made by the same plane in one day.

Shanghai and Canton were linked by an airline when C.N.A.C. on October 24, 1933, inaugurated the 1,639-kilometer Shanghai-Canton line, making the trip in less than nine hours of flying time with a Sikorsky S-38 flying boat. A little more than a week later, on November 2, Douglas Dolphin flying-boats were used on this line, cutting down the

flying time by approximately two hours. An important step was taken on November 6, 1936, when the service on this line was extended to Hongkong where connection was made by the C.N.A.C. with the Imperial Airways' services to Europe and Australia and with the Pan American Airways' Trans-Pacific service to the United States. With this international-air-traffic arrangement added to the corporation's business and service, C.N.A.C. became general traffic agents for Pan American Airways in China and Hongkong and booking agents for Imperial Airways. A reciprocal co-operative arrangement was completed with Pan American Airways to act on behalf of C.N.A.C. in the United States.

Twenty-six months before the outbreak of hostilities at the Marco Polo Bridge, C.N.A.C. on May 2, 1935, commenced its air service between Chungking and Kunming. This line was inaugurated with a tri-motored Ford plane, covering the distance of 755 kilometers in less than two and a half hours.

The first commercial airline opened after the beginning of the war was the Hankow-Changsha line which was inaugurated with a Stinson plane about ten days before the National Government moved from Nanking. Inauguration of this service on December 3, 1937, was both timely and significant as Hankow became the most important political and military center of China although the seat of the Government was officially at Chungking.

About a fortnight later, the first run between Chungking and Hongkong was made via Kweilin with a Douglas DC-2 plane, opening an important new route which later proved to be one of China's most important contact lines with the outside world for four years until the line was suspended by force of circumstance when war broke out in Hongkong in December, 1941.

Only one new line was added to the C.N.A.C. network during the year 1938—the Chungking-Kiating (Loshan) line via Luhsien and Suifu (Ipin), inaugurated on May 20 with a small Loening flying-boat.

The year 1939 witnessed the establishment of two important airlines. The first one was the 1,204-kilometer Chungking-Hanoi line via Kunming inaugurated with a Douglas DC-2 plane, on March 15, covering the entire trip in only five hours of flying time. From

the Indo-China terminus connection was made to Paris and London with services of Air France. On a mutual-aid basis, Air France became traffic agents for C.N.A.C. in Hanoi while C.N.A.C. acted as booking agents in China for Air France. The first formal run between Chungking and Rangoon was made by C.N.A.C. on October 30 the same year. Using Douglas DC-2 (14-seater) and Douglas DC-3 (21-seater) planes, only eight hours were required to cover the distance of 1,919 kilometers. At Rangoon this line connected with British Imperial Airways' services to Europe and Australia, and with K.L.M.'s (Royal Dutch Airlines) service between Europe and Australia. The Imperial Airways then were agents of C.N.A.C. in Rangoon and in China C.N.A.C. became booking agents for both Imperial Airways and K.L.M. With these two international lines in operation, China was better linked with the outside world by air as Europe, South and North Americas and Australia could be reached within a week by trans-oceanic aircraft. As the war spread wider and further, the Hanoi line had to be suspended by force of circumstances in November, 1940 and the Rangoon line in early 1942.

Although the only line inaugurated in 1940 was the short line from Hongkong to Nanshiung (Namyung) in Kwangtung, this line was important chiefly as a feeder freight line. The distance of 320 kilometers between the two terminals required only one and a quarter hours by Douglas DC-2 planes.

Enemy occupation of Hongkong failed to choke China's air connection with

places outside of the country as the Chungking-Calcutta line was inaugurated not more than ten days after the Pearl Harbor attack brought warfare to the Colony. Blazing the trail of this line, which is temporarily one of the only two outlets from China by commercial aircraft, was the successful test-run made in January, 1941. Flying a Douglas DC-3, the test-run was made from Chungking to Calcutta through Kunming, Lashio and Chittagong. When the line was formally inaugurated on December 18, 1941, the route taken was by way of Kunming and Dinjan. Douglas DC-2 and Douglas DC-3 planes make the 2,341-kilometer trip from one end to the other in less than ten hours.

With the C.N.A.C. reaching and operating in India, both Europe and the Americas can still be reached by air. In Calcutta, the C.N.A.C. connects with the British Overseas Airways Corporation's service to England via Africa, to the Atlantic and to South America, and with Pan American Airways' service to the United States by way of Africa, to the Atlantic and to South America. Traffic and booking agency arrangements in India and China are maintained by C.N.A.C. with both the P.A.A. and the B.O.A.C. On this China-India line a schedule of three-round trips weekly for both passenger and mail services has been maintained besides special freight service.

The latest service added to the C.N.A.C. system is the Chungking-Lanchow line of 780 kilometers. The line was opened on August 27, 1942. The trip takes three and a quarter hours.

INAUGURATION DATES OF C. N. A. C. AIR LINES

- | | |
|--|-------------------|
| (1) Shanghai-Chengtou Line :— | |
| Shanghai-Hankow Section | October 21, 1929 |
| Extension of Shanghai-Hankow Line to Ichang | March 31, 1931 |
| Hankow-Chungking Section | October 21, 1931 |
| Chungking-Chengtou Section | November 11, 1933 |
| (2) Nanking-Peiping Line | April 15, 1931 |
| (via Hsuechow, Tsinan and Tientsin) | |
| (This line was discontinued in December, 1931) | |
| (3) Shanghai-Peiping Line | January 10, 1933 |
| (via Haichow, Tsingtao and Tientsin) | |
| (replacing Nanking-Peiping Line) | |
| (4) Shanghai-Canton Line | October 24, 1933 |
| (via Wenchow, Foochow, Amoy and Swatow) | |
| (5) Chungking-Kunming Line (via Kweiyang) | May 4, 1935 |

(6) Hongkong included in the Shanghai-Canton Line as a regular port of call	November 5, 1936
(7) Hankow-Changsha Line	December 3, 1937
(8) Chungking-Hongkong Line (via Kweilin)	December 16, 1937
(9) Chungking-Kiating (Loshan) Line (via Luhsien and Ipin)	May 20, 1938
(10) Chungking-Hanoi Line (via Kunming)	March 15, 1939
(11) Chungking-Rangoon Line (via Kunming and Lashio)	October 30, 1939
(12) Hongkong-Nanhsiung Line	October 8, 1940
(13) Chungking-Calcutta Line (via Kunming and Dinjan)	December 18, 1941
(14) Chungking-Lanchow Line	August 27, 1942

THE EURASIA AVIATION CORPORATION*

The Eurasia Aviation Corporation first started as a Sino-German firm when it was formally inaugurated in February, 1931. The corporation became an entirely Chinese-owned and-operated unit in China's field of civil aviation as from August 1, 1941, following the Chinese Government's severance of relations with Germany late in July, 1941. The German interests were entirely withdrawn from Eurasia and all the German staff members, including air and ground crew and advisors, left the service to return to Germany.

The Eurasia Aviation Corporation came into being as a result of a contract signed between the Ministry of Communications and the German Lufthansa Company which provided for the joint formation of an air company under Chinese law to operate air lines between Shanghai and Berlin primarily for the purpose of carrying mail between China and Europe. Negotiations for the carrying out of this Asiatic-European air service had been started as early as the middle of 1928, but a program of mutual co-operation, along lines agreeable to both parties, was not worked out until February 21, 1930, when the draft contract was signed. This contract was finally ratified by the National Government on April 9 of the same year.

With an initial capitalization of \$3,000,000 when it was founded in 1931, Eurasia's capital was increased to \$5,000,000 in 1933, to \$7,500,000 in 1935, and to \$9,000,000 in 1936. Two-thirds of the authorized capital was subscribed by the Chinese Government and the remaining third by the German Lufthansa Company. During the period when Eurasia maintained its Sino-German status the management of the firm was vested in a directorate of nine of which

six were nominated by the Chinese Government and three by the Lufthansa interests. Six of the nine members of the directorate were directors while the other three were supervisors.

The original plan of Eurasia was to operate an airline from Shanghai to Manchuli, Urga or Tchukuchak (Tacheng) to connect with the then existing airlines to Europe. Manchuli was chosen as the terminus and a 2,320-kilometer route from Shanghai, passing through Nanking, Peiping and Linsi, was the first line operated by the corporation. Japanese invasion of Manchuria in September, 1931, virtually put an end to this line as the terminus was then shifted to Peiping.

An attempt was then made to operate a line from Shanghai to Sinkiang via Nanking, Sian, Lanchow, Hami and Tihwa (Urumchi) to Tacheng near the Sino-Soviet border. But due to political troubles in Sinkiang and the fact that the route covered an immense tract of barren and uninhabited wilderness, the line was operated only 1,850 kilometers to Lanchow. A feeder line from Peiping to Loyang, 700 kilometers, was started with a weekly schedule from both ends. Business for the corporation then was still very much under-developed as in a whole year only some 800 passengers, 20,000 kilograms of freight and 3,000 kilograms of mail were carried.

In 1935 the line to Lanchow was extended 800 kilometers to Paotow through Ningsia. At the same time the Loyang station was moved to Chengchow and a new station was opened at Taiyuan. The Peiping-Chengchow line was later extended to be the Peiping-Canton line via Chengchow, Hankow and Changsha. With a total distance of 2,190 kilometers, a twice-weekly schedule was maintained, the trip being completed in a day.

*The Eurasia Aviation Corporation was reorganized as the Central Air Transport Corporation on March 1, 1943.

Later in 1935, a feeder line between Shensi and Szechwan (starting from Sian and terminating in Chengtu) was added to the Eurasia service. This line was extended the following year to Kunming, covering a total distance of 1,300 kilometers. Air service from Peiping was further extended shortly before the war began in 1937 when the Peiping-Canton line reached Hongkong.

Before the war sight-seeing flights of from 12 to 15 minutes' duration were offered by the Eurasia Aviation Corporation at practically all of their airdromes. Six passengers were allowed for each sight-seeing flight. The charge was \$60, to be equally shared by the passengers. Such facilities were suspended when the war began.

The Eurasia Aviation Corporation was moved from Shanghai when war came to the Chinese sea-board. First in Shensi, the general office of Eurasia was later moved to Kunming and has been there since.

With the National Government in Chungking and important government organizations in Hankow, in 1938 a complete readjustment of the air lines was made and the following passenger and mail service lines were maintained:

Hankow - Kunming Line—From Hankow to Kunming via Sian and Chengtu;

Hankow - Hongkong Line—From Hankow to Hongkong via Changsha;

Sian - Lanchow Line;

Lanchow - Ningsia Line; and

Kunming - Hanoi Line.

Air transportation assumed a much more important role when more difficulties came up in connection with land or sea and river routes in wartime. As a result of this change, coupled with the fact that the services to Hongkong and Hanoi were important international lines, business of the aviation corporations witnessed a phenomenal increase. The total number of passengers carried by Eurasia in 1938 was approximately ten times the annual number of passengers before the war. Freight and mail services had also an unprecedented rise in volume of business, as in 1938 Eurasia carried an aggregate of 300,000 kilograms of freight and 170,000 kilograms of mail.

Following the fall of Hankow and Canton, Chungking became the pivot of

air lines. Eurasia's original Hankow-Hongkong line became the Chungking-Hongkong line (1,307 kilometers) via Kweilin. The Hankow-Kunming and Kunming-Hanoi lines were merged into a new line linking the Chinese wartime capital and the Tonkin capital. Passing through Kunming, this line, which was suspended with the enemy occupation of Indo-China, was 1,180 kilometers in length. At the same time the Chungking-Lanchow line was operated under the name of the Navigation Department of the Ministry of Communications. From Lanchow the line was extended in 1940 to Hami via Suchow and connected with the Hami-Alma-Ata line of the Sino-Soviet Aviation Corporation to reach Soviet territory.

The war in Hongkong in December, 1941, brought very heavy losses to Eurasia as most of its airplanes and equipment were either destroyed or damaged and abandoned. Lack of planes and replenishment, however, has not hampered the progressive spirit of the Eurasia management. In the one year since December 8, 1941, Eurasia carried on with one lone over-aged Junker transport plane with a record probably unprecedented in the annals of aviation. Keeping the Eurasia banner still flying, the tri-motored plane covered more than 250,000 kilometers in the year without a single mishap in regular passenger, mail and freight services between Chungking and Kweilin, Chungking and Kunming, Chungking and Lanchow, and Lanchow and Hami and Tihwa (Urumchi). On the average it made one complete flight over each of the four lines each week. The secret to this record, according to Mr. Lee Ching-tsung, general manager of Eurasia, was constant maintenance and periodical overhauling.

With Chungking as center, Eurasia at present maintains the following four lines:

- (1) Chungking - Hami Line (via Lanchow, and Suchow)—distance 2,190 kilometers;
- (2) Chungking - Chengtu Line—distance 304 kilometers;
- (3) Chungking - Kweilin Line—distance 600 kilometers; and
- (4) Chungking - Kunming Line—distance 620 kilometers.

The following table gives performance statistics of the Eurasia Aviation Corporation during its 12 years of existence:

TABLE 8.—PERFORMANCE RECORD OF EURASIA AVIATION CORPORATION

June, 1931 to September, 1942

(Source :—Eurasia Aviation Corporation)

YEAR	Kilometers Flown	PASSENGER SERVICE		FREIGHT SERVICE		MAIL SERVICE	
		No. of Passengers Carried	Passenger-Kilometer	Weight of Freight Carried	Ton Km.	Weight of Mail Carried	Ton Km.
1931 (June to Dec.)	120,000	664	110,030			259	498
1932	253,603	589	325,840	9,765	12,315	1,750	1,890
1933	412,605	810	771,520	25,404	34,623	3,610	4,534
1934	603,282	1,476	945,290	53,372	50,880	6,461	6,268
1935	744,735	2,951	1,692,346	85,856	73,257	10,382	9,095
1936	911,315	5,618	3,466,033	221,934	176,308	29,205	26,303
1937	1,282,497	9,215	7,029,198	336,614	286,019	40,724	38,100
1938	1,410,452	13,067	11,404,040	383,589	342,359	173,619	166,159
1939	919,687	11,555	7,906,980	313,301	244,126	107,591	85,643
1940	1,192,364	11,048	8,005,422	613,703	570,627	132,953	113,749
1941	1,015,872	6,503	5,714,610	672,938	665,877	124,778	116,601
1942 (Jan. to Sept.)	218,282	3,318	2,028,870	87,916	63,779	44,303	31,533

In the general office of the Eurasia Aviation Corporation are four divisions, namely, general affairs, business, financial, and operations. In addition, there is also a secretariat and a repair plant with five sections for repairing and overhauling of fuselage, generator, equipment, wireless, and direction-finders.

When Eurasia was first organized Germans were invited and employed as pilots and chief mechanics. Chinese pilots and ground crew were soon trained and from time to time some of the fliers were sent to Germany for advanced training and practice work in European air services. The Chinese air crew became more important when the German staff members of the corporation were relegated from active service to advisory capacity after the outbreak of the war. All the administrative, technical and business ends of Eurasia came entirely under Chinese direction on August 1, 1941, when the aviation company was placed directly under the Ministry of Communications and all the German staff members relieved of their posts and sent out of Free China.

In its twelve-year history, Eurasia has used only aircraft of German manufacture. In the beginning single-motored

Junker-F-13 (320 horse-power) and Junker-W-33 (550 horse-power) planes were used. These planes, each carrying only four passengers, had a freight capacity of only 1,250 kilograms and a speed of 195 kilometers per hour. A Junker-W-34 single-motored passenger plane of 620 horse-power with a seating capacity for six passengers was later bought.

In the summer of 1934 a Junker Ju-52 airplane, after completing a long-distance flight from Berlin to Shanghai, was turned over to the company. With three 725 horse-powered motors, a seating capacity of 16, a load capacity of 3,200 kilograms and a speed of 225 kilometers per hour, this machine was the first giant passenger and mail plane used in China. Equipped with blind-flying, homing-device, ventilator and steam-heating facilities, Junker Ju-52 provided more comfort and safety for air travelers, hence such planes later became the standard equipment of Eurasia.

Night flying was initiated during wartime as a safety precautionary measure against possible attacks by enemy aircraft. For a time Eurasia planned to buy a few four-motored giant Condor planes which have greater range. This plan failed to materialize owing to the

changing war situation which later developed into a global war.

Eurasia was directed by the Government to extend its Chungking-Hami line to Tihwa (Urumchi) in the latter part of 1942. The Chungking-Tihwa line, totalling 2,600 kilometers in distance, forms an important link with the U.S.S.R. If new planes can be obtained and more equipment or accessories as well as fuel can be assured, the management of Eurasia plans to inaugurate a new air route between China and India by linking Suchow in Kansu and Peshawar in the Frontier Province of India. With years of experience in the field of civil aviation in the Northwest and the experience gained in Eurasia's successful trial flight from the Northwest to Afghanistan over the Pamir in the fall of 1937, authorities of the Eurasia Aviation Corporation have much confidence in their ability to operate this new Sino-Indian air route with success.

THE SOUTHWESTERN AVIATION CORPORATION

A short-lived aviation concern was the Southwestern Aviation Corporation which was started in Canton in 1932 with an initial capitalization of \$1,500,000 and with General Chen Chi-tang as the chief promoter. Following a successful test-run between Canton and Lungchow in Kwangsi in March, 1934, the Southwestern corporation was officially registered with the Ministry of Communications in September of the same year when it bought from the United States four Stinson passenger planes and a small trainer plane. The Canton-Lungchow line via Wuchow and Nanning (960 kilometers) was formally inaugurated in November, 1934, one month after a contract was signed with the Postal Administration for air-mail service. The Canton-Pakhoi line via Mowming and Kiungchow (1,350 kilometers) was later opened.

The Southwestern Aviation Corporation was a purely Chinese enterprise subsidized by the provincial governments (Kwangtung and Kwangsi) through whose territories the lines passed. It had a quasi-official status as its \$300,000 capital was held in the main by the two provincial governments.

The company was dissolved early in 1938.

CIVIL AVIATION LAW

After years of legislative study and revision, a civil aviation law was formally

promulgated by the National Government on May 30, 1941.

The Civil Aviation Law contains eight chapters sub-divided into 67 articles. Main provisions of the law include the following :

Manufacturers or owners of all civil aircraft must apply to the Ministry of Communications for inspection of the aircraft before any license will be issued by the Ministry.

Unless the original registration has been cancelled, no aircraft which has been registered in a foreign country may apply for registration in China.

All registered and licensed aircraft must bear clear markings of the Chinese registry on an easily visible part of the body of the aircraft.

Unless permission is given by the Ministry of Communications, aviation stations and airfields must not be used for purposes other than operations of civil aircraft. The lending, leasing, or putting out of commission of aviation stations and airfields must have the approval of the Ministry of Communications. When an aviation station or an airfield is used by a party other than the legal owner or management of the field for landing or take-off purposes, the management is entitled to collect certain fees, the rate to be set by the Ministry of Communications.

All aviation crews (including pilots) must first pass technical examinations to be conducted by the Ministry of Communications, and after securing qualification papers apply for a civil aviator's permits from the Ministry of Communications before commencing actual flying operations. The Ministry of Communications reserves the right to conduct periodical and provisional examinations of aviation personnel. In the case of any aviator whose technical ability, physique, or character falls short of the Ministry's required standard, the Ministry of Communications may limit, suspend, or cancel his license.

Except in the case of trial flights, all civil aircraft in operation must carry (a) testimonial that the aircraft is fit for operation, (b) license for the aircraft, (c) qualification papers of the crew, (d) pilots

permits, (e) aviation log, (f) name list of the passengers, (g) bills of lading and invoice of merchandise, and (h) if there is any radio transmitter in the aircraft, permit for the operation of the radio.

No aircraft, unless with the permission of the Ministry of Communications, is allowed to carry and transport fire-arms, ammunition, explosives, poison gas, radio transmitters, homing pigeons, or cameras. Nor are the crew, passengers, or other persons traveling in the aircraft allowed to carry such articles.

Aircraft used for transport purposes must have the permission of the Ministry of Communications, and in accordance with the provisions of the Chinese Postal Laws, must transport mail matter.

Unless the Ministry of Communications has secured the consent of the military and aviation authorities and the special approval of the Executive Yuan, no foreign-owned aircraft is allowed to fly over Chinese territorial air. All aircraft operating on international lines should take-off or land only on airfields designated by the Ministry of Communications; they should follow the air-routes specified by the Ministry of Communications as well as abide by all regulations.

The owner of the aircraft is held responsible for compensation for any casualty, damage to health or property as a result of mishap during the flight, whether the mishap is intentional or accidental.

Work on the Chinese civil aviation law started as early as 1919 during the days of the old Peking Government. Its progress can be grouped into three periods, namely, from 1919 to the fall of the Peking regime, establishment of the National Government in Nanking to December, 1937, and the period following the removal of the National Government to Chungking.

In 1919 the Ministry of Communications drafted a set of 75 articles of aviation regulations modelled after the civil aviation laws of Great Britain, France and other countries. When the office for the preparation of civil aviation was abolished the following year, another draft of Chinese aviation regulations, containing 13 chapters and 186 articles, was prepared.

This draft was revised and reduced to 12 chapters and 56 articles after a period of some nine months during which the legislation committee met more than 40 times.

Civil aviation experienced rapid progress after the National Government was established in Nanking. The National Government signed contracts for Sino-American and Sino-German co-operation in the development of civil aviation in China, leading to the formation of the China National Aviation Corporation and the Eurasia Aviation Corporation. The fast changing environment made necessary a drastic revision of the old draft of aviation regulations. Thus the Ministry of Communications in 1929 made another draft of aviation laws. This draft, containing 54 articles, was revised in 1933 and again subjected to further examination in 1936 when it was increased to 65 articles.

Formal promulgation of the Chinese civil aviation law was felt to be most essential when, following the removal of the National Government to Chungking, air traffic in China assumed unprecedented importance. The 1933 draft of the aviation law was once more examined and revised until it was officially adopted and promulgated by the National Government on May 30, 1941.

STAGE TRANSPORTATION

In direct contrast to flying is the revived stage transportation, already told to the Western world by Marco Polo. Unpretentious, slow but steady, China's time-honored way of transporting goods by human carriers and animals has been modernized and systematized under the control of the National Stage Transportation Administration of the Ministry of Communications established on September 1, 1940, succeeding the Animal Transportation Bureau which came into existence in 1939.

The utilization of human and animal power to supplement wartime transportation was first suggested in the National Waterways-Highway Transportation Conference held in Chungking in October, 1938. A special bureau was subsequently established by the Ministry of Communications to handle pack animal service between Ipin (Suifu) in southern Szechwan and Kunming, Kweilin and Kweiyang, and Kweiyang and Chungking. The first stage line was opened on February 1, 1939, between Ipin and Kunming.

Since then six national stage transportation lines have been opened, totalling 9,490 kilometers. Radiating from Chungking, stage transportation lines traverse 13 provinces—Szechwan, Kweichow, Shensi, Kansu, Yunnan, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Hunan, Kiangsi, Honan, Anhwei, Chekiang and Fukien.

The six national lines are :

- (1) The Szechwan-Kweichow Line—Its major task is to transport salt from Szechwan to Kweichow and bring back coal. From January to July, 1941, 10,793 tons of cargo passed along this route. Part of the line is over waterways including the Kikiang (Ki River).
- (2) The Szechwan-Shensi Line—This route provides transportation chiefly for military supplies, cotton and *tung* oil, averaging a total of 5,000 tons a month, of which 800 tons are military supplies.
- (3) The Shensi-Kansu Line—Over this route, which runs parallel to the Northwest Highway, 400 rubber-tired carts are used to transport mainly wool, tea and other export goods.
- (4) The Kansu-Sinkiang Line—Over this old caravan route numerous camels and carts are carrying tea and other goods to the U.S.S.R.
- (5) The Luhsien (Luchow)-Kunming Line—A considerable portion of Szechwan-produced *tung* oil is carried to Yunnan by this line, and engineering materials are brought back.
- (6) The Szechwan - Hunan - Hupeh Line—Szechwan for many years has bartered salt for Hunan and Hupeh rice. The route uses many rivers, including the Chialing which runs through the whole North Szechwan region. *Tung* oil and cotton coming down from the Northwest are also shipped over this line.

In addition to these national lines, there are 30,000 kilometers of branch lines under various provincial administrations.

The Ministry of Communications has studied and made certain plans to link China and India by means of stage transportation. It takes four months by stage transportation to Lhasa via Kangting. Two to three thousand tons

of goods can be carried each time and only about two trips can be made in a year. A Sinkiang-India stage transportation line has also been studied.

Wherever possible or feasible, waterways are used to supplement the roads and paths. By land and by water, 1,000 to 2,000 tons of commodities are carried each month from Sinsinchia (Baboon Pass) in Sinkiang, to Hengyang or Kunming via Lanchow, Tienshui, Kwangyuan, covering a distance of nearly 8,500 kilometers.

Means used in stage transportation include carts of various types pulled by men and animals, junks, rafts, steamers, human carriers, and pack animals including horses, mules, donkeys and camels. The chief means of transportation is the rubber-tired cart which is most used in northwestern provinces. Pulled by two or three horses, it is capable of travelling with a cargo of 1.2 to 1.5 tons 20 kilometers a day. There are two kinds of man-pulled carts—rubber-tired or with rubber-protected wheels. The former type is capable of loading 1,500 to 1,700 pounds, the latter 900 pounds. Employed chiefly in the Southwest where few horses are raised, the carts average 20 kilometers a day. Iron-wheeled carts, an old Chinese type of vehicle, are prohibited on modern highways for they may destroy the road surface. These carts are usually pulled by two horses and are capable of carrying from 1,500 to 1,700 pounds. They are still the most widely used means of transportation in the northwestern rural districts.

Camels, which are employed in the Northwest, can each carry about 330 pounds, walking 30 kilometers a day. (Seven camels share the load of one ton.) Pack horses are used chiefly in Yunnan and Kweichow. A pack horse can carry 175 pounds and cover 20 kilometers a day.

On navigable waterways, junks are used which vary in size from a fraction of a ton to over 40, and even occasionally to 60 tons. The Ministry of Communications has been promoting an improved model. Where no highways or waterways are available, human carriers are used to transport the goods on their backs or shoulders. On the average one man can carry 40 kilograms (88 pounds) and cover from 25 to 30 kilometers a day.

It is estimated that in China to cover a distance of 1,000 kilometers it takes 30 hours by train, four days by truck and about three weeks by stage transportation. Slow but sure, stage

transportation represents tremendous savings in the consumption of gasoline. In 1941 the total loads carried over six stage transportation trunk lines were approximately 1,284,170 tons. The amount of gasoline thus saved is estimated to be at least 1,975,505 gallons which is a saving of millions of dollars.

Horse-drawn carriages are used by the National Stage Transportation Administration to carry passengers and baggage from the city of Chungking to suburban areas. This service was inaugurated on April 1, 1942, as a preliminary step to the long-distance carriage line from Chungking to Chengtu. More and more people are making use of this facility, and the average number of passengers per day since July, 1942, has been around 2,000.

TELE-COMMUNICATIONS HISTORICAL SURVEY

Development in the field of telecommunications in China may be roughly grouped into four periods. The initial period was from 1871 to 1911 which was marked by foreign investment and undertakings and later by the integration of local set-ups to gradual centralization of administration. During the period of warlord activities up to the successful completion of the Northern Punitive Expedition, from 1912 to 1928, development was at a standstill and there was much destruction. The third period, from 1928 to 1937, was a progressive period during which new constructions and development as well as readjustment and improvement of the old were carried out simultaneously. The fourth period began from the time war broke out in 1937 and is marked by the persistent improvement, construction, reconstruction on the one hand and destruction as a result of enemy action on the other.

Among the various means of telecommunications in China, telegraph service, being first established in 1871, has the longest history. Next is local telephone which dates back to 1881. A long-distance telephone system was established in 1900 and radio communication in 1905. Radio broadcasting began in 1922. The latest addition is wireless photo service which was inaugurated on December 15, 1942.

Tele-communications service in China centers on the telegraph with radio communication as an auxiliary. For the past decade and a half, the telegraph, telephone and radio have all been under central government administration,

which at present discharges its duties through 31 branch administrations. During the war, besides maintaining the division of 15 T and T districts, they have been further grouped into three zones each under the supervision of a special commissioner vested with special discretionary powers. For guerilla districts, agents directly responsible to respective commissioners have been appointed.

In wartime the Ministry of Communications maintains the object of giving priority to military requirements of the time to the end that full co-operation with the military authorities could be worked out in war operations. However, facilities for the population of Free China are not neglected although because of the congestion caused by military exigencies services of secondary importance such as social letter telegrams had to be abolished in wartime.

During the first 18 months of war, telegraph and telephone lines lost due to war operations totalled 49,015 kilometers, representing approximately half of the total telegraph lines and more than 60 per cent of the telephone lines in operation the first half of 1937. With the military situation improved since 1939, losses during the last four and a half years have been comparatively little.

Although roughly only about half of the telephone and telegraph lines China had before July 7, 1937, now remain in Chinese hands, the total length of both has actually exceeded the pre-war figure. Before the war there were 53,776 kilometers of telephone lines and 95,322 kilometers of telegraph lines. Up to September, 1942, only 29,848 kilometers of telephone lines and 48,697 kilometers of telegraph lines of the lines erected in pre-war time were left. Adding the new lines laid during the first five and a half years of war, lines under erection and projected, the total figure of telephone lines is 67,549 kilometers and of telegraph lines is 97,503 kilometers.

For radio telegraphy and radiophone, the Ministry of Communications had before the war, a total of 171 transmitters—two in the 10-20 kilowatt class, 15 in the 1-4 kilowatt class, 131 in the 50-750 watt class, and 23 in the 5-40 watt class. In September, 1941, there were 248 transmitters—three 10-20 kilowatt, 25 1-4 kilowatt, 142 50-750 watt, and 78 5-40 watt classes. The increase is 45 per cent over the pre-war figures.

There were only four inter-provincial radiophone exchanges before the war, but the number has been increased by ninefold.

With the march of time and development of the services, the annual total telegraph wordage has been on the increase steadily. In 1936 altogether 5,310,000 messages totalling approximately 200,000,000 words, were transmitted, of which 63 per cent were government and military telegrams and 37 per cent commercial or private messages. During the first two years of war when commerce on the whole was affected or at a standstill, the ratio between government and military telegrams and commercial and private telegrams was changed, the highest being 77 per cent for the former and only 23 for the latter. However, this condition was later improved and the old ratio resumed. In 1941 altogether 7,000,000 messages with 300,000,000 words were transmitted, an increase of 100,000,000 words over the 1936 figure.

International messages increased from 9,700,000 words in 1936 to 19,000,000 words in 1941. Long-distance telephone calls increased from 2,500,000 in 1937 to 3,400,000 in 1941. Tele-communication workers in Free China numbered 29,600 by the end of 1941 as compared with 17,500 in 1936.

TELEGRAPH

Telegraph was the first means of tele-communication to come into service in China. It dates back to 1871 when the Danish Great Northern Telegraph Company established an office in Shanghai after laying submarine cables from Vladivostok to the China coast. Two years later the Great Eastern Telegraph Company, a British concern, laid a submarine cable to link Shanghai and Hongkong and started business in Shanghai. The first Chinese telegraph line, running from the Taku Fort to Tientsin was laid by Li Hung-chang in 1879. In the following year the Manchu government established its Telegraph Administration in Tientsin, extending the old line at the same time. The line from Shanghai to Tientsin was officially opened on December 24, 1881, and that from Soochow to Kwangtung via Chekiang and Fukien in 1883. Nanking and Hankow were linked by a telegraph line in 1886, following which provincial and inter-provincial networks were constructed and expanded from time to time until there were more than

600 telegraph offices in 1911 with a total length of 50,000 kilometers of wires.

Since the establishment of the National Government, repair and improvement of lines has been carried out together with new constructions. Each year from 4,000 to 6,000 kilometers of telegraph lines were repaired and hundreds of kilometers of new lines laid. From 1928 to 1936, lines repaired totalled 43,000 kilometers, lines newly erected or added to old circuits totalled more than 15,000 kilometers. Statistics in 1936 showed that there were approximately 104,000 kilometers of government-owned aerial wires, and some 3,400 kilometers of submarine cables. In addition there were 3,500 kilometers of submarines under joint Sino-Japanese operation, 580 kilometers of Japanese submarine cables and approximately 3,000 kilometers of submarine cables belonging to foreign concerns—the Great Northern, the Great Eastern, and the American Commercial Pacific Cable Company.

Before the war, there were 118 automatic telegraphic senders and 1,598 Morse senders. In September, 1942, 140 automatic and 1,200 Morse senders were in use. The increase in the number of automatic machines has greatly increased the speed and accuracy of telegraphic transmission.

From the time war began up to September, 1942, new lines completed totalled 42,048 kilometers and another 6,758 kilometers were under construction or projection.

Telegraph services maintained to the optimum have greatly facilitated military operations. Within a few days after a city was recovered, telegraphic connections with other cities were in working order again. At the end of 1942, the Ministry of Communications had 21 telegraph signal corps, three wireless signal corps, 31 line-repairing engineering corps at the various fronts and 21 repair crew units in the rear, with a total of some 2,000 workers most of whom carried out their duties while attached to the army.

There were 1,164 telegraph stations in the country before July, 1937. The number dropped to 986 in 1938, but has been increasing gradually until there were more than 1,137 in September, 1941.

RADIO

Radio facilities in China were first established for military use in Kwangtung in 1905. When the submarine telegraph

cable from Woosung to Tsungming was damaged in 1908, Kiangsu authorities inaugurated a radio service between the two places and opened offices for government transmission and private business. Since the beginning of 1929, the entire radio enterprises have been administered by the Ministry of Communications. Up to the time war broke out, there were more than 170 radio stations under the Ministry of Communications and a number of other stations operated for the exclusive use of certain Government offices.

Radio as a supplementary instrument to telegraph has been more extensively demonstrated in wartime, particularly for ordinary private communication. At present there are ten big radio stations—in Chungking, Chengtu, Kunming, Kweiyang, Kweilin, Nancheng, Kangting, Sian, Sichang, and Lanchow. Some 100 medium and small-sized stations are also maintained in Free China.

In international radio connection, before the outbreak of the Pacific war Chungking was in communication with Hongkong, Manila and Moscow. Radio contacts between Chungking on the one hand and the United States and England on the other have been efficiently maintained. Press communications have been successfully established between Chungking and Los Angeles since December 14, 1941, with the American-owned Press Wireless, Inc. The Chungking telegraph office is in direct radio communication also with R.C.A. and Mackay stations at San Francisco.

Prior to December 8, 1941, press dispatches from Chungking to the United States were sent, for the sake of greater speed, through Press Wireless, Inc., in Shanghai. Anticipating the disruption of the Shanghai route, the Chungking telegraph office in the meantime had been making test transmissions to Manila. The Manila route was opened and operated from December 8, 1941, until the fall of Manila.

The main international radio station is located in Chengtu. The Ministry of Communications set up a special speed automatic duplex system wire between Chungking and Chengtu. The new instalment furnishes Chungking with sufficiently powerful equipment for direct contact with the outside world. A 24-hour service between Chengtu and R.C.A. and Mackay stations at San Francisco and an 18-hour or

even longer service between Chengtu and London are maintained by the Chengtu station which is especially equipped for long-distance transmission. Direct contact is also maintained with Geneva for a long time. These services began the afternoon of December 11, 1941. Direct service with Singapore and Batavia was also maintained before the enemy occupation. Direct service between Chengtu and Sydney was inaugurated on January 21, 1942 with the Australian Wireless Corporation as the co-operating party. After successful tests with the New Delhi Station on February 6, 1942, the international station at Chengtu on March 7 opened radio services to India but the route has been changed to Bombay, with the British-owned Cable and Wireless Limited on the reciprocating end.

TELEPHONE

The year 1881 marked the beginning of local telephone service in Shanghai when a foreign-owned telephone company was established in the International Settlement. The first Chinese telephone system was inaugurated in Nanking in 1900—25 years after Bell invented the telephone—for inter-government offices communication and had only 16 lines. Government-operated telephone administrations, however, did not actually begin until 1903 when city telephone services were started in Peiping, Tientsin, Canton, Hankow, Foochow and Amoy.

In 1927 there were 20 local telephone administrations under the Ministry of Communications but since then development has been rapid and within ten years some 50 new administrations were established and the old ones expanded. Telephone service in big cities is the only wartime loss to Chinese telecommunications that has not been made up. In September, 1942, only 12 of the Free China cities had telephone service as compared with the 30-odd city systems previously. But there were more than 40 long-distance telephone stations which before the war numbered only 11.

Although development of nation-wide long-distance telephone networks had a late start, the first long-distance telephone line was erected in 1900 when a Dane laid lines from Tientsin to Peitang and Tangku and in the following year extended the line to Peiping. The Danish enterprise was a private business which did not have the Chinese government's permission and was purchased by the government in 1905. A long lapse

followed during which there were only a few provincial long-distance lines. It was not until after 1931 that following well-laid out plans development in this field picked up speed. Each year some new lines were added, the highest kilometerage in a year being more than 10,000. Trunk lines linking leading cities were completed one after another until there were more than 53,000 kilometers of long-distance telephone lines before the war, not including those laid by provincial authorities.

An important step was taken in 1934 to establish good long-distance connections among important cities with the construction of the Nine-Province Long-Distance Telephone Network, the nine provinces being Kiangsu, Chekiang, Anhwei, Kiangsi, Hupeh, Hunan, Shangtung, Honan and Hopei. All the lines for this network were completed before the war, the lengths and dates of which are as follows:

Nanking-Hankow Line—738 kilometers, construction began in May, 1935, and was completed in March, 1936;

Hankow-Changsha Line—370 kilometers, began in November, 1935, and was completed in March, 1936;

Kiukiang-Nanchang Line—136 kilometers, began in December, 1935, and was completed in June, 1936;

Nanking-Tientsin Line—1,124 kilometers, construction on the Tientsin-Tsinan section began in March, and was completed in June, 1935, on the Nanking-Hsuehchow section began in August, and was completed in November, 1935, on the Hsuehchow-Tsinan section began in January and was completed in November, 1937;

Hsuehchow-Chengchow Line—341 kilometers, began in February and was completed in March, 1936.

In addition to the Nine-Province Network, many other inter-city lines were also constructed so that at the time the war broke out not only the Hopei, Shantung, Shansi and Honan war areas were within the reach of long-distance telephone service with Nanking, but the leading ports along the coast were linked with important cities in the interior. At that time Nanking was the center of inter-provincial long-distance telephone service. The 20-odd cities linked with Nanking included Peiping, Tientsin, Tatung, Yangchu, Shihchiachwang, Lanchow, Sian,

Canton, Hengyang, Changsha, Hankow, Kweilin, Nanchang, Tsinan, Tsingtao, Huaiying, Hsuehchow, Kaifeng, Chengchow, Kiukiang, Anking, Tunki and Hsuancheng.

In wartime Chungking has become the center of long-distance telephone service. Direct telephone connections may be made from the wartime capital to Free China cities such as Kukong, Nanning, Kweilin, Liuchow, Chennankwan, Kunming, Kweiyang, Changsha, Hengyang, Yuanling, Kian, Shangjao, Foochow, Sian, Loyang, Lanchow, Laohokou, Hsiangyang, Fancheng, Chengtu, Nancheng and Tunki.

In view of the danger and possibility of damage or destruction by enemy bombings thus putting the service out of commission, multiple circuits have been constructed and maintained for important cities so that in case one line is not working connection between two cities can still be made via another line. Such multiple circuits are maintained between Chungking and Kweiyang, Chengtu, Sian, and Lanchow and also between Kweilin and Hengyang, Kweiyang and Wuchow. Between Chungking and Kweiyang, for instance, besides the direct line along the highway there is a circuit via Hunan.

To supplement the telephone services, radio-telephony has been employed as an auxiliary. At the end of 1942 Chungking could be reached by radio-telephone from Kunming, Chengtu, Kweiyang, Shangjao, Yungan, Kangting, Lanchow, Sichang, Kweilin, Yaan, Ningsia and Hsiakwan while several other circuits were either nearing completion, being tested or installed.

Direct radio-telephone service between Chungking and Hongkong was inaugurated on August 15, 1939, but suspended after only a fortnight when, upon the outbreak of the war in Europe, the British authorities declared the suspension of all international radio-telephone communications. For the same reason, the Kunming-Rangoon and the Chungking-Hanoi lines were also disconnected.

RADIO PHOTO

The latest development in the field of tele-communication in China is the radio photo transmission service between China and the United States which was officially inaugurated on December 15, 1942. To mark the inauguration of the new service, simple ceremonies were held in Washington in President Roosevelt's

oval study when he handed to Chinese Ambassador Wei Tao-ming his personally-written letter to Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek. A battery of photographers took pictures of the ceremony which were radioed to Chungking. President Roosevelt regarded the radiophoto service between Chungking and the U. S. with great significance and asserted at a White House press conference that it will form a new bond with the Chinese people. The President also said that he broke a rule of some years' standing by writing in long-hand but he did so in view of the special occasion.

From Chungking, an autographed photograph of Chairman Lin Sen to President Roosevelt was flashed over the ether waves to the United States on the morning of December 15. Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek returned the American President's greetings by sending a facsimile letter by radiophoto. Other transmissions were an autographed picture of Tseng Yang-fu, Minister of Communications, to the Chairman of the Federal Communications Commission, two facsimile letters, one in Chinese and the other in English, from Vice-Minister of Communications Hsu En-tseng to Mr. Pearson, chairman of the board of directors of Press Wireless, Inc., and several news photos of Lieutenant-General Joseph W. Stilwell discussing war plans with American correspondents.

The text of President Roosevelt's hand-written letter to Generalissimo Chiang reads:

"My dear Generalissimo:

"Once the vast distances between our two countries have been successively diminished by the steamship, radio, cable, airplane and now by this marvel of science which I am utilizing today, I take this unique chance to tell you how honored the people of this country including Mrs. Roosevelt and myself, feel to have with us your charming and distinguished wife.

Always sincerely yours,

(Signed) Franklin D. Roosevelt "

In reply to President Roosevelt's radiophoto message, the Generalissimo sent the following message to the American Chief Executive by the newly inaugurated service:

"My dear President:

"Your hand-written letter, transmitted by radio-photo, is an immense source of joy to me. By this newest means of communication, the march of science has brought us closer

together. May this be a symbol of the rapid progress of the United Nations' war efforts and an early realization of our common war aims in advancing the cause of freedom and equality in a world of peace, order and happiness!

"I am deeply appreciative of the warm welcome accorded Madame Chiang by you and Mrs. Roosevelt and the American people.

"With cordial greetings.

Very sincerely yours,

(Signed) Chiang Kai-shek "

Radiophoto messages were also exchanged on December 18, 1942, between Mr. Elmer Davis, Director of the American Office of War Information, and Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, until recently Minister of Information. Mr. Davis said in his message:

"If there is one belief which certainly has no chance to survive this war, it is the belief that China and the United States are on opposite sides of the earth.

"I am conscious as I write this message of greeting that one hour after I take it from my typewriter it will be placed on your desk in Chungking, many thousand miles away. The radiophotos which are being sent on the circuit we now formally open, were in Los Angeles ten minutes before you received them. At this moment shortwave transmitters in China and the United States are flashing news across the Pacific with the speed of light.

"People who can exchange their news and their ideas—and now their photographs—in minutes and seconds are not on opposite sides of the earth. They are neighbors. This is a fact which you and I, whose task it is to get the truth to the people and get it to them quickly, wherever they may be, understand particularly well.

"Today this exchange of truthful information by the United States and China helps us, and our other allies of the United Nations, in winning final victory over Japan, Germany, and the Axis satellites. Tomorrow, neighbors still, the modern media of instantaneous communication, symbolized by this radiophoto facsimile message, will help our countries, together with all the freedom-loving peoples of the world, in achieving and maintaining that mutual understanding which is essential to lasting peace, freedom and security."

Dr. Wang's reply reads:

"I wish to thank you most heartily for your radiophoto message of greeting, which is received here at amazing speed and with amazing clearness. I reciprocate every thought you expressed therein.

"Your country is a country of great inventions and enterprises. The opening of this new service is hailed here as a broad sign as to what immense possibilities are ahead of us for implementing the collaboration between our two countries. We are indeed both happy and proud to be associated with you as an ally.

"You probably have noticed that I have just left the Ministry of Information so as to enable me to concentrate on my work at the Central Planning Board. But the successful completion of the radiophoto service will always be remembered by me as one of the happiest events during my tenure of office as Minister of Information. In this connection, I must especially mention to you that the staff members of your Office in Chungking have been doing excellent work. My association with them has been most pleasant.

"I send you my best wishes for a Merry Christmas and a Happy New Year. I take great delight in the fact that in spite of the great distance and numerous obstacles imposed by the enemy, they will reach you considerably ahead of time."

For the present, the radiophoto service in China is not open to private or commercial use. Pictures to be transmitted by the wirelessphoto circuit must be either intended for the press, newspaper or other public information purpose, or for governmental use. The Ministry of Communications announced at the time of inauguration of this new service a set of provisional rules which are given hereunder :

PROVISIONAL RULES FOR RADIO PHOTO-TELEGRAM SERVICE BETWEEN CHINA AND THE U.S.A.

(Promulgated by the Ministry of Communications on December, 15, 1942)

Article I. Every radio photo-telegram, in order to be acceptable, must fulfil the following conditions :

- (a) Nature—Pictures to be transmitted by radio photo-telegram must be intended for the press, newspapers or other public information purpose, or for governmental use. No private or commercial pictures will be accepted.
- (b) Standard Size—The standard full size is 21 centimeters in length and 17 centimeters in width, but smaller sizes are permitted. The minimum charge for each picture is fixed at 120 square centimeters.
- (c) Color—The pictures must be printed in black and white.

- (d) Censorship—Pictures to be transmitted by radio photo-telegram must first be submitted to the International Department of the Ministry of Information to be censored and passed by the Department.

Article II. The charges for a radio photo-telegram from Chungking to Los Angeles, U.S.A., are fixed as follows :

- (a) Size One—120 square centimeters or less, US \$40.
- (b) Size Two—More than 120 square centimeters but less than 234 square centimeters, US \$60.
- (c) Size Three—More than 234 square centimeters, up to 357 square centimeters (i.e., 21 centimeters in length and 17 centimeters in width), US \$60 plus US \$0.25 for each square centimeter in excess of 234 square centimeters.

Article III. Radio photo-telegram may be forwarded to places beyond Los Angeles or to any other point in the continental United States of America by registered-airmail-special-delivery, with the additional charge of US \$2 for each radio photo-telegram. The sender may also request that his radio photo-telegram be forwarded by airmail-special-delivery only, in which case the additional charge will be US \$1.32. The abbreviated indication for registered-airmail-special-delivery is *air-pr-xp* and that for airmail-special-delivery is *air-xp*.

Article IV. The name and address of the receiver, the signature and address of the sender, as well as any notes or insertions written on the picture, are not charged for. If they are written on the paper glued to the edge or edges of the picture, an additional charge will be made for such space used. The preamble of the radio photo-telegram, showing the serial number and size in centimeters of picture, the date and station of origin, etc., is to be written by the telegraph office staff and transmitted without charge.

Article V. No thick or hard paper mounting may be attached to the back of the picture. In case any very thin paper is glued to the edge or edges of the picture, the aggregate length and width of picture and attached paper must not exceed 21 by 17 centimeters, but the charges are calculated according to the space actually used.

EQUIPMENT AND SUPPLIES

Equipment, machinery and all kinds of accessories for the operation of telecommunications were almost entirely imported before the war. In the past two or three years persistent efforts have been made in the direction of gradually building up self-sufficiency of such supplies. The home production

program was made more intensified following the closure of the supply routes from Hongkong and Burma. Noticeable increase in both the quantity and kind of equipment and accessories has been registered in the past year or so.

The Tele-Communications Supplies Manufacturing and Repairing Works established by the Ministry of Communications is the only factory in China manufacturing telegraph transmitting and receiving sets. Since the closure of the international supply routes, all new-type sets have been manufactured by this plant. The output of this factory during a six-month period in 1941 was 394 sets of transmitting and receiving apparatuses and 24,840 pieces of accessories. From October, 1941, to the end of August, 1942, its output included 55 Wheatstone high speed auto sets, 266 Morse sets, 29 alarm bells, 92 electrical meters, and a total of 190,506 pieces of all sorts of accessories.

The Ministry of Communications and the National Resources Commission have jointly set up a Central Insulator Works which began production in 1938. This factory is the only one in China today which produces both high and low voltage insulators for tele-communications and railway offices. In a half-year period in 1941, 764,220 pieces of insulators and other accessories were produced. A new plant was set up in western Szechwan in 1942 and another was being planned for Kansu. Production during the eleven months from October, 1941 to August, 1942 included 557,723 pieces of large-size insulators, 558,525 pieces of porcelain tubes and plates, 13,858 pieces of special-order porcelain wares, and 51,326 pieces of other porcelain wares.

A third unit, the Ministry of Communication's Iron and Steel Accessories Works, also produces various supplies for use in connection with tele-communications. In six months in 1941,

a total of 221,825 pieces of twelve kinds of bolts, nuts and other things were manufactured. This plant was expanded in 1942 so that larger quantities and greater varieties of supplies are now produced. The output of this factory during the eleven-month period from October, 1941, to August, 1942 was 25,434 spindles for insulators, 78,700 "Swan neck" brackets for insulators, 6,416 U-shaped cupholders, 46,167 diagonal braces of various kinds, 19,000 thimbles and 125,982 bolts.

In addition, the Ministry of Communications has, in collaboration with the University of Nanking, recently established the Central Storage Battery Factory to manufacture wet batteries for use of the tele-communications offices of the Ministry.

ASSISTANCE IN BURMA

During the battle of Burma early in 1942, the Ministry of Communications dispatched a group of tele-communications operators, engineers and workers to assist the Chinese Expeditionary Force in its communications in Burma. Personnel sent by the Ministry to assist in the telegraph offices along the Yunnan-Burma Highway and to engage in emergency repairs numbered around 200 and there were two engineering units, three communication units and three line-repairing units. These units were placed under the direction of a special delegate from the Ministry, who together with the engineering units worked for sometime within Burma. The other units were detailed to the Chinese-Burmese border region. At the time of Allied evacuation of Burma, a part of the workers remained to work in Burma while the others were assigned to new duties in southwestern Yunnan. The tele-communications workers who stayed behind in Burma after the enemy occupation were later able to return to the homeland by foot.

TABLE 9—TELEGRAPH AND TELEPHONE OFFICES

January, 1942

(Source :—Statistical Department of the Ministry of Communications)

DISTRICTS	TELEGRAPH OFFICES									
	Head District Offices	1st-Class Offices	2nd-Class Offices	3rd-Class Offices	4th-Class Offices	5th-Class Offices	Receiving and Sending Stations	Agencies	International Radio Station	Telephone Offices
Anhwel	1	...	3	1	4	25	11
Chekiang	1	5	...	11	9	15	15	9
Fukien	1	3	3	11	16	20	8	10
Honan	1	1	3	6	10	56	3	2
Hunan	1	6	2	21	12	35	16	4
Hupei	1	1	1	3	4	33	15	5
Jehol, Mongolia, Chahar and Suiyuan	1	4
Kansu and Ningsia	1	1	2	8	7	17	...	30
Kiangsi	1	3	5	18	9	26	26	9
Kiangsu	1	2	1	1	1
Kwangsi	1	3	5	8	10	35	2
Kwangtung	1	4	7	27	16	28	33	3
Kweichow	1	7	11	13	2	17
Shansi	8	1
Shensi	1	1	4	10	12	49	11	12
Sinkiang and Chinghai	1	2	2	21
Szechwan, Sikang and Tibet	1	3	8	14	19	67	19	21
Yunnan	1	2	4	40	1	1
Unclassified	2	1
TOTAL	15	31	44	150	147	498	169	124	2	1
										1,181

TELECOMMUNICATION ACT

(Promulgated by the National Government
on August 5, 1929)

Article I. Telecommunication includes telegraph and telephone, either by wire or radio, and any other electrical communications. Transmission of signs, letters, words, images and figures by means of metallic conductor is called telegraph; that of speech and sounds is called telephone. Transmission of signs, letters, words, images and figures by means of electromagnetic waves through space is called radio telegraph; that of speech and sound is called radio telephone.

Article II. With the exception of those installed for the exclusive use of the Army,

the Navy, and the Air Force, all Government-owned or operated telecommunication systems shall be administered by the Ministry of Communications of the Executive Yuan of the National Government.

Article III. The Ministry of Communications or its deputies may grant concessions to local authorities, public or private organizations or individuals to install the following means of telecommunication in accordance with such regulations for installation as are to be fixed by the Ministry of Communications:

- (a) Those which are installed for the exclusive use by railways, mining concerns or other special enterprises;

- (b) Those which are installed on board ships or aircraft for communication during their voyage or flight;
- (c) Private wires connected with the local telecommunication offices with the object of facilitating the handling of telecommunications;
- (d) Those which are installed inside a specified building or a compound for exclusive use within the limits of the building or compound;
- (e) Those which are installed for broadcasting news, speeches or lectures, meteorological reports and musical programs for the purpose of promoting public welfare;
- (f) Those which are installed for scientific or academic experiments; and
- (g) Telephone systems installed in specified areas where no telephone interconnections have been provided.

Article IV. No one who has not been licensed by the Ministry of Communications or its deputies is allowed to install a radio receiving set to intercept radio broadcasting programs in accordance with Section "e" of Article III.

Article V. The Ministry of Communications is empowered to collect license fees from, and fix reprieve regulations for, the public or private organizations or individuals in the following groups:

- (a) Those who are engaged in the operation of private telecommunication installations as provided for in Article III;
- (b) Those who install radio receiving sets as provided for in Article IV.

Article VI. The Ministry of Communications, in case of necessity, may establish censorship on private telecommunication enterprises; or in accordance with law or ordinances, commandeer private telecommunication installations for public service or military communication purposes, or appoint officials to take control of or acquire them at a fixed price.

Article VII. The importation of telecommunication apparatus and materials should be accompanied by a special permit issued by the Ministry of Communications.

Article VIII. Apparatus and materials to be used by the Government-operated telecommunication services shall be exempt from all taxation except customs import duties.

Article IX. The users of telecommunication services shall be responsible for the contents of, or consequences arising from, the telecommunications exchanged between them.

Article X. As regards the exchange of telecommunications, the acts of persons without disposing capacity are considered by the

Government as acts of persons with disposing capacity.

Article XI. Government-operated telecommunication services and their staff employees and servants are bound to observe strict secrecy as regards the existence and contents of telecommunications exchanged. The same obligation remains in force with retired employees and servants.

Article XII. Notwithstanding the restriction set forth in Article XI, Government-operated telecommunication services may comply with the official request made by a court of justice or by authorities who are responsible for the maintenance of public order to inspect a telecommunication when such is considered necessary to obtain criminal evidence.

Article XIII. For the purpose of maintaining public order and whenever deemed necessary, the Government reserves the right to suspend or restrict the transmission of telecommunication in specified areas.

Article XIV. Government telecommunication services may refuse or suspend the transmission of telecommunications the contents of which are considered to be likely to interfere with public order.

Article XV. When a telecommunication is delayed or fails to reach its destination on account of a special cause, or *force majeure* the user of the telecommunication services has no right to claim compensation for any loss or damage sustained.

Article XVI. Unless otherwise marked, a telecommunication should be delivered according to the name and address appearing on the telecommunication when it reaches the office of destination.

A public announcement shall be made in case the telecommunication should be undeliverable owing to the fact that the name or address of the recipient is unknown. The said telecommunication may be destroyed if it is not claimed by its addressee within three months after the date of public announcement.

Article XVII. During the time of military operations, telecommunication services shall have the right to request the sender of a telecommunication in cipher or code to give explanation of the meaning of his telecommunication, or may request the sender or receiver of such telecommunication to produce the code book for examination. In case of refusal to give explanation or of a false explanation, or in case of refusal to produce the code book for examination, the transmission or delivery of such telecommunication may be stopped.

Article XVIII. Government-operated telecommunication services may erect their lines across any place they see convenient. A

suitable compensation may be made to a private individual whose property has been damaged by the construction provided such damage has been verified by the Ministry of Communications or its deputies upon the petition of the said individual.

Article XIX. Nobody is permitted to obstruct the passage through any road, or customs station of employees and servants of Government-operated telecommunication services when they are discharging their duty.

Article XX. The employees and servants, as mentioned in Article XIX, in discharging their duty may pass through any yards or fields except those which are inclosed within fences or walls. Nevertheless, should damages be caused to buildings or crops by such passage, the Ministry of Communications or its deputies may, after verifying the damages, make suitable compensation to the person sustaining the damages upon the latter's petition.

Article XXI. Any person violating the provisions of Articles III or Article VII shall be liable to a fine of fifty to two thousand dollars, and all the poles, wires, apparatus and accessory parts shall be confiscated. Any person violating the provisions of Article IV or Article XX shall be liable to a fine of from five to two hundred dollars.

Article XXII. The present Act shall come into effect on the day of its promulgation.

REGULATIONS FOR PRESS TELEGRAMS

(Promulgated by the Ministry of Communications on October 3, 1941)

Article I. Press telegrams may be sent by the correspondents of newspapers, periodical publications, news agencies (hereinafter called news organizations) or radio broadcasting stations in accordance with the provisions of the present regulations.

Article II. A correspondent is permitted to send press telegrams only after having been duly authorized by, and obtaining a press card from, the Department of Telegraphs and Telephones of the Ministry of Communications (hereinafter called the Department). When applying for a press card, he must fill in an application form, as provided for in Article VI of the present regulations and submit it to the Department together with the card fee and stamp duty and two copies of his latest photograph, two by two inches.

Article III. Correspondents of foreign nationalities and Chinese correspondents representing foreign news organizations who desire to apply for press cards must first obtain certificates of registration from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and then submit them to the

Department together with the applications mentioned in Article II.

Article IV. In the case of domestic press telegrams the charges for which are to be collected from the addressee, the applicant must submit his application to the telegraph office in the locality where the receiving news organization is situated. Upon the receipt of the application, the said office collects from the said organization a deposit or guaranty money in accordance with Article XX of the present regulations and then forwards the application to the Department for consideration. If the receiving news organization has already deposited an appropriate sum of money with the local telegraph office, the application may be sent together with a certificate of the said deposit or guaranty money direct to the Department. In case the application sent to the Department is without the certificate, a press card shall not be issued until after the local telegraph office has, by the instruction of the Department, obtained the said deposit or guaranty money.

Article V. In the case of press telegrams destined to a foreign country the charges for which are to be collected from the addressee, the receiving news organization must first make arrangement with the foreign telegraph administration which will request the Department to consider the application and issue a press card. In the absence of such advice, a press card shall not be issued until after the Department has duly arranged with the foreign telegraph administration for payment of the charges.

Article VI. A press card for prepaid press telegrams carries no restriction as to the number of places from which the messages may be sent. In the case of press telegrams the charges for which are to be collected from the addressee, each press card shall contain at most five names of places of origin, except in the case of a correspondent who has been duly verified by the Department after examination of his certificate to travel with a touring party or an army, in which case he may be granted on application a card for filling press telegrams from places in one or two provinces.

Each press card shall contain only one place of destination except in the case as specified in Article XVIII. Each of the aforesaid press cards is to be charged as follows ;

Card Fee Stamp Duty

(a) For a prepaid press card ..	NC\$10.00	NC\$2.00
(b) For a collect press card for press telegrams to be sent from five places or less ..	10.00	2.00

Card Fee Stamp Duty

- (c) For a collect press card for press telegrams to be sent from places in one or two provinces NC\$20.00 NC\$2.00

Article VII. When press telegrams are submitted for transmission, the correspondent must present his press card to the office for inspection and sign his name or affix his seal on the telegram form.

The signature or seal must correspond to the name of the correspondent indicated on the press card.

If he does not present his press card, or his signature or seal does not correspond to his name indicated on the press card, the telegraph office or its local branch office may refuse to accept his telegrams.

Article VIII. All press telegrams must be addressed to the news organization or radio-broadcasting station as indicated on the press card and not to any person in the said organization or broadcasting station nor to any of its offices or agencies at any other place for retransmission.

Article IX. Domestic press telegrams are divided into two classes; ordinary press telegrams and urgent press telegrams. Foreign press telegrams are divided into three classes; ordinary press telegrams, urgent press telegrams and deferred press telegrams. Deferred press telegrams are only available to places in North America.

Article X. Press telegrams are to be transmitted in the following specified order;

- (a) Urgent press telegrams rank with urgent private telegrams,
- (b) Ordinary press telegrams rank with ordinary private telegrams,
- (c) Deferred press telegrams rank with deferred telegrams.

Article XI. Ordinary press and deferred press telegrams are charged at the respective rates specially fixed for them, and urgent press telegrams at the same rates as fixed for ordinary private telegrams.

Article XII. Press telegrams must bear, before the addressee, one of the following paid service indications;

- (a) "Press" before the addressee of an ordinary press telegram, charged as one word,
- (b) "D press," before the addressee of an urgent press telegram, charged as two words,
- (c) "LCPS," before the addressee of a deferred press telegram, charged as one word.

Article XIII. A correspondent who has obtained two or more press cards in which the receiving news organizations or radio broadcasting stations are situated in one and the same locality may send multiple copies by writing before the address the paid service indication "TMX." The copying fee for multiple press telegrams is the same as that for ordinary private multiple telegrams.

Article XIV. All press telegrams must bear service indications as listed in Articles XII and XIII, but must not bear other service indications regarding payment.

Article XV. Press telegrams must be written in plain language. They must be written in Chinese or English in the case of domestic messages and in one of the following languages in the case of foreign messages:

- (a) Chinese
- (b) English
- (c) French
- (d) The language or languages designated by the receiving office
- (e) The language in which the receiving newspaper is printed.

Article XVI. Press telegrams must only consist of information or news relating to politics, commerce, et cetera, intended for insertion in newspaper or periodical publications or for radio broadcasting, and must not contain any passage having the character of private correspondence or similar to an advertisement. Instructions relative to the publication or broadcasting of the telegram may be inserted either at the beginning or the end of the text but must be written between brackets. The number of words contained in the whole of the instructions relating to a single telegram may not be more than 5 per cent of the number of chargeable words in the text or exceed ten words in all. Both the instructions and the brackets are charged for according to the regulations.

Article XVII. Exchange and market quotations, results of sporting events and meteorological reports or forecasts with or without explanatory text are admitted in press telegrams. In case of doubt regarding the nature of quotations and figures in such messages, the dispatching telegraph office reserves the right to request the sender to verify the truthfulness of such messages.

The inclusion of meteorological reports or forecasts in press messages are only allowed in case the sender has received specific authorization from the Department and this is duly specified on the press card.

Article XVIII. The correspondent of a news agency may request that a copy of domestic press telegrams sent by him be "dropped"

at an intermediary retransmitting office for delivery to a local news organization. In the address of such drop copy telegrams should be inserted the words "drop.....(name and address of the news organization to receive the drop copy.)" For example:

- (a) 0022 Peiping (registered address of the receiving news organization and name of place of destination) drop 1350 Tientsin (Registered address of the news organization to receive the drop copy and name of place at which the telegram is to be dropped (the text) (the text))
- (b) Reuter Tientsin drop Reuter Chefoo.... (the text) (the text)

In addition to the charge collected according to the rate fixed for press telegrams, a copying fee of two cents per word when written in Chinese and of four cents per word when written in English, is charged for drop copy press telegrams according to the number of words in the text.

Article XIX. For the arrangement of drop copy telegrams as provided for in Article XVIII, the permission of the Department must first be obtained. In case of necessity, the Department reserves the right to stop such an arrangement at any time.

Article XX. For domestic and foreign press telegrams destined for China the charges for which are to be collected from the addressee, the receiving news organization or radio broadcasting station must deposit a sum of money with the local telegraph office sufficient for the payment of charges for one month. The amount of this deposit is to be fixed by the said office which will keep an account with the depositor for settlement monthly and the latter shall renew his deposit after the settlement. In case of delay in making good any short payment by the receiving news organization or radio broadcasting station over five days after having been notified, the telegraph office may refuse to deliver its telegram and ask the Department to instruct the offices of origin to stop the acceptance of telegrams addressed to the said organization or broadcasting station.

The receiving news organization or radio broadcasting station does not have to make any deposit if it wishes to prepay a certain sum of guaranty money in accordance with the "Regulations Regarding Guarantee for Telegram Charges On Account" issued by the Ministry of Communications.

Article XXI. The office of delivery may, if and when necessary, request a written declaration from the person responsible for the receiving news organization or broadcasting station that his organization will abide by the regulations.

Article XXII. When telegrams presented as ordinary press, urgent or deferred press telegrams

do not fulfil the conditions in Article XV and XVI of the present regulations, the indication "Press," "D" or "Lcps" is to be deleted or altered to "D" or "LC" and the telegrams will be charged at the rate for ordinary, urgent or deferred telegrams respectively.

This clause also applies to any press telegram of which use is made for a purpose other than that of insertion in the columns of the newspaper or periodical or for broadcasting.

Additional charges (balance of non-press and press rates) will be collected from the addressee of press rate telegrams in the case of any of the following three conditions:

- (a) The news organization or broadcasting station to which the telegram is addressed, failing a satisfactory reason, does not publish or broadcast the message, or before publication or broadcasting delivers it either to an individual or to establishments such as clubs, hostels, stock and commodity exchanges, etc.
- (b) Any news organization or broadcasting station to which the telegram is addressed has sold, distributed or forwarded, before publication or broadcasting, the message to another news organization or broadcasting station. Press telegrams, however, may be sold, distributed or forwarded to other organizations for simultaneous publication or broadcasting.
- (c) Press telegrams received by a news agency, failing a satisfactory explanation, have not been published in a newspaper or broadcast, or have been delivered to a third person before publication or broadcasting.

Article XXIII. In case of violation of the present regulations by news organizations, radio broadcasting stations or their correspondents the Department may temporarily suspend the transmission of their press telegrams or withdraw and cancel their press cards.

Article XXIV. The press card is not transferable.

Article XXV. The period of validity for press cards is as follows:

- (a) Those issued within the first half of the year will be valid from the date of issue to the end of the next year.
- (b) Those issued within the second half of the year will be valid from the date of issue to the end of June of the third year.

Article XXVI. A press card shall become null and void upon the expiration of its validity. For the renewal of a press card, the correspondent must submit, at least two months before the date

of expiration, a written application together with card fee and stamp duty and two copies of his latest photograph as specified in Article VI of the present regulations. The original card must be returned to the Department or the local telegraph office for cancellation within one month after its expiration.

Article XXVII. The provisions of the rules and regulations concerning telegrams, fixed and promulgated by the Ministry of Communications which do not conflict with the present regulations are also applicable to press telegrams.

Article XXVIII. The present regulations shall come into effect from the date of promulgation.

BROADCASTING

Although there were about 100 broadcasting stations in China at the outbreak of the war on July 7, 1937, radio broadcasting was not introduced to China until 1922 when a small field station was adapted for program transmission and set up in the building of the Wing On Company in Shanghai. Two years later, an American firm—the Kellogg Radio Company—started to operate a broadcasting station of 100-watt power in the Western District of Shanghai. This station was supported from 1926 to 1928 by the China Broadcasting Association which had a subscribing membership of 600 listeners. The program broadcast was mostly in English and consisted of news, music, lectures and other items.

Following the first stations, numerous low-powered broadcasting stations came into being. Many of them were loosely organized and ill-conducted. Most of these broadcasting stations were located in Shanghai as in 1935 the total number of stations in the environs of the metropolis exceeded 60.

The first government-owned broadcasting stations were established in Peiping and Tientsin in 1927. In 1928 the Central Broadcasting Station was inaugurated by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang. Using a 500-watt Western Electric transmitting plant when it was first started, the machinery was replaced in the second year by a 75-kilowatt Telefunken station. When the National Government moved out of Nanking late in 1937 the Central station was dismantled and the machinery and equipment set up in the interior.

In July, 1927, there were also government-owned broadcasting stations in Changsha, Foochow and Sian.

For the past few years the Central Broadcasting Station has been operating in the wartime capital—Chungking. Programs from this station, being broadcast on medium-wave, are mainly for listeners at home and near the China coast. For broadcasts to America, Europe and other foreign lands the short-wave Chinese International Broadcasting Station (XGOX and XGOY) has been established. News, lectures, speeches and other programs from this short-wave station are broadcast in both Chinese and foreign languages. With *kuo yu* (mandarin) as the basic language for the Chinese program, news and other speech programs are also carried in various dialects such as Cantonese, Amoy, southern Fukienese, Hakka, Shanghai, and Chaochow and in Mongolian and Tibetan languages. Among the foreign languages used by the Chinese International Broadcasting Station are English (chief foreign language), Japanese, Russian, Burmese, Malayan, Dutch, Siamese, Indo-Chinese, Hindi, Korean, French and Spanish.

The Central Broadcasting Administration was established in 1932 to control broadcasting matters. At the end of 1942 there were 17 broadcasting stations in Free China under the administration.

Above the Central Broadcasting Administration is the Central Broadcasting Advisory Committee with its chairman and vice-chairman appointed by the Central Executive Committee and its nine members elected one each from the Ministry of Communications, the Ministry of Information, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Interior, the Ministry of Social Affairs, the National Military Council, the Central Broadcasting Administration and the Board of Overseas Affairs.

The Wave-length of broadcasting stations in China, as designated by the International Radio Broadcasting Convention, is from 550 to 1,500 kilocycles for medium wave and from 600 to 2,660 megacycles for short wave.

It was estimated that before the war there were approximately 1,000,000 radio receivers in China, averaging 0.13 set per every 100 persons. Most of the million radio receiving sets were installed in the Shanghai and Nanking areas.

The Provisional Regulations Governing Control of Private Broadcasting Stations were promulgated by the Ministry of Communications on November 24, 1932.

According to these regulations Chinese citizens, all-Chinese corporations, government-registered organizations as well as Sino-foreign corporations or organizations duly registered with the National Government, may establish and operate radio broadcasting stations in China.

These regulations provide that prior to the construction of broadcasting stations, however, permits must first be obtained from the Ministry of Communications and application for such permits must state:

- (1) Name, domicile, and director of the applicant-organization;
- (2) Object of the station;
- (3) Name of the station, together with a business prospectus therefor;
- (4) Power of the transmitter, location of transmitter, and detailed engineering plans (to be submitted together with diagrams and drawings); and
- (5) Location of the broadcasting studio or studios.

Other important provisions of the Provisional Regulations Governing Control of Private Broadcasting Stations include the following:

Each application must be accompanied by a fee of ten dollars for the permit and one dollar stamp duty.

The permits are valid for six months from date of issue, but should an applicant fail to complete construction work of the station within this period, an extension of three months will be granted upon application based upon satisfactory reason. Such extension shall be granted only once.

For the operation of a broadcasting station a separate license must be applied for, and will be issued after inspection of the construction and equipment of the station has been made by special deputies from the Ministry of Communications.

Each application for broadcasting licenses must be submitted with a license fee of \$50, stamp duty of two dollars; together with cash security of \$200 or shop guarantee for \$1,000. The cash security will be refunded to the licensee upon termination of validity of the license or closing of the station provided no fines have been imposed.

Licenses for radio broadcasting stations are non-transferable. New licenses must be applied for upon promulgation of

formal regulations governing control of broadcasting stations.

No broadcasting station which has not been licensed by the Ministry of Communications will be allowed to operate. The Ministry may, from time to time, appoint special representatives to investigate the conditions of various stations.

The nature of broadcasting programs must be limited to the following:

- (1) Lectures or speeches calculated to promote public welfare;
- (2) News reports (subject, however, to prohibition in case of necessity);
- (3) Music, songs and other programs;
- (4) Business or commercial reports (provided that the time taken up does not exceed 20 per cent of the daily broadcasting time).

The Ministry of Communications, whenever it deems fit, may instruct private stations to broadcast mandates of the Government, news concerning Government activities, and publicity matter of benefit to the public. Should the Ministry deem it necessary, such Government reports must be broadcast before other programs.

In the event of emergency calls from ships or airplanes, all private stations, upon being notified, must immediately stop broadcasting in order to avoid disturbance of such emergency calls. Broadcast programs may be resumed when the emergency calls have ended or when it has been ascertained that no disturbance will be caused.

No private broadcasting station shall:

- (1) Disturb or hamper the operation of Government, military, naval or air force, and public broadcasting stations;
- (2) Disobey the instructions or directions of special inspectors sent by the Ministry of Communications;
- (3) Broadcast unauthentic or false news or reports;
- (4) Communicate with any other broadcasting station in a way similar to radio-telephony;
- (5) Transmit private messages;
- (6) Broadcast news, speeches, songs or stories which are detrimental to public peace and order or to good morals;
- (7) Disturb the broadcasting of other stations.

Operators of private broadcasting stations must reduce, as much as possible, harmonics caused by antenna in order to avoid disturbing other radio stations. Should the harmonics be too great, the Ministry of Communications may order the station to improve the condition or suspend the broadcasting rights of the station.

The Ministry of Communications may penalize private broadcasting stations

infracting the provisions of these regulations by either of the following :

- (1) Suspension of operation ;
- (2) Revocation of license ;
- (3) Confiscation of radio apparatus, and/or a fine of not less than \$50 and not more than \$1,000.

The provisions of the International Radio Broadcasting Convention, insofar as they are not contrary to these regulations, will be considered applicable in regard to private broadcasting stations.

TABLE 10—BROADCASTING STATIONS UNDER THE CENTRAL BROADCASTING ADMINISTRATION

STATION	Call Signal	Wave-Length	Frequency	Location
Central	XGOA	250 meters	1,200 KC	Chungking
		30.84 "	9,720 KC	"
Chinese International	XGOY	25.21 "	11,900 KC	"
	XGOX	49 "	6,122 KC	"
Kunming	XPRA	435 "	690 KC	Kunming
Kweichow	XPSA	33.40 "	8,484 KC	Kweiyang
Fukien	XGOL	315 "	950 KC	Yungan
		30 "	10,000 KC	"
Shensi	XKDA	233 "	1,290 KC	Nancheng
Sian	XKDA	300 "	1,000 KC	Sian
Hunan	XLPA	326 "	920 KC	Yuanling
Kansu	XMRA	21.40 "	1,400 KC	Lanchow
Sikang	XRSA	30.50 "	9,836 KC	Sichang
Kiangsi	XGOC	313 "	960 KC	Taiho
3rd War Area Mobile Station	XLMA	48.39 "	6,200 KC	
Chengtu	XGOG	535 "	560 KC	Chengtu
Kwangtung Provincial	XGOP	24.20 "	12,440 KC	Kukong
		260 "	1,150 KC	"
Kwangsi Provincial	XGOE	426 "	650 KC	Kweilin
Hunan Provincial	XGOH	50 "	6,000 KC	Laiyang
Loyang	XGOQ	330 "	900 KC	Loyang

POSTAL ADMINISTRATION

The modern postal system in China dates back to 1896 although in tracing the origins of the Chinese postal system one is always led back to the government posts of the Chou dynasty, B.C. 1122-781. When the post office along modern lines was first established at the close of the 19th century the Manchu Government made no special allocations for its administration. Six offices, including Shanghai, Tientsin and Hankow, of the

Chinese Maritime Customs for several years after 1905 made an annual appropriation of 720,000 taels of silver toward the postal administration, the work of which was handled by some staff members of the Customs. The Inspectorate-General of Customs managed the postal service until 1911 when the service was transferred to the control of the Ministry of Communications and Posts and again to the Ministry of Communications upon the establishment of the Chinese Republic.

The Directorate-General of Posts was then established to take charge of the postal affairs of the whole country and to guide and supervise all its subordinate offices in the transaction of their business. In 1928 a new Directorate-General created by the National Government replaced the old one. Functioning first in Shanghai, this new directorate-general moved to Nanking in January, 1935. Since the war began, the Postal Administration moved from Nanking to Hankow, later to Kunming and then to Chungking.

The Directorate-General of Posts of the Ministry of Communications is headed by one director-general appointed by the National Government and two deputy directors-general—one of whom acts solely as the director of the Postal Remittances and Savings Banks—appointed by the Ministry of Communications. The Directorate-General has, in addition to the Directorate of Postal Remittances and Savings Banks, 24 District Head Post Offices, one Planning Committee, and the following departments:

- (1) Secretariat,
- (2) General Department,
- (3) Staff Department,
- (4) Business Department,
- (5) Accounts and Audit Department,
- (6) International Department,
- (7) Supply Department, and
- (8) Inspecting Commissioners' Office.

Through various extensions, improvement of service and reforms from time to time, the Postal Administration now maintains more than 604,900 kilometers of courier, steamer and boat, railway, motor car, and air mail lines, and 71,355

post offices of various classes. Nearly 41,000 workers are employed in the general, district head offices and other offices and agencies.

In view of the importance of postal communications to the general public as well as the Government during wartime, orders have been given to all classes of postal employees throughout the country to maintain postal services at their respective stations to the best of their ability. Only when all the local civil and military offices have been withdrawn from a place owing to hostilities, may the postal staff there withdraw to a safer locality in the immediate neighborhood, where they should still transact postal business. The order also calls the postal employees to return to their original offices for the resumption of postal services as soon as the local situation permits.

To summarize, the staff administration of the Post Office during wartime is governed by four fundamental principles: (1) maintenance by the staff of the postal services at their respective stations as far as conditions permit; (2) increase of working efficiency of the staff; (3) strict enforcement of staff discipline; and (4) practice of economy in the distribution of, and other matters concerning, staff.

For administration and supervision of post offices located in places not occupied by the enemy but in postal districts the district head office of which is located in enemy-held cities, special offices are set up. The district head offices in occupied areas still remain in control of all the postal offices in occupied areas. In February, 1943, there were 21 district head offices and five special offices under the Directorate-General of Posts.

TABLE 11.—NAME AND LOCATION OF DISTRICT HEAD OFFICES
AND SPECIAL OFFICES

District	Offices	Location
Anhwei	District Head	Hwaining
Anhwei	Special	Liuan
Chekiang	District Head	Hangchow
Chekiang	Special	Lungchuan
Fukien	District Head	Foochow
Honan	District Head	Kaifeng
Honan	Special	Neihsiang
Hopei	District Head	Tientsin
*Hunan	District Head	Taohuaping
Hupei	District Head	Hankow
Hupei	Special	Enshih
Kansu	District Head	Lanchow
**Kiangsi	District Head	Kanhhsien
Kiangsu	District Head	Nanking
Kirin and Heilungkiang	Temporarily Suspended	
Kwangsi	District Head	Kweilin
Kwangtung	District Head	Canton
Kwangtung	Special	Kukong (Shaokwan)
Kweichow	District Head	Kweiyang
Liaoning	Temporarily Suspended	
Peiping	District Head	Peiping
Shanghai	District Head	Shanghai
Shantung	District Head	Tsinan
Shensi	District Head	Sian
Sinkiang	District Head	Tihwa (Urumchi)
Szechwan, Eastern	District Head	Chungking
Szechwan, Western	District Head	Chengtu
Yunnan	District Head	Kunming

* Originally at Changsha ; temporarily removed to Taohuaping.

** Originally at Nanchang ; temporarily removed to Kanhhsien after the fall of Nanchang.

Postal establishments are added from time to time at places where the increase in population and importance has consequently resulted in greater needs for postal service. From the time war began up to February, 1943, a total of 767 first-class, second-class and third-class post offices, 5,252 agencies, and 13,845 rural stations and rural box offices have

been added to the postal system. Of all the new establishments, two-thirds are located in provinces in the Southwest and the Northwest.

The following table gives the distribution of the total number of 71,355 postal establishments China had at the end of June, 1942 :

**TABLE 12.—DISTRIBUTION OF POST OFFICES AND OTHER ESTABLISHMENTS
UP TO JUNE 30, 1942**

(Source :—Directorate-General of Posts)

DISTRICT	MAJOR ESTABLISHMENTS							MINOR ESTABLISHMENTS			
	District Offices	1st-Class Offices	2nd-Class Offices	3rd-Class Offices	Sub-Offices	Kiosks	Agencies	Rural Box Offices	Rural Stations	Stamp-Selling Agencies	Total
Anhwei	1	2	8	24	2	...	223	168	245	45	718
Chekiang	1	5	45	108	9	...	1,296	1,103	2,329	304	5,200
Fukien	1	3	32	92	10	...	594	554	1,897	201	3,384
Honan	1	2	53	132	14	...	1,329	1,047	3,598	100	6,276
Hopei	1	...	22	76	16	...	653	306	4,201	112	5,387
Hunan	1	4	44	78	12	...	1,002	1,796	1,838	164	4,939
Hupeh	1	4	25	82	11	...	747	373	596	59	1,898
Kansu	1	4	14	57	6	...	221	217	35	37	592
Kiangsi	1	1	40	94	3	...	564	391	274	103	1,471
Kiangsu	1	3	39	105	20	1	824	812	838	454	3,097
Kwangsi	1	3	14	77	8	...	392	299	8	26	828
Kwangtung	1	2	71	126	13	...	2,029	1,469	312	304	4,327
Kweichow	1	1	18	80	5	...	314	306	70	44	839
Peiping	1	2	38	50	23	...	550	1,538	11,891	206	14,299
Shanghai	1	...	19	27	22	2	95	271	619	130	1,186
Shansi*	18	14	86	17	110	30	276
Shantung	1	2	35	117	18	...	839	849	7,693	177	9,731
Shensi	1	...	36	127	7	1	661	332	27	33	1,225
Sinkiang	1	...	14	14	73	8	...	15	125
Szechwan, E.	1	3	75	75	24	2	1,050	606	239	112	2,187
Szechwan, W.	1	3	52	86	15	...	997	931	125	112	2,322
Yunnan	1	1	21	65	8	...	437	166	334	15	1,048
TOTAL	21	45	733	1,706	246	6	14,976	13,559	37,279	2,783	71,355

* Shansi District Head Office temporarily managed by a neighboring district head office.

Since the war new postal routes opened include 59,669 kilometers of courier routes, 5,072 kilometers of steamer and boat routes, 754 kilometers of railway routes, 1,995 kilometers of motor vehicle routes, and 5,097 kilometers of air-mail

routes. Courier routes have had the biggest increase as some 80 per cent of all the newly established routes belong to that category. Postal routes up to June 30, 1942, totalled 604,946 kilometers, their distribution is listed in the following table:

**TABLE 13.—DISTRIBUTION AND DISTANCES OF POSTAL ROUTES
UP TO JUNE 30, 1942**

(Source :—Directorate-General of Posts)

DISTRICT	POSTAL ROUTES DISTANCES (in Kilometers)					
	Courier Routes	Steamer and Boat Routes	Railway Routes	Motor Vehicle Routes	Air Routes	Total
Anhwei	6,067	813	605	7,485
Chekiang	23,859	8,884	367	1,826	...	34,936
Fukien	16,692	3,971	...	2,432	...	23,095
Honan	54,614	236	813	649	...	56,312
Hopei	8,044	11	1,610	9,665
Hunan	33,784	6,456	562	1,696	...	42,498
Hupei	13,792	412	432	669	...	15,305
Kansu	13,715	610	...	14,325
Kiangsi	20,095	523	167	3,106	...	23,891
Kiangsu	11,302	11,530	402	1,016	...	24,250
Kwangsi	15,100	3,574	564	2,440	...	21,678
Kwangtung	32,986	5,966	334	3,414	...	42,700
Kweichow	15,773	2,398	...	18,171
Peiping	35,520	...	1,143	36,663
Shanghai	3,082	10,177	183	241	...	13,683
Shansi	1,911	...	786	351	...	3,048
Shantung	47,170	192	1,154	48,516
Shensi	24,998	...	419	862	...	26,279
Sinkiang	13,438	5,036	...	18,744
Szechwan, E.	35,716	3,025	...	1,410	...	40,151
Szechwan, W.	45,855	1,381	...	1,593	...	48,829
Yunnan	23,881	...	706	1,735	...	26,322
Others	8,400	8,400
GRAND TOTAL	497,394	57,151	10,247	31,754	8,400	604,946

**TABLE 14.—NUMBER AND DISTRIBUTION OF POSTAL EMPLOYEES UP TO
SEPTEMBER 30, 1942**

(Source :—Directorate-General of Posts.)

DISTRICT	Commis- sioners	Deputy Commis- sioners	Chia- Teng Yu-wu- Yuan (First Clerks)	I-Teng Yu-wu- Yuan (Second Clerks)	Tu-wu- tsu (Assis- tant Clerks)	Post- men	Couriers and Other Work- men	GRAND TOTAL
Directorate-General of Posts	11	17	102	101	9	1	90	331
Postal Remittances and Savings Bank	...	3	67	361	73	504
Anhwei	1	2	19	137	151	187	345	842
Chekiang	...	4	48	236	365	543	564	1,760
Fukien	1	2	35	168	373	359	539	1,477
Honan	1	2	38	260	313	526	743	1,883
Hopei	1	2	51	283	328	497	478	1,640
Hunan	52	407	511	624	1,242	2,836
Hupei	1	3	54	222	270	409	677	1,636
Kansu	1	1	20	85	186	142	564	999
Kiangsi	...	1	33	229	189	320	694	1,466
Kiangsu	...	3	48	249	513	676	602	2,091
Kwangsi	1	2	41	307	196	266	748	1,561
Kwangtung	...	3	100	475	467	575	1,244	2,864
Kweichow	1	1	44	279	232	233	926	1,716
Peiping	1	1	62	261	561	713	521	2,120
Shanghai	5	3	248	696	558	1,085	967	3,562
Shansi	8	28	57	47	81	221
Shantung	1	3	34	241	377	637	533	1,826
Shensi	...	2	27	240	450	343	1,083	2,145
Sinkiang	1	...	4	53	39	45	402	544
Szechwan, Eastern	1	2	62	469	756	652	1,315	3,257
Szechwan, Western	1	4	90	526	508	442	1,031	2,602
Yunnan	1	2	43	334	209	282	762	1,633
TOTAL	30	63	1,330	6,647	7,691	9,604	16,151	41,516

The consistent policy of the Ministry of Communications is to maintain postal services throughout China (including occupied areas as well as behind the enemy lines) and to execute transmission and delivery with promptness. During wartime mail carriers have trudged on through Free China, through war fronts, through guerilla zones, through occupied territories to practically every nook and corner of the country. Means of transporting letters, printed matter, parcel post and other mail range from airplanes to couriers and pack animals.

Among the most marked wartime achievements of the post office is the maintenance of mail service in the war areas, places occupied by the enemy, or abroad despite tremendous transportation difficulties or enemy blockades. Prior to the outbreak of the Pacific war mail service from Free China to Shanghai was maintained mainly by air (to Hongkong) and sea. Since December, 1941, this service with Shanghai and other points in the occupied territory has had to rely on land routes. Kinkwa in Chekiang and Loyang in Honan became the centers where postal matters to and from occupied areas gather and are re-routed to destinations. Usually a longer time is required in transit because the mail has to go through a number of detours.

Mail for foreign countries during the first few years of the war was sent partly by sea and partly by Pan American Airways planes to America and by British Overseas Airways to England and Europe. Hongkong and Rangoon were the collecting centers of such foreign mail until the enemy occupation. Since then international mail has almost entirely consisted of air mail. Except for the U.S.S.R., all air mail for Europe and America has been sent by air from Chungking or Kunming to Calcutta from where connections are made with lines maintained by the British Overseas Airways. For the U.S.S.R. air mail service is maintained by Chinese commercial planes to Alma Ata where connections are made with Soviet planes.

A good army postal service has been maintained, its delivery service going as far as the frontline units. Up to the latter part of 1942 there were about 200 military post offices in the various war areas. On the average some 5,000,000 letters are collected by these military post offices every month and delivered to different destinations while approximately 6,000,000 letters are

distributed and delivered through them monthly. In addition to the letter post, there is also a parcel post service which handles monthly some 9,000 outgoing and 10,000 incoming parcels.

POSTAL TRUCKS

In view of the difficulties involved in transportation during wartime, the Postal Administration has established its own trucking service which has two truck lines—one horizontal and the other vertical—and several branch lines. The vertical postal truck line runs from Paoshan in Yunnan to Paoki in Shensi by way of Kunming, Kweiyang, Chungking and Chengtu. Covering a distance of 3,175 kilometers, it takes approximately 16 days from one end to the other of this route. The horizontal line, which requires about ten days to cover the distance of 1,025 kilometers, starts from Kweiyang and ends at Nanping in Fukien. Parts of this main route are covered by trains of the Kweichow-Kwangsi, Hunan-Kwangsi and Canton-Hankow Railways, and the line passes through cities such as Liuchow, Kweilin, Hengyang, Kukong, Kanhsien and Changting.

The total length of highways which postal trucks regularly traverse is approximately 5,000 kilometers. More than 400 trucks are used on these lines, carrying a total of some 5,000,000 kilograms of postal matter each month. In ton-kilometrage, the monthly average is around 600,000.

REMITTANCES AND SAVINGS

The postal savings service is divided into five main classes—passbook savings, fixed savings, cheque savings, income deposits, and installment deposits. The postal remittance service is classified into domestic and international remittances. In the domestic system it is further divided into ordinary money orders, telegraphic money orders, and agents' postal orders.

POSTAL TARIFF

The existing postal tariff rates came into effect on June 1, 1943. An increase in postage was made in view of the fact that the Postal Administration was losing heavily as a result of increase in the costs of mail transportation.

Since the Chinese postal system was inaugurated in 1896, altogether ten revisions in postal tariff have been made. The years in which revision or increase was effected are: 1899, 1903,

1908, 1910, 1925, 1932, 1940, 1941, 1942 and 1943.

Postage for international mail is fixed in gold francs in accordance with the International Postal Convention. Before the war gold francs were exchanged at par with Chinese national dollars. The exchange rate has been officially revised three times since the war began—

the value of a gold franc was fixed at two Chinese dollars on September 1, 1939, at four Chinese dollars on November 1, 1941 and at six Chinese dollars since November 1, 1942 (in accordance with the official exchange rate fixed by the Central Bank of China). International postal tariff has been revised from time to time in accordance with the changes made in the official exchange rate.

TABLE 15—TARIFF LIST NO. 76
A. DOMESTIC MAIL MATTER

CATEGORY	POSTAGE		REMARKS.
	Local	Domestic	
Ordinary Letters	\$ 0.50	\$ 1.00	per 20 grs. or fraction thereof.
Postcards (single)	0.30	0.50	
„ (double)	0.60	1.00	
Newspapers (Class A)	0.10*	0.10**	*per 100 grs. **per 50 grs.
„ (Class B)	0.10*	0.10**	*per 100 grs. **per 50 grs.
„ (Class C)		0.02	per 100 grs. or fraction thereof.
Books, Printed Matter and Commercial Papers	0.20	0.30	per 100 grs. or fraction thereof. Maximum weight: 2 kilos or 3 kilos for a single volume.
Papers Impressed with Points or with Characters in Relief for the Use of the Blind	0.30	0.50	per kilo Maximum weight 7 kilos.
Trade Circulars	1.00	1.00*	per 50 sheets: *in addition to Printed Matter Fee.
Samples	0.30	0.70	per 100 grs. or fraction thereof. Maximum weight: 500 grs.
Registration Fee			\$2.00 per article.
Registration Exp. Fee			\$3.00 per article.
Ordinary Exp. Fee			\$1.00 per article.
C. O. D. (Correspondence and Parcels):			\$2.00 per article (fixed charge).
Insured Letters			Insurance Fee 10% (Minimum charge \$2.00) Maximum amount of Insurance \$1,000.00.
Insured Boxes			Insurance Fee 10% (Minimum charge \$2.00) in addition to ordinary postage at the rate of \$0.80 per 50 grs. (Minimum postage \$4.00) as well as registration fee. Maximum amount of Insurance \$1,000.00.
Insured Parcels			Insurance Fee 10% (Minimum charge \$2.00); Maximum amount of Insurance \$500-1,000.
AIR MAIL			
Letters, Newspapers, Printed Matter, Commercial Papers, Samples, Small Parcels		1.00	per 10 grs. or fraction thereof (in addition to ordinary Postage)
Postcards (single)		1.00	
„ (double)		2.00	
“Legal Attest” Letters			\$20.00 per 100 characters or fraction thereof.
Acknowledgment of Receipt:			\$2.00 per article.
Tracer or Subsequent Acknowledgment of Receipt			\$4.00 per article.
Poste Restante			\$1.00 per article.
Withdrawal or Change of Address:			\$4.00 per article.
Change of C. O. D. Charges			\$2.70 per article.
Reading of Duplicate Copy of “Legal Attest” Letters			\$10.00 each reading per article.

B—MAIL MATTER FOR ABROAD
POSTAGE

CATEGORY	Union	Hongkong, Macao and Leased Territory of Kwang-chowwan	REMARKS
	\$	\$	
Ordinary Letters	1.50 0.90	0.50 0.50	per 20 grs. or fraction thereof. each successive unit of 20 grs. or fraction thereof.
Postcards (single)	0.90	0.25	
„ (double)	1.80	0.50	
Newspapers (Class A)	0.30	0.30	per 50 grs.
Books, Printed Matter and Commercial Papers	0.30	0.30	per 50 grs.
Papers Impressed with Points or with Characters in Relief for the Use of the Blind	0.18	0.18	per kilo. Maximum weight : 7 kilos.
Samples	0.30	0.30	per 50 grs. (Minimum postage \$0.60 per article).
Registration Fee			\$1.50 per article.
Registration Exp. Fee			\$4.50 per article.
Ordinary Exp. Fee	3.00	3.00*	*to be limited to Macao and the Leased Territory of Kwangchowwan only.
C. O. D. Charges (Correspondence and Parcels) :			\$2.40 per article (fixed charge) and \$0.20 for those addressed to England
Insured Letters			\$3.00 for each 300 Gold Francs or fraction thereof. Maximum amount of Insurance 500 Gold Francs.
Insured Boxes			\$3.00 for each 300 Gold Francs in addition to postage at the rate of \$1.20 per 50 grs. (Minimum postage \$4.80) ; Maximum amount of Insurance 500 Gold Francs.
Acknowledgment of Receipt			\$1.50 per article.
Tracer or Subsequent Acknowledgment of Receipt			\$2.40 per article.
Poste Restante			\$0.50 per article.
Withdrawal or Change of Address :			If effected through telegram, only telegraphic expenses are collected. In case of change of address of insured articles by telegram, telegraphic expenses are collected in addition to the fixed fee of \$3.00. As to the withdrawal of insured articles by telegram, only telegraphic expenses are collected.

District Head Office, Chungking
December 1, 1942.

AIR MAIL FOR ABROAD

With regard to air mail correspondence for Europe and America, the following revised air mail surtax is payable in

addition to ordinary postage (\$1×50 per 20 grams) and registration or express fee, if the articles are despatched by registered or express post.

TABLE 16—AIR MAIL FOR ABROAD

1. U. S. A. and Canada	"By B. O. A. C. to Lagos, via Calcutta, and thence by P. A. A. to destination." \$8.70 per 5 grams.
2. India—Dinjan and Calcutta	"By C. N. A. C." \$2.25 per 5 grams.
Other places	"By C. N. A. C. to Calcutta and by Air in India" \$4.25 per 5 grams.
3. Iran, Iraq, Bahrein Island, Palestine and Syria	"By British Overseas Airways via Calcutta." \$4.25 per 5 grams.
4. U. S. S. R. in Asia— (a) Alma Ata	"By Aeroflot via Alma Ata." \$0.25 per 5 grams.
(b) Other places	"By Aeroflot via Alma Ata." \$1.10 per 5 grams.
5. U. S. S. R. in Europe	"By Aeroflot via Alma Ata." \$1.30 per 5 grams.
6. Europe excepting German and Italian occupied areas	"By B. O. A. C. to Lagos, via Calcutta, and thence by P. A. A. to destination." \$11.70 per 5 grams.
	"By British Overseas Airways up to Durban via Calcutta and onward by surface transport." \$5.10 per 5 grams.
7. Egypt and Sudan	"By British Overseas Airways via Calcutta." \$4.25 per 5 grams.
8. Africa (except Azores Islands)	"By B. O. A. C. via Calcutta." \$5.10 per 5 grams.

District Head Office, Chungking

November 13, 1942

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SUMMARY OF WARTIME COMMUNICATIONS STATISTICS

TABLE 17—RAILWAY KILOMETRAGE IN FREE CHINA

December, 1942

(Source :—Ministry of Communications)

Date and Item		Kilometers	
Before the war (July 7, 1937)		12,051	
During the war	Lines constructed before July 7, 1937, remaining in Chinese hands	1,518	2,725
	Lines constructed after July 7, 1937 ...	1,207	
	Lines under construction		613

TABLE 18—TELEGRAPH AND LONG-DISTANCE TELEPHONE LINES IN FREE CHINA

September, 1942

(Source :—Ministry of Communications)

Date and Item		Kilometers		Total
Before the war (July 7, 1937)	Telephone Lines	53,776		53,776 Km.
During the war	Erected before July 7, 1937, remaining in Chinese hands	29,848	61,018	61,479 Km.
	Erected after July 7, 1937	31,170		
	Under Erection	461		
Before the war (July 7, 1937)	Telegraph Lines	95,322		95,322 Km.
During the war	Erected before July 7, 1937, remaining in Chinese hands	48,697	90,833	91,279 Km.
	Erected after July 7, 1937	42,136		
	Under Erection ...	446		

TABLE 19.—NUMBER OF POST OFFICES AND KILOMETRAGE OF POSTAL ROUTES

September, 1942

(Source :—Ministry of Communications)

Date and Item		Quantity	Total
Before the war (July 7, 1937)	Postal Routes	584,816 Km.	584,816 Km.
During the war	Routes established before July 7, 1937	404,803 Km.	602,892 Km.
	Routes established after July 7, 1937	198,089 Km.	
Before the war (July 7, 1937)	Number of Post Offices	72,690	72,690
During the war	Established before July 7, 1937	54,951	71,390
	Established after July 7, 1937	16,439	

TABLE 20.—NUMBER OF COMMERCIAL PLANES AND KILOMETRAGE OF AIR LINES IN FREE CHINA

September, 1942

(Source :—Ministry of Communications)

Date and Item		Quantity	Total
Before the war (July 7, 1937)	Commercial Planes	30	30
Before the war (July 7, 1937)	Air Lines	13,826 Km.	13,826 Km.
During the war	Lines established before July 7, 1937, remaining in Free China	940 Km.	10,240 Km.
	Lines established after July 7, 1937	9,300 Km.	

TABLE 21.—TONNAGE OF VESSELS AND KILOMETRAGE OF INLAND WATER ROUTES IN FREE CHINA

September, 1942

(Source :—Ministry of Communications)

Date and Item		QUANTITY		Total
		Steamships	Junks*	
Before the war (July 7, 1937)	Vessels owned	500,000 Tons	665,744 Tons	1,165,744 Tons
During the war	Vessels remaining in Free China	105,838 Tons	316,986 Tons	481,420 Tons
	Vessels sold to foreign interest or in occupied areas	221,009** Tons	287,696** Tons	
	Vessels used for defenses	118,767** Tons	...	
	Vessels damaged	54,386** Tons	61,062** Tons	
	Vessels newly built	34,228 Tons	24,368 Tons	
Before the war (July 7, 1937)	Inland water routes	17,946 Km.	38,580 Km.	56,526 Km.
During the war	Routes established before July 7, 1937, remaining in Free China	7,741 Km.	22,000 Km.	34,518 Km.
	Routes established after July 7, 1937	2,492 Km.	2,285 Km.	
	Projected	1,302 Km.	...	1,302 Km.

*Only Junks over 20 tons and registered with the Ministry of Communications are included.

**Not included in the total figure of 481,420 tons.

CHAPTER VII

COURTS AND PRISONS

COURTS

The Chinese judicial system has three grades of courts and allows three trials. The three grades of courts are the district court, the high court, and the Supreme Court. Except criminal cases, and cases involving the engineering of domestic disturbance, provocation of external dangers detrimental to the nation's relations with other countries, the first trials of which should be held by the high court, the first trials of all other cases are held by the district court, the *hsien* judicial section or the *hsien* governments, and their second trials by the high court or its branches. In minor cases only two trials are allowed.

According to the *Organic Law of Chinese Courts*, there should be a court in each *hsien* and municipality, several small *hsien* may share one court, while an unusually large *hsien* may have one court and a number of branch courts. There have been, however, both personnel and financial difficulties.

Before July, 1937, there were 417 courts of different grades in the various provinces, excluding Liaoning, Kirin, Heilungkiang and Jehol. Most of them were located in the south-eastern parts of the country. Since 1938, 85 new courts have been established, the majority being in the interior provinces. At the end of 1942, there were 24 high courts, 97 branch high courts of which 67 were functioning, and 395 district courts of which 282 were functioning.

With the spread of hostilities, many courts in the occupied areas could not function at their original seats, thus causing great inconvenience to litigants. As a remedy, the circuit court system was instituted to handle second trials, the first trials being left to district courts. In case of *hsien* under enemy occupation, first trials are held by courts in neighboring *hsien*. In December, 1938, and August, 1939, the Judicial Yuan promulgated two sets of regulations governing the holding of circuit courts in the war areas and governing the legal procedure, which was greatly simplified. Since then circuit courts have been sitting in Chekiang, Kwangtung, Hupeh, Kiangsu, Anhwei, Kiangsi, Honan, Shansi and Shantung provinces.

Each of these provinces is divided into a number of districts, and one or more judges are assigned to handle appeal cases, using simplified procedure. These judges are to maintain the closest contact with military and administrative authorities in the war zones.

In addition, the Ministry of Justice has taken the following steps: For first trials, if the government of the *hsien* where there was formerly a district court cannot hold trials and make prosecutions, these functions may be temporarily taken over by the government of a neighboring *hsien*. For second trials, if a high court or its branches cannot function, the Ministry of Justice may assign one of the district courts in that area to take over these functions temporarily. In the absence of any district court, the Ministry of Justice may designate the high court, or the branch high court, or the district court, in a neighboring area to take over these functions temporarily. If there are no courts at all in the neighboring area, the Ministry of Justice may designate judicial sections or *hsien* governments at the seat of the provincial government or at the seat of the office of the special administrative inspector to hold the second trials. The second trials of cases must be handled by district courts, *hsien* judicial sections or *hsien* governments in neighboring *hsien* and not by the same tribunals which hold the first trials. If none of the courts in a province can function the Ministry of Justice may designate the high court or its branches in a neighboring province to handle appeal cases.

For sometime it had been felt that the unsatisfactory arrangements of having magistrates perform judicial functions in a concurrent capacity should be brought to a close. As a transitory measure, *hsien* judicial sections were created with the judges holding trials and *hsien* magistrates serving concurrently as prosecutors. In April, 1936, regulations governing the establishment of *hsien* judicial sections were promulgated. A three-year program was adopted, which planned to establish judicial sections from July, 1936, to December, 1937, in all *hsien* that had no regular courts, and from January, 1938, to June, 1939,

to convert all *hsien* judicial sections into district courts. Before the war began, judicial sections had been established in 711 *hsien* to relieve magistrates of their concurrent judicial functions. Since 1937, judicial sections have been set up in 151 more *hsien* bringing the total number of *hsien* judicial sections up to 862. At the end of 1942, no magistrates in Szechwan, Kweichow, Kwangsi, Kansu, Ningsia, Chekiang, Kiangsi, Hunan, Hupeh, Fukien, Shantung and Suiyuan were concurrently judges. Whether regular courts will be established in the other 562 *hsien* depends on actual need and the number of personnel and financial resources available. Conceivably the procedure followed in the *hsien* judicial sections does not measure up to the standard in regular courts. As a precautionary measure before decisions by *hsien* judicial sections in serious criminal cases are enforced, they must be reviewed and approved by the high court or branch high court in that area. If the latter should find any errors it may return the case to the *hsien* judicial section for re-trial. Whenever necessary, it may take over the case or assign one of its own judges to preside at the re-trial in the *hsien* judicial section.

According to the extant *Code of Criminal Procedure* death sentences have to be reviewed by the Ministry of Justice before they can be enforced. Whenever necessary, the Ministry may order the Prosecuting Department to make extraordinary appeals or instruct it to conduct private investigations of cases. Only when the Ministry is absolutely sure of the correctness of the sentences, will it order their execution, which should take place three days after the arrival of its order. Cases involving life imprisonment, prison terms over five years, cases of deferred punishment, and cases involving foreign nationals, also have to be reviewed before the sentences are enforced. In 1939 the following number of criminal cases were thus reviewed:

Death penalty	71
Life imprisonment	245
Imprisonment over 5 years	1,048
Imprisonment below 5 years	11,182
Deferred punishment	6,694
Not guilty verdicts	3,054
Criminal cases involving foreign nationals	542
Public functionaries guilty of law breaches	143
Other cases	707

TOTAL 23,686

According to the extant *Code of Civil Procedure*, verdicts in civil cases of the following nature also have to be reviewed by the Ministry of Justice before they are enforced:

- (1) Cases involving property rights over \$2,000,
- (2) Cases involving personnel,
- (3) Cases involving marriage and inheritance,
- (4) Cases involving legal persons and public organizations,
- (5) Civil cases involving foreign nationals.

In 1939 the following number of civil cases were thus reviewed:

Property rights	821
Personnel	1,157
Marriage	842
Inheritance	103
Legal persons and public organizations	149
Cases involving foreign nationals	1,030

TOTAL 4,102

NUMBER OF COURTS IN VARIOUS PROVINCES (December, 1942)

Province	High Courts	BRANCH HIGH COURTS		DISTRICT COURTS	
		Before the War	Now Existing	Before the War	Now Existing
Anhwei	1	4	3	11	5
Chahar	1			2	
Chekiang	1	4	4	32	23
Chinghai	1			5	5
Fukien	1	3	3	7	6
Honan	1	5	3	12	6
Hopei	1	8		12	
Hunan	1	5	5	9	9
Hupeh	1	6	5	24	15
Kansu	1	5	5	14	14
Kiangsi	1	4	4	14	12
Kiangsu	1	5		18	1
Kwangsi	1	8	8	18	18
Kwangtung	1	8	7	81	67
Kweichow	1	5	5	16	16
Ningsia	1			4	4
Shansi	1	5	1	7	1
Shangtung	1	7		29	4
Shensi	1	3	3	14	14
Sikang	1			5	5
Sinkiang	1			3	3
Suiyuan	1	1		3	
Szechwan	1	6	6	47	47
Yunnan	1	5	5	8	7
TOTAL	24	97	67	395	282

CIVIL AND CRIMINAL CASES HANDLED BY COURTS OF DIFFERENT GRADES IN THE VARIOUS PROVINCES

(July, 1941—June, 1942)

PROVINCE	CIVIL CASES		CRIMINAL CASES	
	1st Trial	2nd Trial	1st Trial	2nd Trial
Anhwei	2,213	798	2,135	860
Chekiang	15,581	4,128	10,818	3,734
Chinghai	1,131	112	203	42
Fukien	2,927	2,116	1,954	1,668
Honan	4,843	5,065	4,317	2,823
Hunan	9,035	5,026	7,804	4,188
Hupeh	4,517	1,241	3,704	1,205
Kansu	9,416	3,848	4,838	2,669
Kiangsi	3,682	2,106	3,428	2,183
Kiangsu	2,106	428	10,644	505
Kwangsi	9,470	5,991	8,780	5,757
Kwangtung	22,935	7,514	16,918	3,809
Kweichow	20,355	6,227	5,995	2,061
Ningsia	890	138	431	70
Shansi	106	38	35	35
Shensi	8,134	3,201	5,415	1,722
Sikang	4,370	676	691	108
Szechwan	73,348	17,265	31,510	7,291
Suiyuan	46	24
Yunnan	3,059	2,817	1,179	544
TOTAL	198,118	68,781	120,799	41,298

1939	132,874	45,838	135,837	35,521
1940	135,017	45,578	123,037	34,083
1941	186,925	65,995	139,494	40,875

THE SUPREME COURT

The Supreme Court is the highest tribunal of the land. In July, 1937, it had five civil courts and 11 criminal courts. Following the removal of the National Government to Chungking, the number of courts in the Supreme Court was reduced to eight, one in Shanghai, and the rest—three civil courts and four criminal courts—in Chungking. In 1938, an additional criminal court was

established. In 1940 with a view to clearing up unsettled cases, two provisional criminal courts were added in the Supreme Court but were subsequently abolished. In 1941 a civil court was added, thus raising the total number of courts in the Supreme Court to 10. In each court there are five judges, one of whom is the presiding judge. In rendering verdicts, the five judges must confer together.

**CIVIL CASES HANDLED BY THE SUPREME COURT
(1938—1941)**

YEAR		Appeals	Appeals for Setting Aside Rulings	Applications	
1938	{ Old Cases	4,710	285	71	5,066
	{ New Cases	3,675	1,762	626	6,063
	{ Decided	5,772	1,903	660	8,335
	{ Not Decided	2,613	144	37	2,794
1939	{ Old Cases	2,613	144	37	2,794
	{ New Cases	2,317	1,040	654	4,011
	{ Decided	3,239	1,055	602	4,896
	{ Not Decided	1,691	129	89	1,909
1940	{ Old Cases	1,691	129	89	1,909
	{ New Cases	2,912	960	450	4,322
	{ Decided	2,737	916	460	4,113
	{ Not Decided	1,866	173	79	2,118
1941	{ Old Cases	1,866	175	79	2,118
	{ New Cases	5,342	1,085	497	6,924
	{ Decided	3,061	953	440	4,454
	{ Not Decided	4,147	305	136	4,588

**CIVIL CASES HANDLED BY THE SUPREME COURT
(January-August, 1942)**

DATE	Number of Cases Accepted	NUMBER OF CASES DECIDED			
		Appeals	Appeals for Setting Aside Rulings	Applications	Total
1942 :					
January	578	192	47	17	256
February	663	233	73	29	335
March	692	285	29	14	328
April	889	300	41	18	359
May	900	425	89	25	539
June	921	368	103	27	498
July	593	247	139	42	428
August	551	261	118	37	416
TOTAL	5,787	3,484	639	209	3,159

**CRIMINAL CASES HANDLED BY THE SUPREME COURT
(1938—1941)**

YEAR		Appeals	Appeals Extra-ordinary	Appeals for Setting Aside Rulings	Applications	Demand for Civil Relief	Others	TOTAL
1938	{ Old Cases	7,025	65	140	53		32	7,315
	{ New Cases	4,436	67	300	165	800	123	5,891
	{ Decided	5,807	100	364	166	798	122	7,357
	{ Not Decided	5,654	32	76	52	2	33	5,849
1939	{ Old Cases	5,654	32	76	32	2	33	5,849
	{ New Cases	2,977	36	222	290	772	437	4,754
	{ Decided	4,800	62	248	314	772	470	6,666
	{ Not Decided	3,831	26	50	28	2		3,937
1940	{ Old Cases	3,831	26	50	28	2		3,937
	{ New Cases	2,905	65	169	140	647	605	4,531
	{ Decided	4,289	78	176	144	648	603	5,938
	{ Not Decided	2,447	13	43	24	1	2	2,530
1941	{ Old Cases	2,447	13	43	24	1	2	2,530
	{ New Cases	3,193	73	206	185	668	541	4,866
	{ Decided	4,132	69	211	183	669	510	5,774
	{ Not Decided	1,508	17	38	26		33	1,622

**CRIMINAL CASES HANDLED BY THE SUPREME COURT
(January, 1942—August, 1942)**

Date	Number of Cases Accepted	NUMBER OF CASES DECIDED						
		Appeals	Appeals Extra-ordinary	Appeals for Setting Aside Rulings	Applica-tions	Demand for Civil Relief	Others	Total
1942 :								
January	338	269	5	6	10	52	24	366
February	359	242	5	13	5	46	15	326
March	360	316	6	17	24	47	25	435
April	389	321	7	25	25	62	23	463
May	410	284	2	21	24	45	24	400
June	365	229	5	21	29	56	14	354
July	402	147		11	12	32	11	213
August	213	147	2	12	4	40	3	208
TOTAL	2,836	1,955	32	126	133	380	139	4,373

THE ADMINISTRATIVE COURT

The Administrative Court is composed of two courts, the first and the second. Five judges attend each court, one of whom is the presiding judge. In holding trials and rendering verdicts, the five judges must confer together.

The existing *Administrative Court Procedural Law*, promulgated by the National Government in 1937, stipulates as follows: Those who have suffered losses through breaches of law by either Central or local government organs, may, in accordance with the Law of Appeals, repeat their appeals for redress, if they are not satisfied with the decisions of the organs concerned; or if they receive no decisions two months after their second appeals, they may bring suits against the government organs

in question in the Administrative Court, and accompany their suits with appeals for compensation for losses sustained.

From July, 1937 to the end of 1941, the Administrative Court handled 1,252 old and new cases, and reached decisions on 455 of them, leaving a balance of 797 cases still pending. The majority of the cases concerned disputes over taxation and trade marks. The next largest category of cases concerned land disputes. The decisions of the Administrative Court are final and no appeals to a higher court or appeal for setting aside rulings can be made. If the complainants have new evidence, they may ask for retrials. The decisions of the Administrative Court are reported to the Judicial Yuan which presents them to the National Government for enforcement.

CASES HANDLED BY THE ADMINISTRATIVE COURT (July 1937—August 1942)

DATE.	Number of Cases Accepted (both old and new)	Number of Cases Decided	Number of Cases Undecided
July, 1937—June, 1938	307	104	203
July—December, 1938	234	73	161
January—December, 1939	229	101	128
January—December, 1940	219	58	161
January—December, 1941	263	119	144
	Number of New Cases Accepted	Number of Cases Decided	
1942 :			
January	2	6	
February	4	11	
March	4	14	
April	6	15	
May	10	15	
June	2	6	
July	4	6	
August	4	6	

THE DISCIPLINARY PUNISHMENT COMMISSION

The Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries has two divisions, one central and the other local, both subject to the jurisdiction of the Judicial Yuan. The Central Commission punishes administrative officials throughout the country of and above the recommended rank, and public functionaries in the various Central Government organs above the delegated rank. The local commission, of which each province has one, punishes local government officials of and below the delegated rank. From January, 1937, to December, 1941, the Central Commission received 456 new cases, plus over 200 old cases left over from the previous years, and reached decisions on 608 of them. Not counting cases involving criminal offenses which were transferred to the regular court or military tribunal, the Commission decided to remove 281 from their posts, demote 135, fine 115, give demerits to 74 and admonish 24. Ninety other persons either received no punishment or were acquitted by the Commission. Among those punished 32 were of the selected rank, 340 of the recommended rank, 347 of the delegated rank. The causes of their punishment were as follows: 347 for breaches of law; 196 for derelictions in duty; 176 for failures in duty. The Commission decided more cases in 1938 than in any other single year because of a large number left over from the previous year.

PRISONS

Beginning in 1928 the National Government adopted a program of prison reform. It promulgated detailed regulations concerning management, training, work and sanitation in prisons. New prisons were erected, and old prisons improved in Kiangsu and Shantung. Later, work began under the direct control of the Judicial Yuan on six prisons in Shanghai and five other cities. The war, however, interfered with the program. Prisons in several provinces were abandoned and construction on others in the exposed areas was suspended. In order to accommodate convicts evacuated from the war zones, temporary prisons were established in Kwangtung, Kiangsi, Chekiang, Fukien, and Anhwei. At the end of 1942 there were 78 prisons, 15 branch prisons and 4 juvenile prisons. About one-fifth of them were added after the war began. In *hsien* having

no new prisons, convicts are serving out their terms in makeshift prisons attached to the *hsien* jails. Separate quarters are provided for military convicts in numerous *hsien* in Szechwan and Kwangtung to relieve congestion in the *hsien* prisons.

In August, 1937, the National Military Council promulgated a set of regulations governing the release of convicts for military service. These regulations were later revised in September, 1940. Life convicts having served more than five years, and convicts sentenced to more than ten years of imprisonment and having served one-fifth of their term, come within the scope of these regulations. Their days of service in the armed forces are counted off their term of imprisonment. Furthermore, in case of special merit or disablement from battle wounds, their sentences are rescinded. Up to February, 1942, altogether 32,537 convicts had been released for military service. A large number of them, through bravery in action, have won pardon from the National Government. A few have even become commanders of battalions and regiments through accumulation of merit in active service.

In September, 1937, following the outbreak of major hostilities in Shanghai, steps were taken to evacuate dangerous convicts from prisons in the exposed areas to prisons further in the rear, while convicts sentenced for less serious crimes were either paroled, bailed out or temporarily released, depending partly on the military situation and partly on individual cases.

NUMBER OF CONVICTS RELEASED FOR MILITARY SERVICE

(January, 1938—February, 1942)

Province	Military Convicts	Criminal Convicts	Total
Anhwei	84	617	701
Chekiang	213	550	763
Chinghai		2	2
Fukien	29	151	180
Honan	1,448	3,607	5,055
Hunan	198	874	1,072
Hupei	216	1,567	1,783
Kansu	43	525	568
Kiangsi	385	2,297	2,681
Kiangsu	313	2,960	3,273
Kwangsi	428	3,058	3,486
Kwangtung	426	3,945	4,371
Kweichow	108	507	615
Shensi	413	1,847	2,260
Sikang	14	32	46
Szechwan	654	4,989	5,643
Yunnan	19	18	37
Grand Total	4,991	27,546	32,537

**NUMBER OF PRISONERS DISPOSED OF BECAUSE OF THE WAR
(January, 1938—February, 1942)**

PROVINCE	Paroled	Bailed for Labor Service	Released According to Emergency Regulations	Released for Military Service	Total
Anhwei	14	19	130	701	864
Chekiang	64	45	453	763	1,325
Chinghai	4	5	9	2	20
Fukien	175	146	652	180	1,153
Honan	213	1,213	5,835	5,055	12,316
Hunan	11	49	742	1,072	1,874
Hupeh	15	34	863	1,783	2,695
Kansu	47	78	349	568	1,042
Kiangsi	107	124	2,475	2,682	5,388
Kiangsu	753	1,561	2,956	3,273	8,543
Kwangsi	498	1,863	3,765	3,486	9,612
Kwangtung	164	929	4,645	4,371	10,109
Kweichow	72	214	524	615	1,425
Shensi	364	918	2,130	2,260	5,672
Sikang	6	11	12	46	75
Suiyuan	21	42	150		213
Szechwan	418	985	2,718	5,643	9,764
Ningsia	36	75	282		393
Yunnan	103	218	266	37	624
GRAND TOTAL	3,085	8,529	28,956	32,537	73,107

MODEL PRISONS

Before the war there were two model prisons in China. The First Prison of Peiping, founded in the early years of the Republic, was big enough for 500 people. Its capacity was doubled in 1920. Foreign nationals in Peiping and Tientsin (without consular jurisdiction rights) used to serve out their sentences in this prison. Attached to the prison were a hospital, a bath-house, a reformatory, a library, and athletic grounds. Christian priests were admitted to propagate the gospel among the convicts. There were also several workshops teaching the inmates such useful trades as printing, shoemaking, tailoring, carpentry and cloth-weaving. Since the fall of Peiping in July, 1937, there has been no news about this prison.

Another model prison was the Second National Prison at Peisinchin in the western suburbs of Shanghai. Under the direct control of the Ministry of Justice, this prison was begun in 1935 and work on the first unit was completed the following year with accommodation for 2,000 people. Apart from giving

the convicts the rudiments of education and teaching them useful trades, the prison made provisions for the progressive betterment in the treatment of convicts, depending on the degrees of their penitence as shown by their behavior while serving out their terms. The Ministry of Justice secured the services of a number of psychologists, sociologists and educators to work in the prison. Once every six months the records of all convicts were reviewed to see if they had made any progress and changes in their treatment were made accordingly. In many respects, the Second National Prison was more advanced than the First Prison in Peiping. Unfortunately, the buildings were destroyed during the hostilities in Shanghai in August-November, 1937.

JUDICIAL OFFICIALS

The Judicial Officials' Training Institute aims at instilling Kuomintang principles in the trainees. The period of training varies from two months to one year. Particular emphasis is laid on fostering the trainees' courage and spirit of

service in face of dangers and difficulties, and on military and academic subjects. Eight classes of judicial workers are called to attend the institute by turn:

- (1) Those who have passed the high examination for judicial officials;
- (2) Those who have passed the extraordinary high examination for judicial officials;
- (3) Those who have passed the extraordinary examination for judicial officials;
- (4) Former workers in the central and local Party organs who have passed the judicial officials' examination held specially for their benefit;
- (5) Workers in central Party organs who have been examined and chosen by the central authorities;
- (6) Active judicial officials;
- (7) Assistant judges, court clerks, and jail wardens; and
- (8) Those who have passed the entrance examination of the Judicial Officials' Training Institute.

By the end of 1941, altogether 1,393 judicial officials had been trained. About one-sixth of them were trained after the outbreak of the war in 1937. As the majority of the trainees are graduates of Chinese or foreign universities, or of law colleges, their standard was uniformly high.

Chinese judges are appointed from among successful candidates in government examinations for judicial officials. The first examination for judicial officials under the National Government took place in 1926, when 50 were chosen. In 1929, 184 were admitted into the Judicial Officials' Training Institute. In 1932, 132 were chosen in the examination for judicial officials. In 1935, 126 were chosen in the examination held for Party officials interested in judicial work. The same year, 60 were chosen through the high examination, and in 1936, 33 more were chosen through the extraordinary high examination. Since the war began, the following have been chosen in examinations for judicial officials: 41 in the special examination for Szechwan, Yunnan, and Kweichow in 1937; 47 in the high examination in 1939; 22 in the high examination in 1940; 23 in the high examination in 1941, and 205 in the special examination for judicial officials held in the same

year. In 13 examinations 973 judicial officials were chosen. In 1941, 67 court clerks and 18 jail wardens were chosen in special examinations held for these two types of officials. In the 1942 high examinations, 12 judicial officials and 2 judicial physicians were chosen. In the first of two ordinary examinations in 1942, 13 court clerks and 6 prison wardens were chosen.

Both in 1940 and 1941, the Ministry of Justice issued notices to former judicial officials, court clerks, and jail wardens who desire to return to the judicial service, to college professors, to judicial administrators and to lawyers who desire to become judges, asking them to submit their diplomas for examination. As a result, 120 were chosen and assigned to posts.

Following the abolition of consular jurisdiction in China, there will be a demand for judicial officials qualified to handle cases involving foreign nationals. Hence, high courts in the various provinces have been instructed to select from among judicial officials in their own institutions, and from among lawyers registered with them, those who are well versed in foreign languages, so that their services may be secured for the courts.

As Dr. Hsieh Kwan-sheng, Minister of Justice, has said following the abolition of consular jurisdiction, foreigners involved in cases in China will be tried by Chinese courts in accordance with Chinese laws and regulations. To facilitate supervision, foreigners to be imprisoned or detained will go to prisons designated by the Ministry of Justice or other suitable places.

In recent years a sharp decline has been witnessed in the number of students taking up the study of law in universities and colleges. This has largely been due to the wartime emphasis on practical sciences. In 1941 the Ministry of Justice suggested to the Ministry of Education that restrictions on the opening of law colleges in Chinese universities be lifted. Meanwhile it arranged with the Tahsia University in Kweiyang to provide a short course for the training of youths to become court clerks and jail wardens. There has also been a shortage of qualified judicial physicians, especially since the suspension of the Judicial Physicians' Training Institute in 1937. As a remedy, the Ministry of Justice is negotiating with the Ministry of Education for the opening of short courses for judicial physicians in Chinese universities which have medical colleges.

PENSION FOR JUDGES

According to regulations promulgated on November 18, 1940 (the date of enforcement has not yet been announced) Chinese judges above 60 years of age

who retire either of their own accord or are asked to retire because of health reasons, are entitled to pension, the scale of which is as follows:

LENGTH OF SERVICE

Above 6 years but below 9 years
Above 9 years but below 12 years
Above 12 years but below 15 years
Above 15 years

AMOUNT OF PENSION

Aggregate of four months' salary
Aggregate of eight months' salary
One year's salary
Either a life pension paid in annual instalments each amounting to one-third of a year's salary, or a lump sum amounting to 18 months' salary.

Judges belonging to any of the following categories are disqualified from receiving pensions: 1. Those who betray the Republic of China and for whose arrest the Government has issued orders; 2. Those who have lost their Chinese nationality; 3. Those who have been deprived of their civil rights; 4. Those who have taken up posts with remuneration; 5. Those who are practising either as lawyers or as accountants.

JUDICIAL EXPENDITURES

At the beginning of the Republic, judicial expenditures used to form part of the national budget. But during the subsequent years of internal strife, the funds were often meddled with by the warlords. In 1928, the National Government decided that judicial expenditures were to come from the local revenues. This arrangement, however, did not work out smoothly. The National Judicial Conference held in 1935 adopted two transitional measures: First, before

they were taken up by the National Treasury, the various provinces should remain charged with the duty of meeting judicial expenditures in their jurisdiction; second, the National Treasury should designate portions of the income tax, inheritance tax and other definite sources of revenue to meet judicial expenditures throughout the country.

Early in 1940, upon instruction from the Supreme National Defense Council, the Ministries of Justice and Finance came to the following agreement: Beginning from 1940 the expenditures for courts and modern prisons in Szechwan, Yunnan, Kweichow, Kwangsi, Shensi, Kansu, Sikang, Ningsia, and Chinghai were to become part of the national budget and to be met by the Central Government. In 1941, judicial expenditures in all other provinces were similarly incorporated in the national budget for the year. Judicial expenditures in 1940, 1941, 1942 and 1943, are as follows:

YEAR	Ordinary	Extraordinary	Special	Total
1940	6,760,984	419,000		\$ 6,779,984
1941	34,211,669	5,509,528		39,721,197
1942	74,528,380	6,740,576	100,000	81,368,956
1943	92,416,667	7,237,104	7,600,000	107,253,771

PUBLIC NOTARY SYSTEM

The public notary system was instituted first in the Nanking district court in April, 1935. Before July, 1937, it was extended to 27 other courts. By the end of 1941 public notary offices had been set up in 104 more courts. In 1942 the Judicial Yuan started on a program to establish a public notary office in all district courts in China.

An experimental district court was established in Pishan near Chungking in 1942, using a simplified procedure

in the trial of cases. Learned and experienced judges were assigned to Pishan. Should the results of the experiment so warrant, the practice might be extended to other parts of the country.

The system of court-assigned attorneys to defend poor defendants facing criminal charges involving more than five years of imprisonment was started in the Chungking district court in July, 1940. In 1941, the system was extended to Chengtu and Kweilin. The attorneys thus assigned receive their fees from the Government.

LIST OF EXISTING CIVIL AND CRIMINAL LAWS

Civil Laws

NAME OF LAW	Organ of Promulgation	Date of Promulgation	Date of Enforcement	REMARKS
CIVIL CODE OF THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA				
General Provisions	Nat'l. Gov't.	May 23, 1929	Oct. 10, 1929	
Obligations	ditto.	Nov. 22, 1929	May 5, 1930	
Rights Over Things	ditto.	Nov. 30, 1929	May 5, 1930	
Family	ditto.	Dec. 26, 1930	May 5, 1931	
Succession	ditto.	Dec. 26, 1930	May 5, 1931	
Law for the Application of "General Provisions"	ditto.	Sept. 24, 1929	Oct. 10, 1929	
Law for the Application of "Obligations"	ditto.	Feb. 10, 1930	May 5, 1930	
Law for the Application of "Rights Over Things"	ditto.	Feb. 10, 1930	May 5, 1930	
Law for the Application of "Family"	ditto.	Jan. 24, 1931	May 5, 1931	
Law for the Application of "Succession"	ditto.	Jan. 20, 1931	May 5, 1931	
Maritime Law	ditto.	Feb. 30, 1929	Jan. 1, 1931	
Law for the Application of the Maritime Law	ditto.	Nov. 25, 1930	Jan. 1, 1931	
Law of Negotiable Instruments	ditto.	Oct. 30, 1929	Oct. 30, 1929	
Law for the Application of the Law of Negotiable Instruments	ditto.	July 1, 1930	July 1, 1930	
Company Law	ditto.	Dec. 26, 1929	July 1, 1931	
Law for the Application of the Company Law	ditto.	Feb. 21, 1931	July 1, 1931	
Insurance Law	ditto.	Dec. 30, 1929	Not enforced	Revised Jan. 11, 1937
Regulations Governing the Registration of Legal Persons	Ministry of Justice	Dec. 2, 1929	Dec. 2, 1929	
Regulations Governing the Registration of Companies	ditto.	June 30, 1931	July 1, 1931	
Regulations Governing the Registration of Immovables	Peking Gov't.	May 21, 1922		Adopted by Nat'l. Gov't. Aug. 12, 1927
Rules for the Application of Regulations Governing the Registration of Immovables	ditto.	Aug. 24, 1922		
Regulations Governing the Liquidation of Mortgages on Immovables	Ministry of Justice, Peking Gov't.	Oct. 6, 1915		Partly adopted by the Nat'l. Gov't.
Land Law	Nat'l. Gov't.	June 30, 1930	March 1, 1936	
Law for the Application of the Land Law	ditto.	April 5, 1935	March 1, 1936	
Law of Forestry	ditto.	Sept. 15, 1932	March 12, 1935	
Regulations Governing the Application of the Law of Forestry	Ministry of Industry	Feb. 4, 1935	March 12, 1935	
Law of Fishery	Nat'l. Gov't.	Aug. 5, 1932	Aug. 5, 1932	
Revised Regulations Governing the Application of the Law of Fishery	Ministry of Industry	Nov. 1, 1932	Nov. 1, 1932	
Revised Mining Law	Nat'l. Gov't.	Jan. 23, 1932	Dec. 1, 1930	
Regulations Governing the Application of the Mining Law	Ministry of Agriculture and Mining	Oct. 25, 1930	Dec. 1, 1930	

LIST OF EXISTING CIVIL AND CRIMINAL LAWS—*Contd.*

Civil Laws

NAME OF LAW	Organ of Promulgation	Date of Promulgation	Date of Enforcement	REMARKS
Law of Copyright	Nat'l. Gov't.	May 14, 1928	May 14, 1928	
Regulations Governing the Application of the Law of Copyright	ditto.	May 14, 1928	May 14, 1928	
Law of Merchants	Peking Gov't.	March 2, 1914	Sept. 1, 1914	Only parts not covered by the "Obligations" chapter of the Civil Code are still valid
Regulations Governing the Application of the Law of Merchants	ditto.	July 19, 1914	Sept. 1, 1914	
Business Registration Law	Nat'l. Gov't.	June 28, 1937	June 28, 1937	
Revised Law of Trade Marks	ditto.	Nov. 23, 1935	Jan. 1, 1931	The present 37th article was added 19, Oct. 1930
Regulations Governing the Application of the Law of Trade Marks	Ministry of Industry	Dec. 30, 1930	Jan. 1, 1931	Its 37th article was revised Sept. 3, 1932
Banking Law	Nat'l. Gov't.	March 28, 1931	Not enforced	
Savings Bank Law	ditto.	July 4, 1933	July 4, 1932	
Revised Law of Stock Exchange	ditto.	April 27, 1935	April 27, 1935	
Regulations Governing the Application of the Law of Stock Exchange	Ministry of Industry and Labor	March 1, 1930	June 1, 1930	
Law of Insurance Business	Nat'l. Gov't.	July 5, 1935	Not enforced	
Regulations Governing the Application of the Law of the Insurance Business	ditto.	July 11, 1932	Not enforced	
Law of Simplified Life Insurance	ditto.	May 10, 1935	Dec. 1, 1935	Its 16th and 22nd articles were revised Oct. 19, 1935
Rules of Simplified Life Insurance	Executive Yuan	Aug. 10, 1935	Dec. 1, 1935	
Ship Registration Law	Nat'l. Gov't.	Dec. 5, 1930	July 1, 1931	
Code of Civil Procedure	ditto.	Feb. 1, 1935	July 1, 1935	Its 463rd article was revised June 26, 1942
Law for the Application of the Code of Civil Procedure	ditto.	May 10, 1935	July 1, 1935	
Bankruptcy Law	ditto.	July 17, 1935	Oct. 1, 1935	Its 27th article was revised May 1, 1937
Law for the Application of the Bankruptcy Law	ditto.	July 18, 1935	Oct. 1, 1935	
Sinking Fund Law	ditto.	Jan. 7, 1937	July 1, 1937	
Regulations Governing the Application of the Sinking Fund Law	Ministry of Justice	June 5, 1937	July 1, 1937	
Provisional Regulations Governing the Public Notary System	Judicial Yuan	July 30, 1935	April 1, 1936	Revised Feb. 10, 1942
Law of Compulsory Enforcement	Nat'l. Gov't.	Jan. 19, 1940	Jan. 19, 1940	
Custody Regulations	ditto.	Aug. 12, 1940	Aug. 12, 1940	
Regulations Governing Delivery of Litigation Documents by the Post Office	Ministries of Communications and of Justice	June 1, 1936	June 1, 1936	
Regulations Supplementary to the Code of Civil Procedure in Wartime	Nat'l. Gov't.	July 1, 1941	July 1, 1941	

LIST OF EXISTING CIVIL AND CRIMINAL LAWS—*Contd.*

Civil Laws

NAME OF LAW	Organ of Promulgation	Date of Promulgation	Date of Enforcement	REMARKS
Provisional Regulations Governing Handling of Civil and Criminal Cases by Circuit Court in War Areas	Judicial Yuan	Aug. 18, 1939	Aug. 18, 1939	
Supplementary Regulations Governing Litigation Before <i>Hsien</i> Judicial Section	Nat'l. Gov't.	June 27, 1936	June 27, 1936	
Law of Litigation Fee in Civil Cases	ditto.	April 8, 1941	April 8, 1941	
Provisional Regulations Governing Fee in Non-Litigation Cases	Ministry of Justice	May 3, 1930	May 3, 1930	
Regulations Governing Fee In Public Notary Service	ditto.	Feb. 14, 1936	April 1, 1936	Revised March 4, 1926
Supplementary Regulations Governing Handling of Civil and Criminal Cases in the Experimental Court	ditto.	April 28, 1942	May 1, 1942	
Regulations Governing the Application of Laws and Regulations	Peking Gov't.	Aug. 5, 1918	Aug. 5, 1918	Adopted by the Nat'l. Gov't. Aug. 12, 1927

Criminal Laws

Criminal Code of The Republic of China	Nat'l. Gov't.	Jan. 1, 1935	July 1, 1935	
Penal Code Governing the Army, Navy and Air Force (Revised)	ditto.	July 4, 1937	July 4, 1937	
Wartime Military Law of the Republic of China	ditto.	April 4, 1942	April 4, 1942	
Military Secrets Protection Law	ditto.	Dec. 17, 1932	April 1, 1933	
Law of Fortress and Fortified Areas (Revised)	ditto.	Sept. 27, 1937	Sept. 27, 1937	
Emergency Law Governing Punishment for Crimes Endangering the Chinese Republic	ditto.	Sept. 4, 1937	Sept. 4, 1937	
Law Governing the Self-Surrender of Communists (Revised)	ditto.	July 25, 1935	July 25, 1935	
Regulations Governing Punishment of Traitors (Revised)	ditto.	Aug. 15, 1938	Aug. 15, 1938	
Regulations Governing the Self-Surrender of Traitors	Executive Yuan	March 9, 1938	March 9, 1938	
Regulations Governing the Disposal of Traitors' Property (Revised)	Nat'l. Gov't.	Nov. 22, 1939	Nov. 23, 1939	
Provisional Regulations Governing the Punishment of Corrupt Officials	ditto.	June 27, 1938	June 27, 1939	
Provisional Regulations Governing the Punishment of Robbers and Bandits (Revised)	ditto.	Aug. 31, 1936	Aug. 31, 1936	
Wartime Regulations Governing the Protection of National Telegraph and Telephone Wires and the Punishment of Robbers and Bandits	Nat'l. Military Council and Executive Yuan	Oct. 18, 1939	Oct. 18, 1939	
Regulations Governing the Punishment of Run-away Policemen	Nat'l. Gov't.	June 28, 1937	June 28, 1937	

LIST OF EXISTING CIVIL AND CRIMINAL LAWS—*Contd.*

Criminal Laws

NAME OF LAW	Organ of Promulgation	Date of Promulgation	Date of Enforcement	REMARKS
Provisional Regulations Governing the Punishment of Violators of Anti-Opium and Anti-Drug Laws	Nat'l. Gov't.	Feb. 19, 1941	Feb. 19, 1941	
Rules for the Eradication of Opium and Drug Evils in Re-occupied Areas	Registered with Supreme National Defense Council	Aug. 15, 1941	Aug. 15, 1941	
Penal Regulations for Obstructors of the Enforcement of the Conscription Law	Nat'l. Gov't.	June 29, 1940	June 29 1940	
Provisional Penal Regulations for Obstructors of National General Mobilization	ditto.	June 29, 1942	Aug. 1 1942	
Provisional Penal Regulations for Violators of Wartime Food Control Regulations	ditto.	May 12, 1941	May 12, 1941	
Provisional Penal Regulations for Offenders Against the National Currency	ditto.	July 15, 1937	July 15, 1937	
Provisional Penal Regulations for Evaders of Customs Duties	ditto.	July 4, 1936	July 4, 1936	
Regulations Governing Acceptance of Cases of Litigation Involving Farms, Mines, Factories and Business Concerns	ditto.	Oct. 6, 1938	Oct. 6, 1938	Articles 29-33 provide punishment
Rules Prohibiting the Hoarding of Daily Necessities	Registered with Supreme National Defense Council	Dec. 5, 1939	Dec. 5, 1939	Articles 9 provides punishment
Rules Prohibiting the Hoarding of Important Daily Necessities in Wartime	Nat'l. Gov't.	Feb. 3, 1941	Feb. 3, 1941	Articles 18, 22, 34 provides punishment
Rules Governing Price Fixing and Outlawing Speculation and Manipulation	Registered with Supreme National Defense Council	Feb. 20, 1939	Feb. 20, 1939	Article 13 provides punishment
Provisional Regulations Banning Adulteration in Cotton (Revised)	Nat'l. Gov't.	Mar. 23, 1936	May 23, 1936	Articles 10 and 11 provide punishment
Law of Military Requisition	ditto.	July 12 1937	July 12, 1937	
Law of National Labor Service	ditto.	July 2, 1937	July 2, 1937	Article 24 provides punishment
Air Defense Law	ditto.	Aug. 19, 1937	Aug. 19, 1937	Articles 9 and 10 provide punishment
Company Law	ditto.	Dec. 26, 1929	July 1, 1931	Articles 231-233 provide punishment
Law of Negotiable Instruments	ditto.	Oct. 30, 1929	Oct. 30, 1929	Article 136 provides punishment
Maritime Law	ditto.	Dec. 30, 1929	Jan. 1, 1931	Section 21 of Article 44, Section 21 of Article 56 and of Article 121, and Section 4 of Article 128 provide punishment
Law of Bankruptcy	ditto.	July 17, 1935	Oct. 1, 1935	Articles 152-159 provide punishment
Banking Law	ditto.	Mar. 23, 1931	Not enforced	Articles 46-48 provide punishment

LIST OF EXISTING CIVIL AND CRIMINAL LAWS—*Contd.*

Criminal Laws

NAME OF LAW	Organ of Promulgation	Date of Promulgation	Date of Enforcement	REMARKS	
<i>Hsien</i> Bank Law	Nat'l. Gov't.	Jan. 20, 1940	Jan. 20, 1940	Articles 23-24 provide punishment	
Savings Bank Law	ditto.	July 4, 1934	July 4, 1934	Article 16 provides punishment	
Law of Stock Exchange (Revised)	ditto.	April 27, 1935	April 27, 1935	Articles 46-55 provide punishment	
Law of Insurance Business	ditto.	July 5, 1935	Not enforced	Articles 74-79 provide punishment	
Factory Law	ditto.	Dec. 30, 1932	Dec. 30, 1932	Articles 68-74 provide punishment	
Law Governing Commercial Guilds	ditto.	Jan. 13, 1938	Nov. 1, 1938	Article 55 provides punishment	
Law Governing Exporters' Guilds	ditto.	Jan. 13, 1938	Nov. 1, 1938	Article 59 provides punishment	
Law Governing Labor Unions	ditto.	July 20, 1933	July 20, 1933	Article 47 provides punishment	
Law Governing Industrial Guilds	ditto.	Jan. 13, 1938	Nov. 1, 1938	Article 55 provides punishment	
Law of Collective Labor Agreement	ditto.	Oct. 26, 1930	Nov. 1, 1932	Article 19 provides punishment	
Law Governing Arbitration of Labor Capital Disputes (Revised)	ditto.	Sept. 27, 1932	Sept. 27, 1932	Article 38 and others following it provide punishment	
Law of Fishery	ditto.	Aug. 5, 1932	Aug. 5, 1932	Article 40 and others following it provide punishment	
Law Governing Fishermen's Associations	ditto.	Aug. 5, 1932	Aug. 5, 1932	Article 26 provides punishment	
Shipping Law	ditto.	Dec. 4, 1930	July 1, 1931	Articles 32-41 provide punishment	
Hunting Law	ditto.	Dec. 28, 1932	April 1, 1937	Article 17 provides punishment	
Law of Forestry	ditto.	Sept. 15, 1932	Mar. 12, 1935	Article 10 and others following it provide punishment	
Mining Law (Revised)	ditto.	Jan. 23, 1932	Dec. 1, 1930	Article 108 provides punishment	
Law of Weights and Measures	ditto.	Feb. 28, 1929	Jan. 1, 1930	Article 19 provides punishment	
Provisional Regulations Governing Salt Monopoly	ditto.	May 26, 1942	Aug. 10, 1942	Article 32 and others following it provide punishment	
Law of Business Tax (Revised)	ditto.	July 2, 1942	July 2, 1942	Article 13 provides punishment	
Income Tax Law	ditto.	Feb. 17, 1943	Feb. 17, 1943	Chapter 5 provides punishment	
Law of Wartime Excessive Profit Tax	ditto.	Feb. 17, 1943	Feb. 17, 1943	Article 11 provides punishment	
Postal Law	ditto.	July 5, 1935	Nov. 1, 1935	Article 36 and others following it provide punishment	
Law of Census (Revised)	ditto.	Dec. 12, 1931	July 1, 1934	Article 130 provides punishment	
Law of Publications	ditto.	Dec. 16, 1930	Dec. 16, 1930	Articles 27-30 provide punishment	
Law of Copyright	ditto.	May 14, 1928	May 14, 1928	Articles 33-39 provide punishment	

LIST OF EXISTING CIVIL AND CRIMINAL LAWS—*Concl'd.*

Criminal Laws

NAME OF LAW	Organ of Promulgation	Date of Promulgation	Date of Enforcement	REMARKS
Code of Criminal Procedure	Nat'l. Gov't.	Jan. 1, 1935	Jan. 1, 1935	
Wartime Supplementary Regulations to the Code of Criminal Procedure	ditto.	July 1, 1941	July 1, 1941	
Supplementary Regulations Governing the Handling of Cases by the <i>Hsien</i> Judicial Section	ditto.	June 27, 1936	June 27, 1936	
Provisional Regulations Governing Retrial of Criminal Cases by the <i>Hsien</i> Judicial Section	ditto.	June 27, 1936	June 27, 1936	
Rules of the Holding of Circuit Courts in Wartime	Judicial Yuan	Dec. 15, 1938	Dec. 15, 1938	
Provisional Regulations Governing Trial of Civil and Criminal Cases by Circuit Courts in War Areas	ditto.	Aug. 8, 1939	Aug. 8, 1939	
Service Regulations of Prosecutors in War Areas	Ministry of Justice	Jan. 25, 1940	Feb. 2, 1940	
Restrictive Rules on Criminal Procedure (Revised)	ditto.	Sept. 25, 1936	July 1, 1935	
Rules of Court Police Duties	Nat'l. Gov't.	Aug. 5, 1936	Aug. 5, 1936	
Criminal Procedure for Army, Navy and Air Force Cases.	ditto.	Mar. 24, 1930	Mar. 24, 1930	
Regulations Relating to Summary Procedure for Army, Navy and Air Force Cases (Revised)	ditto.	Mar. 8, 1943	Oct. 24, 1941	
Provisional Regulations Governing the Handling of Cases of Military Penal Code by High Military Organs	National Military Council	Oct. 24, 1941	Mar. 18, 1936	
Provisional Regulations Governing the Handling of Cases of Military Penal Code by Special Administrative Inspectors and <i>Hsien</i> Magistrates in Various Provinces	ditto.	Mar. 18, 1936	Mar. 18, 1936	
Martial Law	Nat'l. Gov't.	Nov. 29, 1934	Nov. 19, 1934	
Wartime Emergency Law for Maintenance of Peace and Order	ditto.	July 24, 1940	July 24, 1940	
Regulations Governing Things Captured on the Seas	ditto.	Dec. 15, 1932	Dec. 15, 1932	
Rules Governing the Treatment of War Prisoners	National Military Council	Oct. 15, 1937	Oct. 15, 1937	
Regulations Governing Prevention of Recurring Crimes	Ministry of Justice	July 5, 1932	July 5, 1932	
Provisional Regulations Governing Land Reclamation by Convicts	Nat'l. Gov't.	July 10, 1934	July 10, 1934	
Regulations Governing Transfer of Convicts for Military Service in Wartime	ditto.	Sept. 9, 1939	Sept. 9, 1939	

LIST OF HIGH COURTS, BRANCH HIGH COURTS, AND DISTRICT COURTS
(January 1943)

PROVINCE	Court	Location	REMARKS
Szechwan	High Court	Chengtu	
	1st Branch	Chungking	
	2nd Branch	Wanhsien	
	3rd Branch	Luhsien	
	4th Branch	Langchung	
	5th Branch	Mienyang	
	6th Branch	Loshan	
	District Courts	Chengtu	
		Chungking	
		Wanhsien	
		Luhsien	
		Langchung	
		Mienyang	
		Loshan	
		Kiangpei	
		Tzeliutsing	
		Fowling	
		Kiangtsin	
		Yungchuan	
		Hochuan	
		Tzechung	
		Neikiang	
		Ipin	
		Changshou	
		Kienyang	
		Fushun	
		Pishan	
		Tungliang	
		Santai	
		Hokiang	
		Tsungking	
		Fengtu	
		Kwangan	
		Tatsu	
		Penghsien	
		Hsuanhan	
		Suining	
		Kikiang	
		Tahsien	
		Lungchang	
		Jenshou	
		Fengkieh	
		Tungnan	
		Shuihung	
		Suyung	
		Nanpo	
		Mientsu	
		Meishan	
		Kienwei	
		Nanchuan	
		Yungyang	
		Kwangyuan	
		Nanchung	
		Kienko	
Kweichow	High Court	Kweiyang	
	1st Branch	Chenyuan	
	2nd Branch	Kwanling	
	3rd Branch	Tsunyi	
	4th Branch	Tuhshan	
	5th Branch	Pichieh	

LIST OF HIGH COURTS, BRANCH HIGH COURTS, AND DISTRICT COURTS
(January 1943)—*Contd.*

PROVINCE	Court	Location	REMARKS
Kweichow	District Courts	Kweiyang	
		Chenyuan	
		Kwanling	
		Tsunyi	
		Tuhshan	
		Langtai	
		Anshun	
		Pichieh	
		Tating	
		Hsinyi	
		Kiensi	
		Tungtze	
		Panhsien	
		Tungjen	
		Huishui (Tingfan)	
		Tuyun	
Yunnan	High Court	Kunming	
	1st Branch	Tali	
	2nd Branch	Chaotung	
	3rd Branch	Ningerh	
	4th Branch	Tengchung	Suspended
	5th Branch	Wenshan	
	District Courts	Kunming	
		Tengchung	Suspended
		Wenshan	
		Kochiu	Being Organized
		Tsuyung	
		Tali	
Kwangsi		Chaotung	
		Ningerh	
	High Court	Kweilin	
	1st Branch	Nanning	
	2nd Branch	Wuchow	
	3rd Branch	Liuchow	
	4th Branch	Lungchow	
	5th Branch	Yuehlin	
		(Watlam)	
	6th Branch	Ishan	
	7th Branch	Pinglo	
	8th Branch	Poseh	
	District Courts	Kweilin	
		Nanning	
		Wuchow	
		Liukiang	
		Lungtsin	
		Yuehlin	
		(Watlam)	
		Ishan	
		Pinglo	
		Henghsien	
		Kweih sien	
		Kweiping	
		Pingnam	
		Junghsien	
		Pokpak	

**LIST OF HIGH COURTS, BRANCH HIGH COURTS, AND DISTRICT COURTS
(January 1943)—Contd.**

PROVINCE	Court	Location	REMARKS
Kwangsi	District Courts	Huaihsien (Waitsap) Hohsien Poseh Pingyang	
Shensi	High Court 1st Branch 2nd Branch 3rd Branch District Courts	Sian Nancheng Yulin Ankang Sian Nancheng Yulin Ankang Lintung Paoki Chengku Sanyuan Yienyang Weinan Fufeng Fengsiang Shanghsien Pinghsien	
Kansu	High Court 1st Branch 2nd Branch 3rd Branch 4th Branch 5th Branch District Courts	Lanchow Pingliang Tienshui Wuwei Kiuchuan Wutu Lanchow Pingliang Tienshui Wuwei Kiuchuan Wutu Linsia Yungteng Minhsien Tsingning Changyeh Huihsien Lintao Lungsi	
Ningsia	High Court District Courts	Ningsia Holan Chungwei Pinglo Wuchungpao	
Chinghai	High Court District Courts	Sining Sining Lotu Hwangyuan Minho Hualung	

**LIST OF HIGH COURTS, BRANCH HIGH COURTS, AND DISTRICT COURTS
(January 1943)—Contd.**

PROVINCE	Court	Location	REMARKS
Chekiang	District Courts	Linhai	
		Chuhsien	Suspended
		Lishui	
		Kienteh	
		Chuki	Suspended
		Wenlin	
		Tungyang	
		Tuyao	Suspended
		Hwangyen	
		Yungkang	
		Lanchi	Suspended
		Iwu	
		Kiangshan	
		Chenghsien	
		Haining	Suspended
		Kashan	Suspended
		Changhing	Suspended
		Tinghai	Suspended
		Hsiaoshan	Suspended
		Sinchang	
		Ninghai	
		Lungchuan	
		Fenghwa	Suspended
		Juian	
		Pukiang	
		Pingyang	
		Yotsing	
		Tsingtien	
Anhwei	High Court	Lihwang	Originally at Anking
		1st Branch	Originally at Fengyang
		2nd Branch	
		3rd Branch	Suspended
	4th Branch	Wuhu	Suspended but restored in September, 1942
		Fowyang	
	District Courts	Anking	Suspended
		Wuhu	Suspended
		Hofei	Suspended
		Pengpu	Suspended
		Fowyang	
		Sih sien	
		Suancheng	
		Tungcheng	
		Shouhsien	
		Lihwang	Suspended
		Shuning	
Kiangsi	High Court	Hingkw	Originally at Nanchang
		1st Branch	
		2nd Branch	Originally at Kiukiang
		3rd Branch	Originally at Kian
	4th Branch	Taiho	
		Hokou	
		Nanchang	Suspended
		Kanhsien	
		Kiukiang	Suspended
		Hokou	
		Kian	
		Linchwan	
		Fuliang	

LIST OF HIGH COURTS, BRANCH HIGH COURTS, AND DISTRICT COURTS
(January 1943)—Contd.

PROVINCE	Courts	Location	REMARKS
Fukien	2nd Branch	Kienow	
	3rd Branch	Tsinkiang	
	District Courts	Foochow	
		Amoy	Suspended
		Kienow	
		Lungsi	
Kwangtung		Tsinkiang	
		Putien	
		Yungan	
	High Court	Linhsien	Originally at Canton
	1st Branch	Fungshun	Originally at Swatow
	2nd Branch	Pakhoi	Originally at Hoppo
	3rd Branch	Kiungshan	Suspended
	4th Branch	Lokchong	Originally at Fukong
	5th Branch	Lungchun	Originally at Waiyeung
	6th Branch	Yuehnam	Originally at Koyiu
	7th Branch	Mowming	
	8th Branch	Meih sien	
	District Courts	Canton	Suspended
		Tsungfa	
		Samshui	
		Chungshan	Suspended
		Yangkong	
		Yangchun	
		Tungkun	Suspended
		Tsengshing	Suspended
		Paoan	Suspended
		Sunwui	
		Hokshan	
		Shuntak	Suspended
		Toishan	
		Yanping	
		Hoiping	
		Tsingyun	
		Fahsien E	
		Swatow	Suspended
		Chaoyang	
		Wailai	
		Chaoan	
		Jaoping	
		Kityang	
		Puning	
		Fungshun	
		Hoifung	
		Lofung	
		Hoppo	
		Yamhsien	
		Fangcheng	
		Lingshan	
		Hoihong	
		Hsuwen	
		Juiki	
		Kiungshan	Suspended
		Tanhsien	Suspended
		Mencheong	Suspended
		Tsingmai	Suspended
		Kiunglo	Suspended
		Aih sien	Suspended

LIST OF HIGH COURTS, BRANCH HIGH COURTS, AND DISTRICT COURTS
(January 1943)—*Contd.*

PROVINCE	Court	Location	REMARKS
Kwangtung	District Courts	Wanling	Suspended
		Yenchong	Suspended
		Kukong	
		Namyung	
		Yanfa	
		Lokchong	
		Yingtak	
		Chihing	
		Linhsien	
		Yangshan	
		Waiyeung	
		Hoyuan	
		Tzekam	
		Yungyun	
		Linping	
		Lungchun	
		Hoping	
		Sunfung	
		Lungmoon	
		Koyiu	
		Kwangning	
		Szewe i	
		Sunhing	
		Tekhing	
		Fungchun	
		Hokin	
		Loting	
		Watnam	
		Wanfow	
		Mowming	
		Sunyi	
		Tinpak	
		Fahsien W	
		Limkong	
		Wuchun	
		Meih sien	
		Taipu	
		Chiuling	
		Hingning	
		Pingyun	
		Ngwa	
Honan	High Court	Lushih	Originally at Kaifeng
	1st Branch	Yencheng	Originally at Sinyang
	2nd Branch	Anyang	Suspended
	3rd Branch	Hiangcheng	Originally at Loyang
	4th Branch	Hwiyang	Suspended
	5th Branch	Chenping	Originally at Nanyang
	District Courts	Kaifeng	Suspended
		Sinyang	Suspended
		Anyang	Suspended
		Loyang	
		Chenghsien	
		Shangkui	Suspended
		Hsuchang	
		Chih sien	Suspended
		Nanyang	
		Junan	
		Hwaiyang	Suspended
		Lushan	

LIST OF HIGH COURTS, BRANCH HIGH COURTS, AND DISTRICT COURTS
(January 1943)—Contd.

PROVINCE	Court	Location	REMARKS
Hopei	High Court	Loyang(Honan)	Originally at Peiping
	1st Branch	Tientsin	Suspended
	2nd Branch	Taming	Suspended
	3rd Branch	Paoting	Suspended
	4th Branch	Tangshan	Suspended
	5th Branch	Shihchiachwang	Suspended
	6th Branch	Kih sien	Suspended
	7th Branch	Yingtai	Suspended
	8th Branch	Hochien	Suspended
	District Courts	Tientsin	Suspended
		Peiping	Suspended
		Lwanhsien	Suspended
		Yingtai	Suspended
		Hochien	Suspended
		Taming	Suspended
		Paoting	Suspended
		Tangshan	Suspended
		Shihchiachwang	Suspended
		Tsohsien	Suspended
		Kih sien	Suspended
		Tinghsien	Suspended
Shantung	High Court	Linchu	Originally at Tsinan
	1st Branch	Tsining	Suspended
	2nd Branch	Tsingtao	Suspended
	3rd Branch	Chefoo	Suspended
	4th Branch	Taian	Suspended
	5th Branch	Tehsien	Suspended
	6th Branch	Lini	Suspended
	7th Branch	Hotseh	Suspended
	District Courts	Tsinan	Suspended
		Tsining	Suspended
		Tsingtao	Suspended
		Chefoo	Suspended
		Tehsien	Suspended
		Lini	Suspended
		Taian	Suspended
		Wei haiwei	Suspended
		Changkiu	Suspended
		Changtsing	Suspended
		Yitu	Suspended
		Laiyang	
		Weihsien	
		Tsimo	Suspended
		Kiaohsien	Suspended
		Lintsing	Suspended
		Yehsien	Suspended
		Yangku	Suspended
		Ankiu	
		Chuhsien	Suspended
		Tenghsien	Suspended
		Yuncheng	Suspended
		Tsaohsien	Suspended
		Hotseh	Suspended
		Kaomi	Suspended
		Liaocheng	Suspended
		Weimin	Suspended
		Pingtu	
		Ishui	

**LIST OF HIGH COURTS, BRANCH HIGH COURTS, AND DISTRICT COURTS
(January 1943)—Concl'd.**

PROVINCE	Court	Location	REMARKS
Shansi	High Court	Hwaying (Shensi)	Originally at Taiyuan
	1st Branch	Yuncheng	Suspended
	2nd Branch	Tatung	Suspended
	3rd Branch	Linchwan	Originally at Changchih
	4th Branch	Linfen	Suspended
	5th Branch	Ningwu	Suspended
	District Courts	Taiyuan	Suspended
		Anyi	Suspended
		Tatung	Suspended
		Linchwan	Originally at Changchih
		Linfen	Suspended
		Ningwu	Suspended
Suiyuan	High Court	Shenpa	Originally at Kweisui
	1st Branch,	Paotow	Suspended
	District Courts	Kweisui	Suspended
		Paotow	Suspended
		Fengchen	Suspended
Chahar	High Court	Sian (Shensi)	Originally at Kalgan
	District Court	Changpei	Suspended

**LIST OF MODERN PRISONS IN VARIOUS PROVINCES
(October 1942)**

PROVINCE	Class	Prison	Location	REMARKS
Szechwan	A	Convicts' Colony	Pingwu	Established Oct., 1941
	A	1st Prison	Chengtu	
	B	2nd Prison	Chungking	Established Jan., 1940
	B	3rd Prison	Nanchung	Established Oct., 1942
Kweichow	A	1st Prison	Kweiyang	
Yunnan	B	1st Prison	Kunming	
Kwangsi	A	1st Prison	Kweilin	
	B	2nd Prison	Nanning	
	B	3rd Prison	Wuchow	
Shensi	A	1st Prison	Sian	
	A	2nd Prison	Nancheng	
	B	3rd Prison	Yulin	
	B	4th Prison	Ankang	
	B	5th Prison	Fengsiang	
	B	6th Prison	Chienhsien	
Kansu	B	1st Prison	Lanchow	
	B	2nd Prison	Wuwei	
	B	3rd Prison	Pingliang	
Ningsia	B	1st Prison	Ningsia	

LIST OF MODERN PRISONS IN VARIOUS PROVINCES—*Contd.*

(October 1942)

PROVINCE	Class	Prison	Location	REMARKS
Chinghai	B	1st Prison	Sining	
Sikang	B	1st Prison	Kangting	Established Jan., 1940
Sinkiang	B	1st Prison	Tihwa	
Kiangsu	A	2nd National Prison	Shanghai	Under direct control of the Ministry of Justice (Suspended)
	A	1st Prison	Nanking	Suspended
	A	2nd Prison	Shanghai	Suspended
	A	3rd Prison	Soochow	Suspended
		Branch of 3rd Prison	Soochow	Suspended
	B	4th Prison	Nantung	Suspended
	B	5th Prison	Wusih	Suspended
	B	6th Prison	Chinkiang	Suspended
	B	7th Prison	Tunghai	Suspended
	A	Shanghai 2nd Special District Prison	Shanghai (French Concession)	Suspended
Kiangsu		Branch of the 2nd Prison	Shanghai (International Settlement)	Suspended
		Branch of the 1st Prison	Kiangpu	Suspended
Chekiang	A	1st Prison	Hangchow	Suspended
	A	2nd Prison	Ningpo	Suspended
	B	3rd Prison	Kashing	Suspended
	B	4th Prison	Lungchuan	Originally at Wenchow
	B	5th Prison	Kinhwa	Suspended
	B	6th Prison	Linhai	Established Jan., 1941
	B	Sungyang Prison	Sungyang	Established Jan., 1941
Anhwei	A	1st Prison	Anking	Suspended
	B	2nd Prison	Wuhu	Suspended
	A	3rd Prison	Fowyang	
	B	Lihwang Prison	Lihwang	Established May, 1942
Kiangsi	A	1st Prison	Nanfeng	Originally at Nanchang
	A	2nd Prison	Hingkwo	Originally at Kiukiang
	B	Yuanshan Prison	Yuanshan	Established Mar., 1942
	B	Yungsin	Yungsin	Established Mar., 1942
Hunan	A	1st Prison	Changsha	
Hupei	A	1st Prison	Kienshih	Originally at Wuchang
	A	2nd Prison	Enshih	Originally at Hankow
	B	3rd Prison	Tzekwei	Originally at Ichang
	B	4th Prison	Lichuan	Originally at Wuchang
Fukien	B	1st Prison	Kienow	Originally at Foochow
	B	2nd Prison	Lungsi	

LIST OF MODERN PRISONS IN VARIOUS PROVINCES—*Concl'd.*
(October 1942)

PROVINCE	Class	Prison	Location	REMARKS
Fukien	B	3rd Prison	Amoy	Suspended
	B	Yungan Prison	Yungan	Established July, 1941
	B	Lungyen Prison	Lungyen	Established July, 1941
Kwangtung	A	1st Prison	Canton	Suspended
	B	2nd Prison	Linhsien	Established January, 1941
	B	3rd Prison	Loting	Established January, 1941
	B	4th Prison	Sunyi	Established January, 1941
	B	5th Prison	Pingyun	Established January, 1941
Honan	A	1st Prison	Loyang	
	B	2nd Prison	Chenghsien	
	B	Loyang Prison	Loyang	Suspended
Hopei	A	1st Prison	Peiping	Suspended
	B	Branch of 1st Prison	Tsohsien	Suspended
	A	2nd Prison	Peiping	Suspended
	A	3rd Prison	Tientsin	Suspended
	B	Branch of 3rd Prison	Hochien	Suspended
	B	4th Prison	Paoting	Suspended
	B	Branch of 4th Prison	Tinghsien	Suspended
	B	5th Prison	Taming	Suspended
	B	Branch of 5th Prison	Yingtai	Suspended
	B	Branch of 5th Prison	Kih sien	
Shantung	A	1st Prison	Tsinan	Suspended
	B	Branch of 1st Prison	Licheng	Suspended
	B	Branch of 1st Prison	Changkiu	Suspended
	B	Branch of 1st Prison	Changtsing	Suspended
	A	2nd Prison	Chefoo	Suspended
	B	3rd Prison	Tsining	Suspended
	B	Branch of 3rd Prison	Tzeyang	Suspended
	A	4th Prison	Yitu	Suspended
	B	5th Prison	Tsingtao	Suspended
	B	6th Prison	Taian	Suspended
	B	7th Prison	Tehsien	Suspended
	B	8th Prison	Lini	Suspended
	B	Juvenile Prison	Tsinan	Suspended
	B	Weihaiwei Prison	Weihaiwei	Suspended
	B	Tsincheng Prison	Tsincheng	Suspended
Shansi	A	1st Prison	Pinglo	Originally at Taiyyan
	B	2nd Prison	Yuncheng	Suspended
	B	3rd Prison	Tatung	Suspended
	B	4th Prison	Taiku	Suspended
	B	5th Prison	Fenyang	Suspended
	B	6th Linchwan	Linchwan	Originally at Changchih
Suiyuan	B	1st Prison	Kweisui	Suspended
Chahar	A	1st Prison	Kalgan	Suspended
	B	Juvenile Prison	Kalgan	Suspended

**CIVIL AND CRIMINAL CASES HANDLED BY CHINESE COURTS FROM 1930
TO 1941 CONCERNING NATIONALS OF COUNTRIES HAVING NO
CONSULAR JURISDICTION IN CHINA**

COUNTRIES	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	TOTAL
Abyssinia—													
Civil	1	1
Criminal	1	1
Argentina—													
Civil
Criminal	1	1
Austria—													
Civil	3	1	1	9	12	1	1	1	2	4	35
Criminal	1	4	...	3	2	1	...	3	2	...	16
Bulgaria—													
Civil	1	1	2
Criminal	1	1	2
Chile—													
Civil	1	1	2	2	1	7
Criminal
Czechoslovakia—													
Civil	1	10	2	6	7	1	...	1	1	5	34
Criminal	4	6	3	2	1	...	2	3	1	22
Estonia—													
Civil	1	1
Criminal
Finland—													
Civil	1	1	3	5
Criminal	2	1	3
Germany—													
Civil	...	137	195	106	186	116	57	43	26	24	46	61	997
Criminal	1	30	17	23	35	45	31	13	11	46	27	33	317
Greece—													
Civil	...	4	1	3	4	12	7	6	2	4	1	1	50
Criminal	4	5	...	1	9	2	...	1	1	3	26
Hungary—													
Civil	2	1	5	1	1	2	2	1	2	17
Criminal	3	2	1	1	3	3	3	...	1	17
Iran—													
Civil	2	...	1	2	1	...	6
Criminal	1	1	1	2	...	2	7
Iraq—													
Civil	6	3	2	2	1	...	2	16
Criminal	1	1
Jugoslavia—													
Civil	1	10	2	6	7	1	...	1	1	5	34
Criminal	4	6	3	2	1	...	2	3	1	22
Latvia—													
Civil	1	5	1	1	1	2	11
Criminal	2	1	3	...	3	1	1	1	12
Lithuania—													
Civil	2	2
Criminal	3	2	1	1	2	...	2	11
Paraguay—													
Civil
Criminal	1	1
Poland—													
Civil	...	2	...	2	4	7	5	7	3	1	...	3	34
Criminal	...	3	17	19	10	24	9	24	6	18	12	3	145
Rumania—													
Civil	...	1	...	1	3	9	6	3	3	1	2	3	32
Criminal	1	5	5	5	...	4	5	4	6	5	3	2	45

**CIVIL AND CRIMINAL CASES HANDLED BY CHINESE COURTS FROM 1930
TO 1941 CONCERNING NATIONALS OF COUNTRIES HAVING NO
CONSULAR JURISDICTION IN CHINA—Contd.**

COUNTRIES	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	TOTAL
Thailand— Civil
Criminal	1	2	3
Turkey— Civil
Criminal	1	3	1	2	1	1	9
Uruguay— Civil
Criminal	1	1
U.S.S.R.— Civil	...	303	178	322	345	296	174	91	39	97	55	46	1,946
Criminal	2	177	195	267	219	321	251	285	123	236	186	125	2,387
Venezuela— Civil	1	1
Criminal
No Nationalities— Civil	18	17	11	16	4	1	3	10	11	91
Criminal	...	4	4	27	35	24	30	17	3	47	46	42	279
TOTAL— Civil	...	447	380	482	570	495	299	161	79	143	121	145	3,322
Criminal	5	222	245	370	321	433	350	361	153	371	284	213	3,328

**NUMBER OF LAWYERS HOLDING CERTIFICATES FROM THE MINISTRY
OF JUSTICE
(January, 1943)**

Province	Number	Province	Number
Anhwei	235	Kwangsi	178
Chahar	15	Kwangtung	756
Chekiang	1,159	Kweichow	92
Fukien	397	Shansi	78
Honan	303	Shantung	490
Hopei	929	Shensi	77
Hunan	310	Sikang	7
Hupei	295	Suiyuan	16
Jehol	5	Szechwan	567
Kansu	18	Yunnan	33
Kiangsi	356		
Kiangsu	2,929		
		TOTAL	9,245

CHAPTER VIII

MILITARY AFFAIRS

THE NATIONAL MILITARY COUNCIL

The National Government, according to Article 3 of its Organic Law, "has the supreme command of the land, naval and air forces." Actually, however, this power is exercised by the chairman of the National Military Council. Article 1 of the Council's organic regulations reads: "With a view to strengthening national defense and leading the entire army and people in the prosecution of the war, the National Government specially orders the establishment, under it, of the National Military Council; and vests in its chairman the power to exercise the function provided in Article 3 of the Organic Law of the National Government." Article 4 of the Council's organic regulations stipulates as follows: "The chairman of the National Military Council, in shouldering his full responsibility of national defense, shall have supreme command of the land, naval and air forces, and shall direct the people of the entire nation."

During the Northern Expedition the National Military Council was the highest administrative organ of military affairs, while the General Headquarters of the Commander-in-Chief of the Nationalist Forces, which existed simultaneously, was in actual command. Both organs were under the direction of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee or its Political Committee. In November, 1928, following the successful completion of the expedition, the two organs were abolished. In their place four new organs were created, namely, the Ministry of Military Affairs, the Directorate-General of Military Training, the Board of General Chief, and the Military Advisory Council, all directly under the National Government. Not long afterwards, in March, 1929, with the enforcement of the five Yuan system of government, the General Headquarters of the Commander-in-Chief of Land, Naval and Air Forces was set up and placed in control of the above-mentioned four military organs. The Ministry of Military Affairs was (and is) at the same time a unit under the Executive Yuan.

The National Military Council, as it is organized at present, took form in

March, 1932, after the Japanese invasion of Manchuria the previous autumn had made manifest the necessity of unifying the various military organs. According to its organic regulations, last revised in June, 1940, the National Military Council has a chairman (Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek), and from seven to nine members, the Chief of Staff, the Deputy-Chiefs of Staff, and the heads of the Board of Military Operations, Ministry of Military Affairs, Board of Military Training, Board of Political Training, and Military Advisory Council being all members *ex-officio*. For some-time, the National Military Council had one or two vice-chairmen. These posts, however, have been abolished. The post of the Chief of Staff was created in January, 1938, to assist the chairman of the National Military Council in handling affairs of the Council and in directing the work of the different boards, commissions and departments in the Council. The duty of members of the Council is to assist the chairman in devising plans of national defense.

The Council has a Main Office which is its central organ. It transmits military orders and handles the general affairs of the National Military Council. Any work that does not come within the sphere of any of the subordinate organs or that is common to two or more subordinate organs of the Council goes to the Main Office.

Besides the Main Office, the Council has the following permanent organs:

(1) The Board of Military Operations which is in charge of the (a) erection of works of national defense, local pacification, and the mobilization of land, naval, and air forces for war; (b) the planning and execution of services of a military nature; (c) the collection of military intelligence and of information on international relations; and (d) the control over members of the staff, the War College, the Bureau of National Surveying, and military attachés residing in foreign countries.

(2) The Board of Military Affairs (concurrently the Ministry of Military Affairs in the Executive Yuan) which is in charge of (a) the organization and

improvement of the army, the maintenance of the requisite number of men in the army, the maintenance and supply of horses for the army, the maintenance and improvement of facilities of communication and of military intelligence, and preparations for general mobilization; (b) the preparation and proper distribution of military funds, rations, uniforms, equipment, camps, and other military supplies; the erection and management of military stations and storehouses; and the utilization of privately-owned industrial resources in connection therewith; (c) the preparation and proper distribution of munitions; the erection and management of arsenals and military stores; and the utilization of privately-owned industrial resources in connection therewith; and (d) supervision over the health and sanitation of the army and the establishment of hospitals and medical stations.

(3) The Board of Military Training which is in charge of (a) the training, improvement, and supervision of the military forces; and (b) the establishment and improvement of military schools and institutions.

(4) The Board of Political Training which is in charge of (a) the political training of the military forces; and (b) war services at the front, organization of the people, and propaganda in the war areas.

(5) The Board of Supplies and Transport which is in charge of (a) the furnishing and transportation of military supplies; and (b) the establishment of military stations; and (c) the establishment and management of sanitary stations.

(6) The Directorate-General of Courts Martial which is in charge of (a) the execution of military laws; and (b) the maintenance of military discipline.

(7) The Awards and Pensions Commission which is in charge of pensions.

(8) The Transportation Control Administration which is in charge of the control of transportation lines, fuel, and motor vehicles.

(9) The Military Personnel Administration which is in charge of the ranking of the officers and men in military service.

(10) The National Aeronautical Affairs Commission which is in charge of the establishment, well-being, training, and command of the air force.

(11) The Naval Headquarters which is in charge of the training and command of the naval forces.

(12) The Military Advisory Council which is in charge of military research. The councillors serve as advisers to the chairman of the National Military Council.

(13) The Counsellors' Office which is in charge of research on non-military subjects and the giving of advice to the chairman of the National Military Council.

(14) The Commission of Inspection which is in charge of the inspection of all armed forces and military educational institutions.

(15) The Commission on Laws and Regulations which is in charge of the study, making, and revision of military laws and regulations.

(16) The Commission on Perscrutation which is in charge of the investigation of the work and progress of all armed units, military schools, and military offices.

(17) The Bureau of Foreign Affairs, which is in charge of activities in connection with foreign military missions and other military matters relating to foreign countries.

(18) The Foreign Advisers' Office which is in charge of affairs concerning foreign military advisers to the Chinese Army.

(19) The Bureau of Censorship which is in charge of the control of wartime news, dispatches and publications in the country.

Besides, there are a number of other offices in charge of such things as the research in international affairs, the Sino-Japanese war history, investigation and statistics. The chairman of the National Military Council has a personal headquarters assisting him in the transmission of orders and the execution of other duties.

PERSONNEL OF PRINCIPAL ORGANS UNDER THE NATIONAL MILITARY COUNCIL

CHAIRMAN: Chiang Kai-shek.
MEMBERS:

Yen Hsi-shan
Feng Yu-hsiang
Li Tsung-jen
Li Chi-shen (Li Chai-sum)
Cheng Chien
Chen Shao-kwan
Tang Sheng-chih
Hsiung Shih-hui
Wei Li-huang
Wan Fu-lin

CHIEF OF STAFF: Ho Ying-chin
DEPUTY CHIEFS OF STAFF: Pai Chung-hsi
Cheng Chien

MILITARY ADVISORY COUNCIL

PRESIDENT: Chen Tiao-yuan
 VICE-PRESIDENTS: Wang Shu-chang
 Chang Fang

NATIONAL AERONAUTICAL AFFAIRS COMMISSION

CHAIRMAN: Chiang Kai-shek
 DIRECTOR: Chow Chih-jou
 DEPUTY-DIRECTORS: Huang Kwang-jui
 Mao Pang-chu

NAVAL HEADQUARTERS

COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF: Chen Shao-kwan
 CHIEF OF STAFF: Chen Hsin-yung

MAIN OFFICE OF THE NATIONAL MILITARY COUNCIL

DIRECTOR: Shang Chen
 DEPUTY-DIRECTOR: Yao Tsung

BOARD OF MILITARY AFFAIRS

MINISTER: Ho Ying-chin
 POLITICAL VICE-MINISTER:
 Chien Ta-chun
 ADMINISTRATIVE VICE-MINISTER:
 Chang Ting-fan

BOARD OF MILITARY OPERATIONS

MINISTER: Hsu Yung-chang.
 VICE-MINISTERS: Liu Fei
 Lo Cho-yin

BOARD OF MILITARY TRAINING

MINISTER: Pai Chung-hsi
 VICE-MINISTERS: Liu Shih-yi
 Wang Chun

BOARD OF POLITICAL TRAINING

MINISTER: Chang Chih-chung
 VICE-MINISTERS: Wang Tung-yuan
 Liang Han-chao

BOARD OF SUPPLIES AND TRANSPORT

MINISTER: Yu Fei-peng
 VICE-MINISTERS: Chen Ching-Chieh
 Tuan-mu Chieh

DIRECTORATE-GENERAL OF COURTS MARTIAL

DIRECTOR-GENERAL: Ho Cheng-chun
 DEPUTY DIRECTOR: Chin Teh-chun.

AWARDS AND PENSIONS COMMISSION

DIRECTOR: Ho Chien
 DEPUTY-DIRECTORS: Wu Ssu-yu
 Chang Ting-fan

TRANSPORTATION CONTROL ADMINISTRATION

DIRECTOR: Ho Ying-chin
 DEPUTY-DIRECTOR: Tang Sheng-chih
 CHIEF OF STAFF: Yu Fei-peng

MILITARY PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

DIRECTOR: Wu Ssu-yu
 DEPUTY-DIRECTOR: Chien Cho-lun

COUNSELLORS' OFFICE OF THE NATIONAL MILITARY COUNCIL

DIRECTOR: Wang Shih-chieh

GENDARMES HEADQUARTERS

COMMANDER: Ho Kuo-kwang
 DEPUTY-COMMANDER: Chang Chen

GENERALISSIMO'S PERSONAL HEADQUARTERS

DIRECTOR, FIRST DEPARTMENT:
 Lin Wei

DIRECTOR, SECOND DEPARTMENT:
 Chen Pu-lei.

DIRECTOR, THIRD DEPARTMENT:
 Chen Kuo-fu

ARMY**FIELD ORGANIZATION**

The basic field organization of the Chinese Army is the division. Divisions are grouped together to form armies and group armies under the commanders of war areas in which they operate. The fighting strength of the division has been increased with the addition of personnel and equipment. The numerical strength and fire-power in individual division, army, or group army may be varied to a considerable degree. The National Military Council launched a reorganization plan in 1939 to strengthen each unit and to cut down unnecessary personnel and expenses. The reorganization is still in progress. A number of crack units and those with good combat records are to receive better equipment and training so that they may serve as the mainstay in the general counter-offensive to come. The fall of Burma and the closing of the Burma Road retarded this plan. Still, the Ministry of Military Affairs has not in any way relaxed its efforts in this connection.

Major attention has been paid to the strengthening of the special arms of the Chinese Army. The number of these units has been increased from three to six times the pre-war figures. Increases in artillery and engineering corps are particularly noteworthy. Mechanized units are also increased both in number and in fighting strength. Promising officers and engineers have been sent abroad for advanced training.

At one time the nation had more than 800,000 guerilla fighters operating behind Japanese lines. To increase their combat strength, the Chinese High Command ordered their total reorganization some time ago. The guerillas are officially known as "assault units". At present 356,000 of them are fighting, the majority of them on the northern front.

EQUIPMENT AND SUPPLIES

Although China has to depend upon foreign supplies for airplanes, heavy artillery, and other modern equipment,

her arsenals are producing enough small arms to equip her troops. Arsenals in Nanking, Shanghai, Shantung, Honan, Hupeh, and other provinces were moved to the interior in the earlier years of the war. New arsenals have been established to supplement arms production. Iron and steel mills, powder factories, chemical works have been founded to meet military work shops needs. Most of the arsenals have their power-generators, and store-houses in caves, and well distributed dump and supply stations.

The supply of China's war horses has been kept up in spite of difficulties. Breeding stations in Kiangsu and Kwangtung under the Ministry of Military Affairs were moved to Kweichow and Kansu. Kwangsi, Chinghai and Yunnan also have a number of stations to breed bigger and stronger horses for the Chinese Army. There are now eight breeding stations, three branch stations and one circuit breeding corps. The crops' stallions are sent from place to place to improve horses owned by the public. Seven more stations will be established in the next few years.

Winter and summer uniforms, shirts, underwear, and shoes are provided for the nation's 6,000,000 troops. Part of the materials needed for clothing was imported before 1941. Difficulties in transportation in 1942 forced China to use home-spun cloth for army uniforms. Cotton yarn and cloth are bought from producers at special prices mutually agreed upon. The Ministry of Military Affairs runs a number of spinning and weaving mills to supplement the supply. Its two woollen mills and the Chinese Industrial Cooperatives produce 1,000,000 woollen blankets a year.

In the summer of 1942, the Ministry of Military Affairs ordered summer uniforms for Chinese soldiers to be changed from the closed collar to open collar type with half sleeves and shorts. The new type will be more comfortable in summer months. The order is to be effective from the summer of 1943, but units stationed in India had the new uniform in 1942.

Chinese soldiers are given 24 ounces of rice or 26 ounces of flour per person a day, besides beans, vegetables, and meat. The stock is supplied by the Ministry of Food, distributed through the Army Food Bureau. There were 242 granaries and distribution centers in 1941, and 500 in 1942. To supplement the stock supplied by the Ministry of Food and food bought on the spot by the different units, the Ministry of Military Affairs has three army

bakeries making biscuits and bread. The total capacity is 546,000 units a month. A fourth bakery will be established in Shensi. A rice-steaming plant in Fukien steams rice for troops on the eastern front.

Ten army finance bureaus in the different war areas handle the pay of officers and men as well as other expenses. Mobile units operating behind enemy lines receive their pay through numerous channels. Besides regular pay, the men receive special subsidies, food allowance, office, medical, and other expenses. Troops stationed in India receive subsidies in rupees. The official rank and scale of monthly pay are as follows:

General (<i>Lu Chun Shang Chiang</i>) ...	\$800
Lieutenant-General (<i>Lu Chun Chung Chiang</i>) ...	500
Major-General (<i>Lu Chun Shao Chiang</i>) ...	320
Colonel (<i>Lu Chun Shang Hsiao</i>) ...	240
Lieutenant-Colonel (<i>Lu Chun Chung Hsiao</i>) ...	170
Major (<i>Lu Chun Shao Hsiao</i>) ...	135
Captain (<i>Lu Chun Shang Wei</i>) ...	80
First Lieutenant (<i>Lu Chun Chung Wei</i>) ...	60
Second Lieutenant (<i>Lu Chun Shao Wei</i>) ...	42
Warrant Officer (<i>Lu Chun Chiu Wei</i>) ...	32
Master Sergeant (<i>Lu Chun Shang Shih</i>) ...	16
Sergeant (<i>Lu Chun Chung Shih</i>) ...	13
Corporal (<i>Lu Chun Shia Shih</i>) ...	11
Private (<i>Lieh Ping</i>) ...	\$5.00—\$6.50

Formerly the management of military supplies and finance was taken care of by commanders. Since June 1, 1942, commissaries, directly responsible to the Ministry of Military Affairs, have been appointed. The new system was first tried out in a number of war areas in March and enforced in the entire nation in June. Periodic inspections are made by the Department of Commissariat of the Ministry of Military Affairs. Fourteen armies which showed fine results in the enforcement of the new system were mentioned by the Generalissimo in a special order on March 26, 1943.

Since October, 1941, the army, divisional, and regimental district system was reorganized and changed into army and divisional districts. There are at present 16 army districts and 112 divisional districts. Each divisional district is commanded by the deputy commander of an army to which recruits trained in that district are sent. Units operating in guerilla districts where conscription cannot be applied, are allowed to call for volunteers to supplement their rank and file. More than 11,000,000 men were mobilized according to the conscription law from August, 1937, to August, 1942.

MILITARY EDUCATION

The Board of Military Training which was established in February, 1938, to succeed the Directorate-General of Military Training, is in charge of military education. A number of special schools, however, are under other military organs.

The Staff College, formerly in Nanking, has finally settled down near Chungking after a number of migrations. It is the highest institution of military learning in China, open to officers in the land, naval and air forces. Candidates for the Staff College must have the recommendation of their unit commanders and pass an examination. In the college they are taught staff and command duties from brigade to army, together with functions of staff officers.

The basic school of military education is the Central Military Academy, formerly in Nanking and now in western Szechwan. Its predecessor was the famous Whampoa Military Academy. The school still has Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek as its president. Since 1924, when the Whampoa institution was first established, the Central Military Academy and its branches have graduated more than 72,000 cadets, besides those completing training in its special classes. It has now nine branch schools distributed in the southwestern and northwestern provinces.

Cadets for the academy and its branches are enrolled from junior and senior middle school graduates. Agents are sent to war areas and even behind Japanese lines to recruit young men for the academy. The cadets are given one to three years of training after which they are commissioned as second lieutenants. After a few years' service, they may enter special arms schools for further training.

The training of reserve officers takes place in senior middle schools and colleges where all men students are required to take military drill on their own campuses to be followed by an intensive training in barracks the summer of their graduation. Such training is conducted in close cooperation with local garrison forces and nearby institutions of military training. From time to time, the Board of Military Training sends inspectors to check up on the progress made in each school.

Experience gained in actual combat has modified considerably the training in Chinese military schools. Specialization is emphasized in the Central Military Academy and its branches as well as in

the various special arms schools. Closer relationship between classrooms and battlefields are sought by basing education on actual fighting requirements. Numerous changes have thus been made in teaching materials, methods, and procedure. Field maneuvers are conducted more often than before and as much as possible in a realistic way. Furthermore, the schools are ordered from time to time to send inspecting, training, and teaching parties to visit various fronts to gather firsthand information from field headquarters. Occasionally, the personnel in military organs, schools, and armed units are interchanged so that each can be benefited by the other's knowledge and experience.

The former Directorate-General of Military Training maintained 12 institutions. The number has been increased to 26. Eight more schools are under different offices. With the exception of the air force and naval schools, China's military educational institutions are as follows:—

Staff College (Under Board of Military Operations).

Central Military Academy—
(With Nine Branches)

Infantry School—
(With Two Branches)

Cavalry School—
(With One Branch)

Artillery School
Engineers' School
Military Supplies School
Mechanized Unit School
Signal School

Northwest Special Arms Associated
Branch School

Special Arms Cadre Training Corps
Special Cadre Training Class
Cadre Training Class

Northwest Guerilla Cadre Training
Class

Southwest Guerilla Cadre Training
Class

Quartermaster Corps School (Under
Department of Commissariat,
Ministry of Military Affairs)

Ordnance Technical School (Under
Ordnance Department, Ministry
of Military Affairs)

Army Medical School (Under Army
Medical Administration, Ministry
of Military Affairs, with Two
Branches)

Veterinary School (the Ministry of
Military Affairs)

Surveying School (Under the Board
of Military Operations)

Gendarmerie Training School (Under
the Gendarmerie Headquarters)

Besides, there are a number of special classes for short or long term training for special duties. They are established and dissolved as the situation requires.

The reorganization and training of the armed forces is an even more stupendous task. Because of the huge size of the Chinese Army, the work has to be carried out in several stages, each lasting from five to six months. At the beginning of each stage, units to be reorganized and trained are brought up to standard strength in men and equipment. A comprehensive training program, based on experience gained in actual combat, is enforced. High-ranking officers are sent out by the Board of Military Training from time to time to give guidance or lectures to the rank and file of units under reorganization. Toward the end of each stage, inspectors are sent to check up and report on actual progress. Since December, 1938, the Board has reorganized and trained units attached to six group army headquarters, 162 army headquarters, 356 divisions, ten brigades, and one recruit training center. Units of a number of army headquarters and many divisions are now being put through the same course. Field experience reveals that units reorganized and trained fight better.

The Board maintains a number of circuit classes to bring refresher education to the different units. They include the Northwest Circuit Education Class which teaches military subjects to troops in the Northwest, the Cavalry Circuit Education Class training cavalry units, the Artillery Education Class reorganizing and training artillery units, the Dynamite Technique Circuit Training Class teaching sappers the use of explosives against enemy defense works and buildings, and the War Area Communication Circuit Training Class training signal corps officers and men. Each war area has been ordered to establish its own cadre training corps, infantry-artillery coordination training class and war area communication training class. Each army has its own cadre training class and signal corps training class to give refresher courses to its own officers and men. Besides, in each army and independent signal corps, there is a training company for the training of its own radio operators. The Board also maintains a number of educational regiments to train supply corps, motor transport privates and non-commissioned officers. Men from these regiments are later sent to active service units.

PROMOTION AND AGE LIMIT

Army officers in active service are promoted to higher ranks in time of peace by selection in accordance with the rules given below. In time of war, the time limit is reduced by half. Promotion is also carried out according to merit in war service.

Second-Lieutenant to First Lieutenant	1.5 years
First-Lieutenant to Captain	2 "
Captain to Major	4 "
Major to Lieutenant-Colonel	3 "
Lieutenant-Colonel to Colonel	3 "
Colonel to Major-General	4 "
Major-General to Lieutenant-General	3 "
Lieutenant-General to General	4 "

The age limits for officers on the active list in peace time are as follows:—

Rank	Age Limit
General	70
Lieutenant-General	65
Major-General	60
Colonel	58
Lieutenant-Colonel	55
Major	53
Captain	50
Lieutenant	47

DECORATIONS AND COMPENSATION

Decorations for Chinese military men include:—

1. The *Kuo-Kwang* (National Glory Medal)—for extraordinary meritorious service in time of war against foreign aggression.

2. The *Ching-Tien-Pei-Jih* (Blue Sky White Sun) Medal—for meritorious service in time of war against foreign aggression.

3. The *Pao-Ting* (Tripod) Medal, 1st to 9th class—for meritorious service in time of war against foreign aggression or internal rebellion. From 1st to 4th class are for generals, 3rd to 6th class for colonels to majors, 4th to 7th class for captains and lieutenants, 6th to 9th class for non-commissioned officers and privates.

4. The *Yun-Hwei* (White Cloud) Medal, 1st to 9th class—for meritorious service in time of war or peace or against internal rebellion. From 1st to 4th class are for generals, 3rd to 6th for colonels to majors, 4th to 7th class for captains and lieutenants, 6th to 9th class for non-commissioned officers and privates.

5. The Honor Sword, 1st to 3rd class—for generals who have received the highest medals with further meritorious service in time of war or peace.

6. The Honor Flag—for army, naval, or air units with special meritorious service in time of war.

7. The Military Medal, 1st to 4th class—for meritorious service in time of war and peace.

8. The *Kwang-Hua* (Glorify China) Medal, 1st to 4th class—for meritorious service in time of war and peace.

9. The *Kan-cheng* (National Guardian) Medal, 1st to 4th class—for meritorious service in time of war or peace.

10. The Merit Testimonial—for meritorious service in time of war and peace.

Officers of the rank of major or above are eligible to the 1st and 2nd classes of the Military Medal, the *Kwang-Hua* Medal, and the *Kan-cheng* Medal. Captains, lieutenants, non-commissioned officers, and privates are eligible to the 3rd and 4th class medals.

All the medals are awarded by the National Government at the recommendation of the High Command.

When officers and men of the armed forces are killed or wounded in action, compensation is to be provided on the basis of the following classification:

- (1) Killed in military action.
- (2) Death while on duty.
- (3) Death from poor health due to assiduous duties.
- (4) Wounded in military action.
- (5) Death following serious wounds.

The compensation given includes a single compensation given to the family of the deceased according to his rank and an annual compensation given to his family or heir or the wounded himself.

Annual compensation for those killed in action is given for 20 years if the man is killed in time of war and 15 years if killed in time of peace. For those killed on duty in time of war an annual compensation is given for ten years and for those killed in time of peace, seven years. For those who died from poor health due to assiduous duties in time of war an annual compensation is given for five years, compensation for three years is given for those who have served in time of peace for more than five years, five years for those who have served for more than ten years, and seven years for those who have served for more than 15 years. The wounded are given

seven years of compensation for first class wounds, five years for second class wounds, and three years for third class wounds. For those wounded but still capable of future service, one year of compensation is given.

The Awards and Pension Commission of the National Military Council reports that from August, 1938, to June, 1941, 237,555 pensions were awarded, totalling \$14,287,380. Besides its Chungking office, the commission has branches in Shensi, Honan, Kwangsi and Chekiang.

MILITARY DISCIPLINE

The Directorate-General of Courts Martial handled in the two years from April, 1940, to March, 1942, 37 old and 407 new cases of which 351 were concluded and sentences passed while 93 were yet to be concluded. Its investigation office considered and reported on 1,036 cases involving military discipline in the same period.

Four outstanding cases of military discipline are worth mentioning, testifying to the Chinese High Command's determination to maintain discipline under all circumstances.

At the beginning of the war, General Li Fu-ying defending northern Shansi evacuated Tatung without order. He was arrested and sent to Taiyuan and court-martialled in September. Found guilty of disobedience of orders, he was shot by order of the High Command. This was the first full general executed in time of war.

When the Japanese were attacking Shantung at the end of 1937, General Han Fu-Chu, then governor of Shantung and commander of Chinese troops in that province, failed to obey the government's order to hold his ground and instead intended to withdraw westward into Shensi. He was arrested in January, 1938, found guilty and executed on January, 24.

At the end of 1940, General Shih Yu-san, then governor of Chahar, was ordered to move his troops into western Honan, but he remained in the eastern parts of the province, imposing illegal levies upon the people in the area. He was arrested and later executed on December 8, 1940.

On January 18, 1941, the New Fourth Army was disarmed and its commander, Yeh Ting, placed under arrest to face court martial for its defiance of military orders and plot to stage a revolt. In a special statement, the

National Military Council spokesman revealed that in readjusting military forces in various war zones, the High Command as early as December 9, 1940, ordered the New Fourth Army south of the Yangtze River to move north of the river before December 31, and continue moving northward until it should have crossed the Yellow River for operations against the Japanese by January 31. The region between Fanchang and Tungling in southern Anhwei was designated as the route for the army to cross the Yangtze.

On the contrary, the New Fourth Army at Kingsien started moving in a southerly direction toward Taiping, its objective being to launch a surprise attack on General Shan-Kwan Yun-hsiang's headquarters.

It happened that the 40th Division, transferred from southern Kiangsu, was on its way northward for reorganization. Having learned of its arrival at Sanhsi on New Year's Day, 1941, the entire New Fourth Army slipped through to Maoling, which is about 40 kilometers south of Kingsien, the night of January 4. It spread out in three forces to waylay the 40th Division.

Taken completely unawares, the 40th Division fought in self-defense. Whereupon, General Ku Chu-tung, commander of the 3rd War Area, at once ordered that disciplinary measures be resorted to. By January 12, the entire New Fourth Army was disbanded and its commander, Yeh Ting, arrested. Furthermore, by order of the National Military Council, the New Fourth Army as a unit was abolished.

Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, as Commander-in-Chief of the Chinese armed forces, made special reference to the New Fourth Army Incident in a speech reviewing home and foreign affairs on January 27, 1941. He said, in part:

During the past two weeks the Japanese have been playing up the New Fourth Army incident by the fabrication of a great batch of fantastic rumors aimed both at sapping the strength of our fighting spirit and at misleading world opinion with insinuations of disunion in our ranks. These rumors may be divided roughly into two categories. In the first place they state that since the Government took action in regard to the New Fourth Army there has been resulting dissension to the point of civil war. In the second place they claim that on account of the incident nations favoring and assisting us are about to change their attitude toward China. A close examination of the

incident concerned and of its falsified interpretation in these rumors will show that the motive really lies in the apprehension aroused among the enemy by the determination we have displayed in the strict maintenance of military discipline.

Everybody knows that since the war began the whole Chinese army and people have un-animously devoted themselves to struggle and sacrifice with a common allegiance to one command, one discipline, and one policy. Only a negligible minority of degenerate traitors such as Wang Ching-wei have chosen to throw themselves under the dominion of the enemy and organize their slavish puppet regimes, dressing up their treachery the while in talk of feud and faction. The traitors and puppets, however, are now all living under the aegis of their masters' power. With the defeat of the Japanese we shall also have procured their destruction. Apart from them there are no phenomena in the China of to-day to which the name of internal disruption could be given and still less anything that could be called civil war; questions of wartime discipline and obedience to military commands have nothing whatever to do with such possibilities.

The Government's disposal of the problem presented by the conduct of the New Fourth Army was simply and solely a matter of enforcing military discipline: there can be no room for doubt on this point in the minds of Chinese or foreigners. The affair was unambiguous; the issue was uninvolved; the incident not abnormal. Disobedience and insubordination among army men naturally bring down punishment upon them. Acts of revolt, attacks on comrades-in-arms, the forceful occupation of territory and other actions obstructive to the prosecution of the war still more certainly demand the disembodiment of the troops concerned; the most rudimentary conception of the principles essential to military command would require it. Only minds to which the ideas of law and discipline are equally foreign such as those of the Japanese Junior Officers' Group would perceive anything extraordinary in action so obviously necessary; none but they would think of exploiting it as material for malicious exaggeration in propaganda.

Turning to the international aspect, I may observe that the record of four years' sympathy and assistance from friendly nations has shown them uniformly desirous of seeing strict discipline enforced in our armies as a means of rendering them efficient in resistance. There has been no instance of their finding cause for suspicion and dubiety in our checking insubordination for the sake of that very object. On the contrary, they will be gratified to see us do so. Perspicacious statesmen of nations friendly to China will express only approbation for action lending strength and progress to our national armies. For those nations help us

because they hope we can display a spirit of robust self-mastery, they expect to see us able to carry our own laws into full effect and keep order in our armies. Reckless disorder in civil life or lawlessness and insubordination among our soldiers would mean a people without national spirit and an army without discipline; were we deserving of this description no one would care to assist us, and resistance would have been quite out of the question for us. The various rumors propagated by the enemy are such, in the light of these facts, that nobody of the slightest intelligence can fail to understand the nature of the motives for their fabrication, not to speak of swallowing them.

Since the war began a number of cases of disobedience to orders and defiance of discipline have had to be dealt with; Han Fu-chu, Li Fu-ying and Shih Yu-san were three instances. The behavior of the New Fourth Army, its disregard of orders, attacks on comrades-in-arms and even acts of mutiny and sabotage had necessarily to be put an end to; it was purely a matter of the assertion of military law. There was not the minutest admixture of issues belonging to the sphere of politics and party relationships. This is the first point that must be clear to the minds of all.

With the three men I have just mentioned the offense began and ended in the person of the individual. Let us now inquire why in the case of the New Fourth Army punishment had to extend to its abolition as a unit of the national forces. I will explain the distinction. Han Fu-chu, Li Fu-ying and Shih Yu-san acted solely on their own responsibility when they disobeyed orders. They did not incite their men to mutiny or lead them against another section of the national armies. The first of them was executed because he failed to obey the government's order to hold his ground in eastern Shantung and instead wanted to withdraw westward into Shensi. Li Fu-ying was shot for his persisting in retreat when retreat had been forbidden him. Shih Yu-san was ordered to move his forces into western Honan, whereas he remained in the eastern parts of the province, imposing meanwhile upon the people of the area. The officers and men serving under these three offenders took no part in the insubordination of their superiors; they fully comprehended the principles at stake and concurred in the change of command, and the Government accordingly preserved them intact. With the New Fourth Army it was otherwise; in November it was ordered by the High Command to move northward to engage the enemy in a certain appointed area; it elected not to respond, but waited until after the expiry of the period of time allotted, then to make an arbitrary move southward, executing a premeditated maneuver leading to an attack in broad daylight upon

the headquarters of General Shang-kuan Yun-hsiang and the 40th Division. This plainly mutinous proceeding caused its disbandment as a disciplinary necessity. The incident has its place in the category of similar action taken on other occasions during the war. There are now a dozen or so high-ranking commanders in confinement as a result of sentences passed on them for acts of insubordination and of these some are men distinguished for their former zeal and merit who could be in no way thereby exempted from the penalty due their guilt. This is evidence of the indiscriminating severity of measures taken to maintain discipline in our armies. They depend for their very life, the nation depends for its very existence, and resistance for victory, upon the allowance of no indulgence to violators of that discipline, upon the Government's never overlooking such offenses. At the same time we have to avoid all over-hasty conviction of those under suspicion of bad intentions lest injustice should be done them. The Government therefore limited itself last year to adjurations, calling upon the New Fourth Army to have done with its constant failure to comply with orders. It obstinately persisted, however, in its evil courses and at last went beyond all bounds. The situation developed in a way imperatively demanding the most rigorous action.

My own feelings were of acute pain and shame, for the errors and failings of subordinates are to be laid at the door of their commanding officer. I felt personally responsible for this unhappy affair, wherein you must none of you find any cause for gratification. Although the incident has been disposed of, it remains a blot on the glorious record of Resistance. In my capacity of Commander-in-Chief I am sensible of a distress exceeding that of any other person concerned. This is the second point I would have you all clearly understand.

Now let us ask what is the value of the rigid maintenance of military discipline. In it reposes a principle vital to the preservation of an army and a nation. Victory or defeat for resistance will turn upon the state of discipline in our armies. The mutinous attempt of the New Fourth Army to break away from the restraint of that discipline is a test of the Government's ability to keep it inviolate: it is therefore also an episode fraught with immense consequence to the nation's being. I acted as I did with the determination to protect army and nation from a threatening disaster. The alternative of letting things take their course, of giving mutineers their head, could but have resulted in military defeat and national ruin. Should I, charged with the duties of Commander-in-Chief, for the sake of a transitory avoidance of the disagreeable, nourish in my bosom the viper of disaffection, imperilling the integrity of the national forces, I should be guilty not

only of dereliction of my duty but also of betraying every fighting man and every citizen who has made sacrifices for the cause of resistance. In the strictest sense of the word I should be leading my followers to destruction; my offense would be the greatest a commander-in-chief could commit. I am resolved to demonstrate to the nation the essential qualities of sound discipline. It applies to all equally; it is a rule to which no exceptions are permissible. This is my third point.

At the beginning of the war several friends spoke to me in the following sense: "The unification of the country is not yet complete, its military preparedness is inadequate, the international situation is unfavorable, there are many doing lip-service to the idea of resistance who are not really ready to support the Government's policy. We cannot fight Japan; to such a venture defeat is to be expected." My reply was to the effect that their attitude was wrong: they failed to realize the revolutionary character of our present Government and fighting forces. Our armies drew their strength not only from their weapons and equipment in matching themselves against the Japanese. We need not concern ourselves with difficulties that might possibly arise after the war. The relevant question was whether we possessed revolutionary principles and revolutionary discipline; what was the quality of our revolutionary spirit and determination. If we were confident, I said, of having such principles and discipline, such a spirit, and the determination to make sacrifices, if we had ascertained the sincerity of our intention to fight for the existence of our nation, we need not hesitate to throw ourselves into the struggle. As for the international situation, the hope of favorable changes in that must depend on our own showing; to wait for them to come before entering upon resistance would mean the indefinite postponement of success for the revolution. We have ourselves to compel modifications in the attitude of the world toward us. A policy of wait-and-see in circumstances of such national peril would have meant waiting helplessly for death to claim us. For resistance is a stage in the process of revolution: it is not some merely incidental adventure. At that time I expressed myself in these concise terms: "Essential to resistance is deliverance from fear of internal strife; fear of it would incapacitate us for resistance." When those friends observed my resolution they offered their unflinching support, and now that the war has been in progress for nearly four years, the enemy is well on the way to defeat and we are within sight of victory, the complete soundness of my views and decision has been vindicated. You must all grasp the two elements of our attitude; toward the world, a proper dignity and self-respect, and efforts to deserve well of friendly nations; toward home affairs, strict discipline, the building

up of our strength by all means with the aim of standing firmly on our own feet, our minds purged of any apprehension of internal disputes. In the event of an instance of rebellious conduct in the army it must be rigorously checked and the whole affair put in order, so that the evil may not impair the integral health of army and nation. I trust that no individual or party with the cause of national salvation and regeneration at heart will entertain any doubts as to the propriety of action taken by the Government to enforce discipline. While we oppose to the enemy the fullest possible measure of our strength, our serried ranks must answer to but one source of command, observe a common discipline. That is a basic condition for the attainment of victory.

You are all aware that the Government of China is a revolutionary one that can shatter any outward obstacles and suppress any internal rising against its authority. Had we during the years 1924-1926 laid aside our revolutionary mission for fear of internal opposition the Northern Expedition would never have been embarked upon. Every true revolutionary meets the obstacles and setbacks in his path with calm confidence in the fulness of his preparations. Revolutionary armies anywhere in the world have rarely been exempt from insurrectionary episodes; we need only ask whether a government claiming to be revolutionary has the ability to deal effectively with disaffection. If it is seen to go about the matter with a revolutionary vigor, especially where rebels are in arms, and uproot the evil, it will have achieved a victory that will contribute to the general success of its revolutionary endeavors. Now I can solemnly assure you our Government has both the determination and the ability to put down any incipient rebellion long before it could develop into civil war. That determination and ability are all the more certain at such a time as this when the whole people is pervaded with patriotic enthusiasm and loyalty to their fighting Government. We all share in the national life and honor we defend, with the exception only of traitors of the like of Wang Ching-wei who pretend to represent a faction of opinion in the country while they go about the purely private pursuit of gain at its expense. Apart from these criminals there are none so mad as to will the defeat of resistance.

There is yet another reason for the fact that the action taken against the New Fourth Army was unavoidable. Since the incident occurred the Japanese militarists have been rejoicing over the opportunity they think it provides them of fomenting sedition in our ranks. They are always on the look-out for signs of slack discipline and insubordination among us that might lead to national instability and eventual collapse. If we had not acted resolutely an indirect result would have been encouragement

of the Japanese contempt for our national integrity and revolutionary spirit and a filip to their lust for conquest. Actually the course we took was a downright shock for them, putting their tricks at naught and giving them disagreeably clear evidence of the revolutionary discipline and spirit, and the conception of nationhood prevailing in our armies, in contrast to the enervation of which they hoped to take advantage. Let me assure the Japanese militarists that their interests will in no way be served by the Government's procedure in regard to the New Fourth Army, and that on the contrary it will brace up our discipline and invigorate our fighting spirit. The outcome will be quite the reverse of their expectations and all to their disadvantage. Speaking in terms of our internal necessities, the Government had necessarily to assert its authority in an unequivocal manner to safeguard the essential conditions for successful prosecution of the war.

By now I think you will all have absolutely clear in your minds the outstanding fact that the incident under discussion was a normal, ordinary and indispensable case of the functioning of military authority. I am convinced that all exaggerative and malicious deductions representing it as something more are to be attributed to the enemy. I also trust that no citizen with love of his country and loyalty to the cause of resistance will permit himself to be fooled by the Japanese rumors or be influenced by them to take any disproportionately grave view of the affair. When the order for the disbandment of the New Fourth Army was about to be issued attempts were made in quarters connected with it to extenuate its offense by means of a variety of insidious and far-fetched arguments. I then despatched representatives to make an indirect appeal to them not to add error to error but to lend the true support due from all Chinese citizens to the interests of national resistance. The Government at first refrained from publishing the facts concerning the New Fourth Army's culpable disregard of orders and this I told them was out of consideration for them, not weak procrastination or fear of consequences. If they were to add to their former misdemeanors the mendacious vilification of superior commanders and the Government without thought for the good name of their country in the world's eyes their conduct would be universally condemned as conduct to be expected only from China's enemies and traitors, or at least calculated to give the Japanese every satisfaction. They would not only fail, I warned them, to justify their misdeeds thereby but would also make themselves abominated by all their fellow-countrymen. True patriots among us must respect the law and obey commands, conform to discipline and free ourselves of all disingenuous dealings in our devotion to the cause, I declared. Subsequently the vindictive talk ceased, and

I now believe no son of Han will serve the interests of the Japanese by echoing their exaggerated versions of the incident.

You must all realize that we did not immediately make the matter public because the New Fourth Army was a section of the national revolutionary army, of which I am the Commander-in-Chief. I have often compared the army to a family wherein I look upon the soldiers under me as a father regards his children. If his children behave well the father feels they reflect honor upon him; if badly, they disgrace him. I attempted to discharge my responsibility toward the New Fourth Army in the past by repeatedly warning it and imploring it to make a fresh start in the genuine service of the nation. I feared a premature revelation of its misdeeds might cut off its way to reform. My solicitude failed, however, to move them; they interpreted it as weakness and even timidity on the ground of their threats of precipitating civil war. Who will say that there could be any possibility of tolerating the perversity and reckless selfishness of men prepared deliberately to expose to the sight of the enemy the weaknesses of their own army as a means of intimidating their superior officers? In point of fact, however, the Japanese were no doubt well informed, perhaps better informed than we, regarding the actions of the New Fourth Army. It was certainly not, therefore, for fear of letting them or the world know, that we abstained from publishing the state of things for so long. All along the motive lay in the moral precept, held so important in Chinese society, of "keeping evil out of sight and bringing good to the fore." I have always observed this principle in my dealings with men in general and only the more studiously in dealing with soldiers under my command, to whom I feel bound in an intimacy equal to that of family relationship. The honor of my subordinates is as my own; their merit or demerit as my own. With this sense of personal responsibility for their misconduct I am ever reluctant to make it known. On this occasion, however, there came a point beyond which it was totally impossible to conceal the ugly facts. All of you will recall the New Testament teaching of forgiveness unto seventy times seven. The misdeeds of the New Fourth Army even exceeded that number; there was no further room for pardon if I myself were not to become criminally negligent of my country's welfare.

Discipline is to be thought of as a bond of faith uniting all ranks of the army; its nature permits of no exceptions or partial treatment. So far as it is concerned all soldiers from Commander-in-Chief to private are on an equal footing. To feign blindness to its violation would mean my complete unworthiness of the trust reposed in me by the army. Only under the guarantee of its inviolability can all strive together for the sacred cause of resistance.

You are all acquainted with the fact that Japan finds herself in her present plight simply because her army men have set legality at naught and made a sport of discipline while her government has been powerless to uphold the law and enforce discipline. The Mukden Outrage came about as a result of the arbitrary action of the Japanese Junior Officers' Group who disobeyed their Emperor's commands and disregarded their government's directions, pursuing their ambitious schemes free from all restraint. Consequently there followed the Tokyo Incident of May 15, 1932, still without the government's exercising any check on those responsible for the bloody event of that day. Then again in 1936 there was open rebellion in the Japanese capital, the killing of elder statesmen and cabinet ministers and the overthrow of the government. Finally, with the Lukouchiao Incident war on a scale unprecedented in the Orient was brought about, threatening the destruction of world civilization. All this can be put down to the Japanese government's inability to maintain its authority and punish insubordination. The fact that the Japanese army can still continue its war of aggression in China, however, is due to the measure of disciplined habits preserved by the High Command. War-weary as they may be and ill-disposed to continue the war they must make the best shift they can to obey orders. This indicates the vital character of the observance due to orders that suffices to keep the spiritless Japanese army in the field as nothing else could. With the very different motives and spirit animating our forces it is nevertheless imperative that we show the same unquestioning obedience to commands.

If henceforth all sections of our forces carry out their orders, adhere strictly to the plans laid down by the High Command and fulfil the precise duties allotted them the Government will naturally look upon them with indiscriminating solicitude for their well-being providing each an opportunity to make its full contribution to a victory in the glory of which all will share equally. Now the New Fourth Army has been abolished; the question has been settled and no other question remains. Our Government has always been liberal and considerate toward all sections of the national forces, while I regard my soldiers as the members of a family of which I am head. An affair calling for unbecoming action causes me pain and shame, and all of you too will, I hope, consider this incident as a great disgrace to the Revolution, an incomparably regrettable page in the history of resistance, and take it as a warning example of the consequences inevitable to such conduct, encroachment upon areas not assigned you, obstruction of the movements of other troops, the seizure of their arms, the confiscation of the people's weapons and food, and so on. You must moreover see to it that, on the contrary, troops function to the

advantage of the people and give stability to the social order, especially in areas behind the enemy lines where solidarity of army and people is so essential. Let this affair be a stimulus to our faith in resistance and reconstruction; let good come of evil.

In conclusion, the incident is not to be considered as something negative, but as of positive value. Firstly, it has proved a sharp disappointment to the enemy's hopes of seeing internal disruption weaken the strength of the nation's will and ability to resist. Secondly, it has produced a vindication of the quality of our discipline, with an invigorating and salutary effect upon the morale of our forces. Had the action not been taken the Japanese would have felt more sure than ever of our worthlessness and of the feasibility of their aggressive designs. All our troops having been made aware of the motives of the Government in at first refraining from publication of the facts and of its subsequent severe procedure, they will know that all was done in the interests of resistance and they will be warned of its determination to act with similar resolution in any similar case.

Discipline is a criterion whereby the efficiency of the Government as a revolutionary and fighting government may be judged and the degree of soldiers' sincerity in devotion to the defense of their country be assessed. Apart from the preservation of sound discipline, no other issue whatever was involved in the Government's action. Nor did the behavior of the New Fourth Army have any connection with other parts of the national forces. The incident was entirely free from any political character. The Government is absolutely committed to the respect of all groups and parties that conform to the provisions of the *Program of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction*; it legally safeguards their rights of freedom and independence. An infringement of the law by them would of course require the exercise of the law to restrain them. I constantly say to friends that though victory is near the country is not yet past the period of danger and while the crisis lasts people in all positions throughout the land should observe particular caution to avoid giving rise to obstructions to national unity and effort. The Government, however, cannot neglect its most important duties or fail in its responsibilities for the sake of such caution, though to the limited extent possible it kept silence for this reason in regard to the activities of the New Fourth Army.

My hope is that the whole country will of one accord observe strict discipline, obey orders, and throw its whole weight into the struggle to accomplish our revolutionary mission.

AIR FORCE

The Chinese Air Force is the youngest branch of the Chinese armed forces. It is under the control of the National

Aeronautical Affairs Commission of the National Military Council with Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek as the Chairman. The Commission consists principally of four departments, namely, the General Office, Department of Operations, Department of Administration, Department of Air-defense. The various fighting units, air bases, factories, training institutions are separately under the control of the four departments.

The Chinese Air Force dates back only to 1932 when the Central Aviation Academy was established at Chienchiao, near Hangchow, although various training institutions had been founded and squadrons maintained by different local regimes. It was not until 1936 that the institutions and squadrons attached to the provincial armies were brought to the fold of the National Government and placed under one command.

The basic unit of the Chinese Air Force is the squadron. Squadrons are formed into groups, which are in turn attached to the different commands. The nation is divided into a number of route commands. Under each route commander are groups and squadrons of different branches—bomber, pursuit, observation, attack, transport. Squadrons are divided into flights, usually three flights to a squadron.

China had 200 first-line planes when the war broke out in 1937. Japan used 500 planes out of her total of 2,300. The Japanese strength in China was later increased to 800-1,000 planes.

The Chinese Air Force went into action on August 14, 1937, when a total of 103 Chinese planes participated in eight raids on Japanese warships and army positions in Shanghai, sinking and damaging about ten ships, destroying Japanese depots and positions, and shooting down two Japanese planes, against the loss of two Chinese craft and two pilots. On the same day, 18 Chinese pursuits encountered 18 Japanese heavy bombers raiding Hangchow and shot down six of them, not including probables. Since 1940, August 14 has been called Chinese "Air Force Day."

The next day, the Japanese struck back. Of the 20 planes that participated in a bombing expedition to Nanking, 10 failed to return to their base. Japanese planes were also brought down at other places, and the day's total bag was over 30 machines. In three weeks, Chinese Curtiss-Hawk and Boeing pursuit planes practically wiped out

the Japanese Kisaratsu and Kanoya Air Corps, each consisting of more than 60 heavy bombers, and a number of naval observation planes, light bombers, and pursuits.

Meanwhile, Chinese bombing squadrons, equipped with Northrop and Douglas bombers, attacked Japanese warships in the Yangtze Estuary and the Hangchow Bay and Japanese trenches and military depots around Shanghai.

Chinese attacking planes, though small in number, played an important part in strafing Japanese positions and landing parties along the Whangpoo River.

In an encounter over Nanchang in January, 1938, new Chinese pursuits downed three Japanese planes. In a duel over the Wuhan cities on February 18th, Chinese E-15's and E-16's shot down 12 Japanese pursuits in 12 minutes.

The bombing expedition to Formosa on February 23, 1938, undertaken by three Chinese squadrons, destroyed 12 grounded planes, three hangars, and a number of barracks. On the Japanese Emperor's birthday, April 29, 21 Japanese planes were shot down over Wuhan. A flight of Martin bombers made a night "pamphlet raid" on western Japan on May 20. Besides, Japanese airfields, military establishments, shipping, and warships were repeatedly attacked along the Yangtze, on the South China Sea coast, and in North China. Strafing and bombing were effectively carried out by Chinese planes supporting the ground forces during the famous Battle of Taierhchwang in southern Shantung.

During another major battle over Wuhan on May 31, 13 invaders crashed to the ground. Other encounters were also fought over the Wuhan area, Canton, Hengyang, Kweitch, and other points.

In the Battle of Wuhan, Chinese bomber squadrons were effective in delaying the Japanese naval advance along the Yangtze. Daily, twin-engined bombers were sent to attack Japanese warships and transports on the river, sinking 33 Japanese vessels and damaging 109 others. Raids on other Yangtze cities were occasionally made and a number of grounded enemy planes destroyed.

The years 1939 and 1940 were characterized by surprise raids, launched by the bomber squadrons and by the dogged defense of Chungking, Chengtu, Kunming, and Lanchow by the pursuit units. The outstanding achievement of the new

bombers was the bombing of the Japanese air base at Hankow on October 3 and 14, 1939. As a result, the Japanese lost over 100 planes, destroyed or damaged, more than 200 pilots and mechanics, killed or wounded, and large quantities of gasoline, bombs, and accessories destroyed. The two Chinese raids practically wiped out the 12th and 13th Air Corps of the Japanese Naval Air Force.

Chinese squadrons also made a number of raids on Yuncheng, Japanese air base in southern Shansi. No less than 10 attacks were made on that field. One of them, carried out on April 4, 1940, destroyed more than 30 grounded Japanese craft.

Chinese planes strafed and bombed Japanese positions and troop concentrations during the Battle of Kunlunkwan in southern Kwangsi in December, 1939; the Second Battle of Honan-Hupeh Border in May-June, 1940; and the Battle of Ichang in June.

Another "pamphlet raid" was carried out by a lone Chinese bomber in a daylight raid over Peiping on October 3 1940, dropping 200,000 copies of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek's July 7 anniversary message to the Chinese army and people, his September 18 anniversary message to the Japanese soldiers and people, and another one to the Chinese nation as a whole.

Chinese pursuits were engaged during that year both in defending strategic cities and in escorting bombing squadrons. The first major victory in this period was the battle over Chengtu on November 4, 1939, when 18 of the invading 54 Japanese bombers were shot down by 27 Chinese pursuits. On three successive days, December 25-27 of the same year, the Japanese attacked Lanchow with a total of 301 planes. Nine of them were brought down by the Chinese. The fight for air supremacy in Kwangsi during the month resulted in the destruction of 12 Japanese planes over Liuchow.

The five-month dogged defense of Chungking by new Chinese E-15's in the summer of 1940 marked the greatest success of Chinese pursuits. The Japanese made 39 raids, each with an average of 100 craft and dropped more than 2,000 tons of bombs on the Chinese wartime capital. More than 70 of the invaders were brought down by Chinese defenders. Many more were so badly damaged that it was unlikely they could return to their bases.

In this period, the Japanese also lost two special planes of considerable importance. On February 2, 1939, a Japanese heavy bomber, a Fiat BR-20, was brought down by the Chinese at Shayang in western Hupeh. Among the crew of six was Captain Watanabe, chief armorer of the Japanese Naval Air Force, and Lieutenant-Commander Fujida, who had established a world non-stop flight record of close circuit. On February 5, 1941, a Japanese transport plane was shot down near Chungshan, southern Kwangtung. Among the nine passengers and crew killed was Admiral Ozumi, former Japanese Minister of Navy and at the time of his death a member of the Supreme War Council. He was on an inspection trip to Hainan Island to arrange details for Japanese activities in the South-western Pacific.

The years 1941 and 1942 saw still closer cooperation between the air and ground forces of the Chinese military machine. In all the major battles fought in the period under review, Chinese pursuit and bomber squadrons played an important part in attacking Japanese positions and troop concentrations. In the Second Battle of Changsha in September-October, 1941, Chinese bombers twice bombed Japanese concentrations when the invaders were approaching the city of the Hunan capital. Another raid against Japanese troops attacking Changsha was carried out on January 8, 1942, when the Third Battle of Changsha was at its height.

In the Chinese counter-attack on Ichang in October, 1941, a Chinese bomber squadron made a moonlight raid on Japanese airfield and supplies at the Yangtze city. Chinese bombers, supported by the "Flying Tigers" of the American Volunteer Group of the Chinese Air Force, strafed and bombed Japanese columns and concentrations in April, May, and June when the Japanese were driving up the Burma Road in the spring of 1942. Chinese bombers also attacked Yuncheng in southern Shansi, Hankow and Shasi in Hupeh in October and November.

The "Flying Tigers" of the A.V.G., under the command of Colonel (now Major-General) Claire L. Chennault, and with Madame Chiang Kai-shek as their honorary commander, played an outstanding part in pursuit warfare in Chinese and Burman skies in this period. Formed in October, 1941, this group fought over Yunnan, Burma, Thailand,

and Indo-China and in a little over six months between December 20, 1941, when they had the first baptism of fire over Kunming, to July 4, 1942, when they were disbanded, the A.V.G. fighters brought down 284 enemy aircraft, besides large numbers of enemy personnel and materials killed and destroyed by their strafings and bombings. This did not include the probables that might have been downed or destroyed by the American fighters.

AVIATION EDUCATION

The first and best known of the Chinese aviation educational institutions is the Chinese Air Force Cadet School, formerly known as the Central Aviation Academy at Cheinchiao, Hangchow. It was the cradle of the Chinese Air Force and still supplies it with flight officers. The school had as its predecessors the aviation school maintained by the Ministry of Military Affairs and still earlier, the aviation department of the Central Military Academy in Nanking. A reorganization took place in 1929, when the Ministry of Military Affairs school was established at Chienchiao, and it was thrown open to students with middle school education and a good physique.

The Chienchiao school underwent another reorganization in 1932 with the help of an American military mission of 13 pilots and four mechanics under Colonel John H. Jouett, former U.S. Army Air Corps Officer and West Point graduate. Before returning to America in May, 1935, the mission had thoroughly established the American Army Air Corps system of air instruction. The system has been followed, with necessary modifications, by succeeding American and Chinese instructors. The school was reorganized once more after the present hostilities began and took its present name. It confines itself to the training of flight officers and is open only to graduates of military schools. Cadets have 180-200 hours of practice flying in three stages besides attending lectures. After graduation from the school, they become warrant officers and receive field experience in flying squadrons. After six months, they receive commissions as Air Second-Lieutenants of the Chinese Air Force.

The Flight Sergeants' School, established in 1938, trains non-commissioned pilots. Candidates for this school must be junior middle school graduates and must pass rigid examinations. After six months of military training, the cadets begin their flying lessons which also last for

180-200 flying hours in three stages. They become non-commissioned flight officers upon graduation and may become commissioned officers after building up a meritorious service record and receiving further training.

The Air Force Staff School trains squadron or group leaders to be staff officers in the Chinese Air Force. Subjects taught include air, army, and naval strategy, tactics, command and cooperation between the air, ground and naval forces, war history, administration, war supply, etc.

Air Force officers are also sent to the Staff College to learn strategy, tactics, and command together with army and naval officers to broaden their experience, thus ensuring closer cooperation between the three services.

For the training of qualified mechanics, an Air Force Mechanical School was started in 1932, which at present only admits those who have had practical experience in aeronautical factories. Cadets in this school spend two years learning the construction and repair of planes, motors, and instruments. Upon graduation, they are sent to air bases or factories as mechanics. The school has also an advanced division for the training of aeronautical engineers. Only college graduates who majored in aeronautical, mechanical, electrical, or civil engineering are qualified to take its examinations. Cadets of this division receive advanced training in designing and construction of aircraft and ground equipment during the two years in school, and become aeronautical engineers when they graduate.

Experience in enlisting flying cadets during the last few years points to the desirability of giving youths interested in flying an early start. So the Juvenile School was established in the summer of 1940, taking in boys 12 to 15 years old who are given, apart from the usual school education, special training to develop their physique. The boys are given an early chance to familiarize themselves with model planes, motor vehicles, and internal combustion engines. Upon graduation, they are admitted to one of the numerous air schools.

Since 1939, the Chinese Air Force has maintained special classes for advanced training in various branches—pursuit, bombardment, attack, observation, radio, gunnery, navigation, and air photography. All these classes are at important Chinese air bases and

are open to men in active service as well as to qualified cadets. The various squadrons also have their own training programs to familiarize their men with new planes, instruments, and tactics.

Since 1941, gliding has been popularized with great vigor. The National Gliding Association, with Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek as president, was established in May, 1941. Special training classes were first conducted in Chengtu, teaching young boys and girls to soar and glide in motorless planes. Upon their graduation, they were sent to leading Free China cities to teach other Chinese youths to ride the skies on native manufactured gliders. A 35-meter parachute jumping tower, with three parachutes operating simultaneously, was built in Chungking in April, 1942. The popularization of gliding and parachuting will give a wider foundation for the development of aviation and the building of a stronger air force in China.

Another important training program of the Chinese Air Force, with the co-operation of American authorities, is the training of Chinese Air Force personnel in the United States. The first group arrived in the United States in 1941. Since then, successive groups of Chinese cadets have gone to America to learn to handle modern American planes and other equipment on American fields. Several batches have already completed their training and returned to China for service in combat units or flying schools.

AIR DEFENSE

The National Aeronautical Affairs Commission has an air defense department handling all air defense administration and also an Air Defense School,

founded in 1934, which trains gunners, searchlight and sound detector operators, spotters, and intelligence officers. It takes a cadet two years to qualify to be an air defense officer. The air defense units celebrate "Air Defense Day" on November 21, in memory of the first Chinese air defense exercise held in Nanking on that day in 1934.

Each province has an air defense headquarters which functions in co-operation with anti-aircraft artillery units and combat units of the Chinese Air Force in that province. Local and interprovincial telephonic and radio communication knit entire Free China into a vast network of air defense intelligence. Other active and passive measures are also taken by the department to safeguard the public against air attacks.

Chinese anti-aircraft batteries have given a good account of themselves in the present war, especially the 75 millimeter A. A. guns which during the Nanking days registered one hit in every 300 shots. On September 20, 1937, the Japanese sent 96 planes to bombard Nanking in four waves, and the Chinese ground batteries bagged 12 of them. On November 27 of the same year, a Chinese battery stationed at Kintan defending a highway bridge, shot down three planes with one shell—the hit caused the first bomb-laden plane to explode, thus destroying the other two. On the night of October 10, 1938, six raiders were brought down by Chinese A. A. guns at Hengyang in Hunan. Although fewer direct hits were registered in later years, the incessant pounding of the Chinese A. A. guns forced the Japanese raiders to fly higher and higher, thus making it harder for the Japanese bombardiers to hit their objectives.

AIR FORCE RANKS

Air General
Air Lieutenant-General
Air Major-General
Air Colonel
Air Lieutenant-Colonel
Air Major
Air Captain
Air First-Lieutenant
Air Second-Lieutenant

Kung Chun Shang Chiang
Kung Chun Chung Chiang
Kung Chun Shao Chiang
Kung Chun Shang Hsiao
Kung Chun Chung Hsiao
Kung Chun Shao Hsiao
Kung Chun Shang Wei
Kung Chun Chung Wei
Kung Chun Shao Wei

NAVY

The Chinese Ministry of Navy was superseded by the Naval Headquarters of the National Military Council in February, 1938. The Naval Headquarters has a Commander-in-Chief aided by a Chief of Staff. The headquarters has:—

- (1) The Staff Department, with sections of operations and training, and a secretariat.
- (2) The Personnel Department, with sections of personnel registration, and pension and compensation.
- (3) The Construction and Ordnance Department with sections of ships, ordnance, and mines.
- (4) The Commissariat Department with an accounting office and a supplies section. The department controls all naval fuel depots.
- (5) The First Squadron.
- (6) The Second Squadron.
- (7) The Min River Defense Headquarters in Fukien.
- (8) The First Independent Brigade of Marines.
- (9) The Second Independent Brigade of Marines.
- (10) The First Mining Corps.
- (11) The Second Mining Corps.
- (12) The Third Mining Corps.
- (13) The Fourth Mining Corps.
- (14) The First Ichang-Patung Fortress Area Headquarters.
- (15) The Second Ichang-Patung Fortress Area Headquarters.
- (16) The First Patung-Wanh sien Fortress Headquarters.
- (17) The Second Patung-Wanh sien Fortress Headquarters.
- (18) The Wu River (Chekiang) Fortress Headquarters.
- (19) The Mamoi Navy Yard.
- (20) The Navy Mine Works.
- (21) The Navy Ordnance Bureau.
- (22) The First Navy Factory.
- (23) The Second Navy Factory.
- (24) The Naval College.
- (25) The Naval Training Barracks.
- (26) The Mine and Torpedo Training Station.
- (27) The Naval Hospital.
- (28) The Hydrographic Corps.
- (29) The Navy Special Service Corps.

The Chinese Navy entered the war with 59 units totalling 51,288 tons. It went into action on August 11, 1937 when the survey ships *Kan Lu*, *Kih Jih*, and *Ching Tien* and coast guard gunboats *Sui Ning* and *Wei Ning* removed all navigation signs and buoys, light houses and boats, and water marks below Kiangying in lower Yangtze. The same night they began the task of laying a boom across the Yangtze below the Kiangying fort by sinking ships in the river. Among the 28 ships that first went down were eight Chinese men-of-war. They were *Tung Chi* (cruiser, 1,900 tons), *Ta Tung* (sloop, 871 tons), *Tze Chiang* (sloop, 740 tons), *Teh Shen* (gunboat, 930 tons), *Wei Shen* (gunboat, 300 tons), *Wu Shen* (survey boat, 740 tons), *Su Tze* (torpedo boat, 90 tons), and *Chen Tze* (torpedo boat, 90 tons). Seven more ships were sunk in the second group with four warships: *Hai Yung* (cruiser, 2,950 tons), *Hai Chew* (cruiser, 2,950 tons), *Hai Chi* (cruiser, 4,300 tons), and *Hai Chen* (cruiser, 2,950 tons). Altogether 35 ships with an aggregate tonnage of more than 63,800 tons were sunk to build the Kiangying boom, besides eight barges, 185 ocean-going junks, and thousands of tons of stones. Transport *Pu An* (2,305 tons) formed another boom across the Whangpoo River.

The first casualty of the Chinese Navy was *Yung Chien* (sloop, 860 tons) which was undergoing repairs in the Shanghai Navy Yard. It was bombed and sunk on August 25, 1937. The next day, survey ship *Kih Jih* (500 tons) was sunk by enemy gunfire off the Nantung coast.

Although Japanese planes first attacked Chinese warships at Kiangying on August 16, 1937, it was not until September 22 and 23 that fierce battles were fought. On the 23rd, *Ping Hai* (cruiser, 2,600 tons, flagship) *Ning Hai* (cruiser, 2,600 tons) were sunk. On the 25th, *Yat Sen* (sloop, 1,500 tons, flagship) was damaged and beached and *Chien Kang* (destroyer, 395 tons) sunk by enemy aerial attacks. *Yat Sen* was later sunk. On the 29th, *Chu Yew* (gunboat, 745 tons, flagship) was attacked, beached and sunk on October 2,

Of the original four cruisers defending Kiangying, only the *Yin Swei* (cruiser, 2,460 tons) survived, though damaged, by the Japanese bombings. It was, however, bombed and sunk on October 25 when it was dismantling its guns at Tsaishihchi above Nanking. Prior

to that, the survey ship *Ching Tien* (280 tons) and torpedo boat *Hu Peng* (96 tons) were sunk on October 3, gunboat *Kiang Ning* (300 tons) was sunk on the 5th, and *Hu Ngo* (torpedo boat, 96 tons) was sunk on the 8th.

In mid-October, it was decided to dismantle naval guns from all warships to use them on land. Naval guns played important parts in the defense of Kiangying (Kiangsu), Matang (Kiangsi), Hukow (Kiangsi), Tienchiacheng (Hupeh) and Kotien (Hupeh) fortresses along the Yangtze.

After the fall of Nanking on December 13 the Chinese had laid down a second boom across the Yangtze at Matang. All approaches were mined and navigation signals below Kiukiang were removed. Then from Matang to Hukow new forts were erected on both sides of the river. For about four months after the fall of Nanking, there were no serious air vs naval engagements on the Yangtze. The first Japanese attack, in the form of bombing, occurred on March 27, 1938. One of the Chinese units was damaged.

In early summer, Japanese planes attacked the Chinese flotilla at Mamoi, Fukien. Four gunboats were sunk as a result of enemy action. They were *Fu Ning* (300 tons, sunk on May 31), *Chu Tai* (745 tons, sunk on June 1), *Cheng Ning* (300 tons, sunk on June 1), and *Su Ning* (300 tons, sunk on June 1).

Meanwhile, about 600 mines were laid down in front of the Matang boom. Tungliu and Hukow were similarly mined. As a counter-measure, the Japanese sent planes to find Chinese mine-layers. On July 1, *Chang Ning* (gunboat, 300 tons) and *Hsein Ning* (gunboat, 420 tons) were lost.

At this juncture, the Chinese Navy resorted to the use of motor torpedo boats. On July 14, the *Wen 93* succeeded in hitting a Japanese ship at Hukow. Despite being damaged by Japanese shelling, the boat returned to its base. On the night of July 17, the *Shih 223* and *Ngo 253* set out to find their prey. The attempt failed. One of them was sunk. Their base was later raided by Japanese planes on July 21. Two torpedo boats, the *Wen 42* and *Wen 88* were damaged. On August 1, the *Ngo 22* and *Yen 161* were attacked just when they were starting toward enemy ships. One of them

was sunk and the other disabled. The remaining boats were by the end of October ordered to be transferred to Canton defending the Pearl River.

At the same time, the fight between Chinese warships and Japanese planes continued. Gunboat *Chung Ning* (300 tons) was sunk on July 4, gunboat *Sui Ning* (300 tons) on the 13th, gunboat *Hai Ning* (300 tons) on the 14th, and gunboat *Kiang Chen* (565 tons) on the 20th. The torpedo boat *Hu Yin* (96 tons) was sunk on August 8.

The Chinese Navy took part in the defense of the Wuhan cities by laying mines to delay the enemy naval advance. On October 21, the sloop *Yung Chi* (860 tons) was sunk at Sinti. On the 24, the sloop *Chung Shan* (844 tons) was sunk at Kinkow. Meanwhile, the gunboat *Kung Shen* (280 tons) was sunk in Kwangtung.

Another encounter between the Chinese Navy and Japanese airplanes took place on November 11, 1938, when three gunboats, *Yi Shen* (350 tons), *Yung Shen* (280 tons), *Jen Shen* (260 tons), were sunk. On the 13th, the gunboat *Shun Shen* (380 tons) was scuttled to blockade one of the approaches to the Tungting Lake.

Since then, activities of the Chinese Navy have been concentrated on the use of drifting mines against Japanese shipping. Scores of enemy warships and merchantmen were sunk or damaged by native made mines released by naval guerilla mine-layers.

Whereas every year saw a number of new warships added to the Chinese Navy in the pre-war years, no new ship has been built in the five war years. The only additions are four river gunboats presented by the American and British governments. On March 17, 1942, the U.S.S. *Tutuila* was presented to the Chinese Navy by Lieutenant-Colonel James M. McHugh, representing the American government and the H.M.S. *Falcon*, H.M.S. *Gannet* and H.M.S. *Sandpiper* by the British government represented by Brigadier Gordon E. Grimsdale. Admiral Chen Shao-kwan, Commander-in-Chief of the Chinese Navy, accepted the gifts on behalf of the Chinese government. The U.S.S. *Tutuila* was renamed *Mei Yuan* (American Origin), the H.M.S. *Falcon*, *Ying Teh* (British Virtue), the H.M.S. *Gannet*, *Ying Shan* (British Mountain), and the H.M.S. *Sandpiper*, *Ying Hao* (British Hero).

NAVAL RANKS

Admiral of the Fleet	<i>Hai Chun Yi Chih Shang Chiang</i>
Admiral	<i>Hai Chun Shang Chiang</i>
Vice-Admiral	<i>Hai Chung Chung Chiang</i>
Rear-Admiral	<i>Hai Chun Shao Chiang</i>
Commodore	<i>Hai Chun Tai Chiang</i>
Captain	<i>Hai Chung Shang Hsiao</i>
Commander	<i>Hai Chun Chung Hsiao</i>
Lieutenant-Commander	<i>Hai Chun Shao Hsiao</i>
Lieutenant	<i>Hai Chun Shang Wei</i>
Junior-Lieutenant	<i>Hai Chun Chung Wei</i>
Sub-Lieutenant	<i>Hai Chun Shao Wei</i>

NAVAL VESSELS

The Chinese Navy has at present 15 warships in two squadrons:

THE FIRST SQUADRON

Name of Ship	Class	Tonnage	Built	Length	Beam	Draught	Speed	Armament
<i>Kiang Yuan</i>	Gunboat	550 tons	1904	180 ft.	28	7.5	12 k.	1 4.7-in. 1 3-in. 4 3-pdr. 6 Maxims.
<i>Chu Tung</i>	"	740 tons	1907	200 ft.	30	8	11 k.	2 4.7-in. 2 3-in. 3 6-pdr. 1 2-pdr. A.A.
<i>Chu Chien</i>	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
<i>Chu Kwan</i>	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
<i>Wei Ning</i>	"	300 tons	1933	140.9 ft.	20	7	11 k.	2 5.7-cm.
<i>Yi Ning</i>	"	300 tons	1934	"	"	"	"	"
<i>Ting An</i>	Transport	1,969 tons	1901	218 ft.	33	19	10 k.
<i>Ke An</i>	"	1,242 tons	1903	230 ft.	33	19	9 k.

THE SECOND SQUADRON

Name of Ship	Class	Tonnage	Built	Length	Beam	Draught	Speed	Armament
<i>Yung Sui</i>	Gunboat	600 tons	1929	224 ft.	30	7.5	18 k.	1 12-cm. 1 4.7-in. 2 3-pdr. 2 4.7-cm. 1 8-cm. A.A. 1 2-cm. A.A.
<i>Ming Chuen</i>	"	464 tons	1929	196 ft.	26	6.9	17 k.	1 4.7-in. 1 10-cm. 2 5.7-cm. 1 8-cm. A.A. 1 2-cm. A.A.
<i>Mei Yuan</i>	"	370 tons	2 3-in.
<i>Ying Teh</i>	"	372 tons	1 3.7-in.
<i>Ying Shan</i>	"	310 tons	2 3-in.
<i>Ying Hao</i>	"	185 tons	1 3.7-in.
<i>Hu Tsuin</i>	Torpedo-boat	96 tons	1906	132 ft.	16.5	7.6	14 k.	1 4.7-cm. 1 3.7-cm. 3 14-in. T.T.

Besides the two squadrons, the Chinese Navy has four mining corps, each with seven companies, distributed along the Yangtze River. Each company in the Second Mining Corps has two platoons. Each corps has a number of radio stations to keep in contact with the headquarters, the corps and companies.

The First Ichang-Patung Fortress Area Headquarters has two forts with five sub-forts and two smoke screen companies. The Second Ichang-Patung Fortress Area Headquarters has two forts with four sub-forts and two smoke screen companies. The First Patung-Wanh sien Fortress Area Headquarters controls three forts. The second Patung-Wanh sien Fortress Area Headquarters controls two forts. The four area headquarters defend the Yangtze approach from Ichang to Chungking. The Wu River Fortress Headquarters controls two forts, defending the Wu River in Chekiang.

NAVAL EDUCATION

The primary institution for the training of Chinese naval officers is the Naval College where courses are offered in navigation and engineering. British officers were engaged in 1930 as instructors. It was formerly situated at Mamoi, but removed to Hunan and later to northern Kweichow in September, 1938. Altogether more than 900 midshipmen have graduated from this school since its establishment in 1867. Although the cadets have less chance to familiarize themselves with the sea and ships, they are not neglecting the study of modern maritime knowledge and naval strategy.

Besides, the Naval Training Barracks are training enlisted men for service at naval stations and ships. The Mine and Torpedo Training Station trains men in the manufacturing and employment of mines and torpedos. The use of drifting mines and torpedos gives more significance to this station.

APPENDIX

EMERGENCY LAW GOVERNING THE PUNISHMENT FOR CRIMES DETRIMENTAL TO SECURITY OF THE CHINESE REPUBLIC

(Promulgated and enforced on September 4, 1937)

Article I. Anyone guilty of one of the following, violating the security of the state, shall be liable to capital punishment:

- (1) Those who communicate with enemy countries aiming at disturbing public safety;
- (2) Those who cooperate with rebels aiming at disturbing public safety;

- (3) Those who buy or transport military materials for enemy countries or rebels;
- (4) Those who transmit or give out military or political secrets to enemy countries or rebels;
- (5) Those who destroy communication or military installations;
- (6) Those who instigate military men to violate discipline to neglect their duties, or to collaborate with enemy countries or rebels;
- (7) Those who instigate others to communicate with enemy countries, or collaborate with rebels, or disturb public safety;
- (8) Those who spread rumors to mislead the public, undermine military morale, or disturb public safety;
- (9) Those who conduct through literature, pictures, or speeches, propaganda beneficial to enemy countries or rebels.

Anyone who is guilty of one of the above offenses as a result of instigation of other people but denounces himself to the authorities before discovery, may receive lighter sentences or be free from punishment.

REGULATIONS GOVERNING TREATMENT OF PRISONERS OF WAR

(Promulgated by the National Military Council on October 15, 1937)

CHAPTER I. GENERAL PROVISIONS

Article I. All prisoners of war shall be treated according to these regulations unless otherwise provided for by treaties.

Article II. The following members of the enemy shall be taken as prisoners:

- (1) Officers and men of armed forces and organized volunteers and militia and those who serve with armed units;
- (2) Important high officials of the enemy government;
- (3) Officials in occupied territory;
- (4) Unorganized civilians who voluntarily participate in fighting;
- (5) Enemy aliens between 15 and 60 years old who have not returned to their countries within a proclaimed time limit;
- (6) Persons with no definite status or of suspicious character.

Article III. Enemy officers, officials, soldiers, and civilians who give themselves up shall be also taken as prisoners of war until they are safely placed at designated concentration points.

Article IV. The following enemy personnel shall not be taken as prisoners of war:

- (1) First aid workers and those who undertake transportation work in first aid corps;
- (2) Missionaries;
- (3) Members of a military delegation;
- (4) Enemy aliens below 15 or above 60 years old, or women, or men not within the age limit of this paragraph but crippled, who have not returned to their countries within a proclaimed time limit.

Such people shall lose their exemption privilege if they :

- (1) Carry or hold arms ;
- (2) Gather military information ;
- (3) Intend to or actually help the enemy troops ;
- (4) Participate in hostile acts ;
- (5) Refuse to submit to restrictions or inspection ;
- (6) Lie about their status, age, or pretend to be crippled.

CHAPTER II. MANAGEMENT

Article V. All prisoners of war shall be subjected to strict examination.

Article VI. With the exception of arms, horses, military literature, and other articles of military nature that have to be confiscated, prisoners of war shall be permitted to keep their money, certificates, badges, medals, etc.,

All property confiscated shall be duly recorded.

Article VII. All prisoners of war shall be removed to safe districts away from the front line. Those who are seriously wounded and cannot be removed may remain for treatment.

Article VIII. All prisoners of war shall be placed in special concentration camps.

Article IX. All prisoners of war shall be required to give the following information which shall be duly recorded :

- (1) Name, age, nationality, address, and profession ;
- (2) Rank and the name of units or office they belong to ;
- (3) Name and address of family members or relatives ;
- (4) Date and place taken prisoner.

Article X. After examination, the following particulars about the prisoners of war shall be transmitted in accordance with international usage to their native country for transmission to their families :

- (1) Particulars listed in paragraphs 1 and 2 of the preceding Article ;
- (2) Place of detention.

CHAPTER III. TREATMENT

Article XI. Prisoners of war shall be given same treatment as military men or civilians of China. Due respect shall be given to their good name and character.

Article XII. There shall be no acts of brutality, threats, or cheating to force or induce prisoners of war to disclose military information of their own countries.

Article XIII. No prisoners of war shall be used to resist the attack of their own army.

Article XIV. Prisoners of war shall be given the same food, bedding, and clothing as military men and civilians of China.

Article XV. When wounded and sick, prisoners of war shall receive proper treatment at medical institutions and follow the advice of medical commissions.

Article XVI. When under medical treatment, prisoners of war shall be given necessary food according to doctor's orders.

Article XVII. When wounded or sick, prisoners of war may request to engage their own physicians or be transferred to other hospitals. All such expenses shall be borne by the prisoners themselves.

Article XVIII. Speedy response shall be given when prisoners of war request an investigation into concentration camps.

Article XIX. Prisoners of war may exchange correspondence, send or receive money, bedding, clothing, books, and other necessary articles within the scope of these regulations.

Article XX. All letters and parcels sent by prisoners of war shall be sent free of postal charge.

Article XXI. Prisoners of war may send telegrams at their own expense.

Article XXII. Prisoners of war may buy at their own expense food, books and daily articles within the scope of these regulations.

Article XXIII. Any complaints prisoners of war may have shall be lodged with the highest military administrative organ.

CHAPTER IV. CONTROL

Article XXIV. Prisoners of war shall be housed in special concentration camps. Except for punishment or emergency, public safety or health measures, no prisoner shall be confined.

Article XXV. Prisoners of war shall be organized into units led by specially appointed officers. Prisoner officers may be appointed as assistants.

Article XXVI. Prisoners of war shall be guarded by troops. The same applies to wounded or sick prisoners who are undergoing treatment in hospital at their own expense.

Article XXVII. Money and other articles of the prisoners shall be kept by concentration camp authorities. The prisoners may call for and use the same when necessary. All articles shall be duly registered and the record signed by the prisoners.

Article XXVIII. All correspondence, telegraphic messages, parcels, books, and articles bought or brought in from outside shall be examined.

Article XXIX. The following articles sent to the prisoners are subject to confiscation :

- (1) Articles against the law or of dangerous character ;
- (2) Poison ;
- (3) Literature, books, pictures, or articles of military nature or insulting to China ;

- (4) Newspapers ;
- (5) Correspondence and telegraphic messages in code or secret language or of instigating nature.

Article XXX. The following articles cannot be bought by prisoners :

- (1) Articles against the law or of dangerous character ;
- (2) Articles easily combustible ;
- (3) Articles endangering general health ;
- (4) Medicines not prescribed by medical officers ;
- (5) Other unnecessary articles.

Article XXXI. Complaints lodged by prisoners of war shall be transmitted at once. No delay is allowed.

Article XXXII. Concentration camp authorities are to pursue prisoners of war who escape from the camp. No shooting is allowed unless necessary.

The provision of this Article is not applicable when the prisoners of war are engaged in riots, seize arms, or use arms to facilitate their escape.

CHAPTER V. LABOR SERVICE

Article XXXIII. Prisoners of war may be summoned to render labor service according to their rank and ability.

Article XXXIV. Labor service by prisoners of war shall be limited to eight hours a day. There shall be no work on holidays.

Article XXXV. Prisoners of war rendering labor service may receive remuneration as follows :

- (1) No pay for work done for the management, installations, and protection of the concentration camp ;
- (2) Fifty per cent of the ordinary wage for government work ;
- (3) Full wage for private work.

Article XXXVI. Prisoner laborers shall be organized into units led and guarded by officers and men.

Article XXXVII. In ordinary times, prisoners of war shall not undertake the following works :

- (1) Work directly or indirectly related to military affairs ;
- (2) Work endangering general health.

CHAPTER VI. PUNISHMENT

Article XXXVIII. Prisoners of war shall obey Chinese laws, violations of which shall be dealt with as follows :

- (1) Ordinary offenses shall be punished by the camp command in accordance with law ;
- (2) Criminal offenses shall be examined by the highest military authority. A special military tribunal may be requested by camp authorities when necessary.

Under section two, the highest military authority may appoint a special military tribunal composed of local judicial or administrative officers with special military tribunal powers to deal with the case. Sentences passed shall be duly reported to the higher authorities.

Article XXXIX. The protective country of the prisoners of war shall be notified after sentences against them are passed.

No sentence can be carried out until three months after this notification.

Article XL. A prisoner of war waiting to have his sentence carried out may be kept under confinement.

Article XLI. With the exception of especially severe cases, offending prisoners of war shall be dealt with as lightly as possible.

Article XLII. Offending prisoners of war shall not be deprived of their civil rights, ranks and medals.

Article XLIII. Prisoners of war who attempt to escape or help in escape may be kept under confinement

Article XLIV. Prisoners of war shall not be punished on account of groundless complaints made by them about alleged bad treatment in concentration camps.

Article XLV. Prisoners of war shall not be punished with brutality, cruelty, or hard labor.

Article XLVI. Prisoners of war who are due to be released or sent back but have not yet concluded their sentences shall be detained for the duration of the sentences.

CHAPTER 7. RELEASE OR REPATRIATION

Article XLVII. The release or repatriation of prisoners of war shall be carried out according to terms provided for in the armistice agreement or peace treaty.

Article XLVIII. When prisoners of war are released or repatriated, their private property shall be returned.

Article XLIX. Prisoners of war who are serving sentences or who cannot be transported on account of illness or wounds shall be repatriated to their own countries after their release or recovery.

When prisoners of war are released or repatriated the governments of their countries shall be duly informed.

Article L. Transportation cost for prisoners of war outside of the national boundary shall be paid by their own countries.

CHAPTER 8. DEATH

Article LI. In case of death, the deceased prisoner of war shall be given burial according to his rank.

Article LII. After the death of a prisoner of war, a death certificate shall be prepared and a picture taken, together with his will and private property, and sent to his family in accordance with international usage.

The death certificate shall be prepared according to forms determined by the court.

Article LIII. The following particulars of a deceased prisoner of war shall be duly recorded:

- (1) Name and nationality;
- (2) Serial number of the death certificate;
- (3) Place of burial.

Article LIV. The tomb of a deceased prisoner of war shall be duly marked, giving the following details;

- (1) Name and nationality;
- (2) Time of death.

CHAPTER 9. APPENDIX

Article LV. These regulations shall be enforced from the day of their publication. If an agreement on prisoners of war is concluded with enemy countries, the provisions of the said agreement shall be followed.

REGULATIONS GOVERNING THE PUNISHMENT OF TRAITORS (Promulgated on August 15, 1938)

Article I. All cases of high treason shall be dealt with according to these regulations.

Article II. Anyone who, in collaboration with an enemy country, participates in one of the following acts is a traitor and shall be punished by death or life imprisonment:

- (1) Attempts to revolt against China;
- (2) Attempts to disturb peace and order;
- (3) Recruits an army or men and labor for military purposes;
- (4) Supplies, sells, buys or transports military equipment or materials for the manufacture of arms and munitions;
- (5) Supplies, sells, buys and transports rice, wheat, flour, cereals, and other food-stuffs;
- (6) Supplies money and other property;
- (7) Transmits, spies, steals, or gives away military, political, or economic information, literature, pictures, or articles;
- (8) Acts as guide or performs other work of military nature;
- (9) Hinders government officials in the execution of their duties;
- (10) Disturbs financial stability;
- (11) Disturbs communication, transportation, or military defense works or blockades;
- (12) Poisons drinking water or food;
- (13) Instigates military men, officials, or the public to revolt and join the enemy;
- (14) Succumbs to treasonable instigation.

Article III. Those who harbor or protect violators of Article II shall be punished as co-offenders.

Article IV. Those who try to hide violators listed in Article II shall be sentenced to imprisonment for life or not less than seven years.

Article V. Those who make a false accusation shall be given the same punishment he sought to bring on the accused.

Article VI. Unaccomplished violators of these regulations shall be punished.

Article VII. Those who plan to violate Articles II and III shall be imprisoned for not less than seven years; those who violate Articles IV and V shall be imprisoned for not more than seven years and not less than one year.

Article VIII. Anything gained as a result of violating these regulations and any article used in connection therewith shall be confiscated whether it belongs to the offender or not.

Article IX. Those who violate Article II shall have their entire property confiscated.

The violator still at large but whose arrest has been ordered by the National Government, may have his property confiscated before his arrest.

The violator, still at large for whom no order of arrest has been issued, may have a part or the entire property sealed by the highest military authority.

Article X. When the entire property of an offender is confiscated or sealed according to these regulations, a sum shall be appropriated as living expenses for his family.

Article XI. The local government shall be entrusted with the confiscation or sealing of property according to these regulations.

When entrusted with such work, the local government shall make a record and duly report to the highest military authority.

Article XII. Property confiscated according to Article VIII shall be handed over to a nearby military depot or local administrative office, which shall duly report to the highest military authority.

Article XIII. The executing office shall make a public notification of property confiscated or sealed according to these regulations.

Article XIV. Those violating these regulations shall be subject to the jurisdiction of military tribunals. Final decisions shall be made by the highest military authority.

Article XV. Sentences handed down according to these regulations shall have the text prepared within five days and, together with the defendant's statement and records and evidence, sent to the highest military authority for instructions. In emergency, however, the facts and reasons for taking such emergency measures may be reported by wire.

In places close to combat areas, the war area commander is entrusted with the right to examine the sentence and report to the highest military authority for record.

Article XVI. The highest military authority may directly investigate, appoint a special investigator, or order the transfer of jurisdiction over a particular case.

Article XVII. Provisions of criminal law and criminal procedure may be applied when not contrary to these regulations.

Article XVIII. Violators who give themselves up before discovery of their offenses shall be dealt with in accordance with the Law Governing the Self-Surrender of Traitors.

Article XIX. These regulations shall be enforced beginning from the day of their promulgation.

WARTIME MILITARY LAW OF CHINA

(Promulgated on April 4, 1942)

Article I. This Law is applicable to military men, local militia men, and public functionaries in wartime. Persons with no special status are subject to Articles VI to VIII only.

Article II. Those evacuating a defense area without order, thus causing a great military loss, shall be punished by death.

Article III. Those who skulk when going into battle or use a pretext and refuse to advance shall be punished by death.

Article IV. Those who refuse to obey orders or refuse to follow commands when facing the enemy shall be punished by death.

Article V. Those who surrender to the enemy shall be punished by death.

Article VI. Those who plan or instigate revolts detrimental to the conduct of war shall be punished by death.

Article VII. Those who disturb public peace and order in the rear intending to handicap the prosecution of war shall be punished by death.

Article VIII. Those who spread rumors to undermine public and army morale, intending to handicap the prosecution of war, shall be punished by death.

Article IX. Those who let the army mistreat the people shall be punished by death.

Article X. Those who desert and carry with them arms and munitions or other important military material shall be punished by death.

Article XI. Those who commit looting or raping shall be punished by death.

Article XII. Those who protect smuggling shall be punished by death.

Article XIII. Those who make false accounts of military materials shall be punished by death,

life imprisonment, or not less than ten years of imprisonment.

Article XIV. Those who commit one of the following offenses shall be imprisoned for life or for not less than ten years:

- (1) Refuse to advance to assigned positions or leave assigned positions without permission;
- (2) Delay by pretext the carrying out of an order to advance;
- (3) Give false information about the enemy thus affecting adversely the commander's decision;
- (4) Under-estimate enemy strength and make no proper preparations;
- (5) Make false report on war results or fail to report failures in engagements;
- (6) Fail to accomplish missions as a result of not faithfully carrying out orders concerning an engagement or its plans;
- (7) Neglect the duty to safeguard arms and munitions and other important war materials, allowing them to be lost destroyed, or burned;
- (8) In places close to the war area, remove an office without permission of local military commanders.

When detrimental to the conduct of war, the above-mentioned offenses shall be punishable by death.

Article XV. Commanders leaving their units without reason will be imprisoned for not less than seven years. When such absence becomes detrimental to the conduct of war or causes unforeseen accidents the offenders shall be punished by death.

Article XVI. Those who fail to carry out contracts relating to military supplies and national defense in wartime shall be imprisoned for not less than three years and not more than ten years.

When detrimental to the conduct of war, the above-mentioned offense is punishable by death.

Those who commit the above-mentioned offense by mistake shall be imprisoned for less than three years.

The offenders of this article may be required to fulfill their contracts.

Article XVII. Those who leave behind sick or wounded officers and soldiers without reason shall be imprisoned for not less than seven years.

Article XVIII. Those who employ military vessels, vehicles, or airplanes for private purposes shall be imprisoned for not less than five years and not more than ten years.

Article XIX. Those committing offenses listed in this law, except when in war areas where war area commanders can order the death punishment of an offender in emergency

and duly report to the highest military authority, shall be tried by military tribunals according to the following procedure and duly reported to the highest military authority:

- (1) Military men shall be tried according to provisions of the Criminal Procedure for the Land, Naval, and Air Forces Cases;
- (2) Militia men and public functionaries shall be tried according to section one in accordance with their ranks;
- (3) Others shall be tried directly by a military judge.

Article XX. In war areas, violators of this law, except those who must be tried by high military tribunal, may be dealt with directly by the war area commanders who shall duly report the facts and sentences for record.

The highest military authority may order the direct investigation, the appointment of a special investigator, and transfer of jurisdiction of any of the preceding cases.

Article XXI. Offenses not listed in this law shall be dealt with according to the Army, Naval, and Air Forces Criminal Law.

Article XXII. This law shall be enforced from the day of its publication.

MILITARY SECRETS PROTECTION LAW

(Promulgated on December 17, 1932)

Article I. Those who give away or publicize secret military information, literature, pictures, or articles known or kept by them because of their professions shall be punished by death or life imprisonment.

Those who intend to violate this article shall be imprisoned for life.

Those who violate this article by mistake shall be imprisoned for not less than five years.

Article II. Those who give away or publicize secret military information, literature, pictures, or articles secured by spying shall be punished by death or life imprisonment.

Those who have access to secret military information, literature, pictures, or articles not through spying, but give away or publicize the same with the full knowledge that the same should be kept secret, shall be punished by death or life imprisonment.

Article III. Those who by force make the owner or keeper surrender or steal secret military information, literature, pictures, or articles with the full knowledge that the same are secret, shall be punished by death or life imprisonment.

Article IV. Those who spy, collect, or hide secret military information, literature, pictures, or articles which should not be known or kept by them by reasons of their professions shall be imprisoned for not less than three years and not more than ten years.

Article V. Those who, without permission or securing permission by artful scheme, enter or stay in a fortress, fort, naval base, barracks, military vessel and warship, airport and airfield, arsenal and military depot, or other place and installation of national defense shall be imprisoned for not less than one year and not more than seven years.

Those who secure entrance to the aforesaid installations by force or artful scheme with arms or other explosives shall be imprisoned for not less than ten years.

Article VI. Those who without permission or securing permission by artful scheme survey, photo, or paint the places and installations, or record the conditions of the said places and installations listed in the first section of Article V shall be imprisoned for not less than one year and not more than seven years. Those who thus violate Article IV shall be imprisoned for not less than three years and not more than ten years.

Article VII. The money or property secured by violating these regulations shall be confiscated. When the entire property or part of it cannot be confiscated, the value of the same property shall be confiscated.

MARTIAL LAW

(Promulgated on November 29, 1934)

Article I. In case of war, when it is necessary to take stringent measures throughout the country or in particular areas, the National Government may, with the approval of the Legislative Yuan, declare martial law according to this law.

Article II. Areas declaring martial law may be divided into:

- (1) A guard zone where stringent measures are taken against eventualities in war;
- (2) A combat zone where the armies fight during a war.

A guard zone and combat zone will be demarcated and proclaimed when necessary.

Article III. In time of war, when a fortress, naval base, naval yard, or a particular area is suddenly attacked by the enemy, or in emergency, the local commander may declare a temporary state of emergency.

The temporary state of emergency shall be duly reported to the National Government for ratification.

Article IV. The following commanders are allowed to exercise the right to declare a state of emergency according to Article III:

- (1) A specially appointed commander;
- (2) An army commander;
- (3) A division commander;
- (4) A brigade commander;
- (5) A fortress commander;
- (6) A fleet commander;
- (7) A naval port commander.

Article V. When martial law is declared in a territory, the local highest commander shall immediately report to the National Government and higher military authorities on the condition and on all measures taken.

Article VI. The territory placed under martial law may be changed when necessary.

Provisions listed in paragraph 2 of Article III and Article V shall apply when the territory placed under martial law is changed.

Article VII. When martial law is in force local administrative and judicial officials in a combat zone shall follow the instructions of the highest local commander in dealing with matters related to military affairs.

Article VIII. When martial law is in force, all local administrative and judicial authorities in a combat zone shall be transferred to the highest local commander and all local administrative and judicial officials shall be placed under the direction of the commander.

Article IX. In a combat zone, military offices have jurisdiction over the following criminal offenses;

- (1) Revolt;
- (2) Treason;
- (3) Disturbing peace and order;
- (4) Endangering public safety;
- (5) Counterfeiting money, negotiable bonds, documents, and seals;
- (6) Homicide;
- (7) Interference with freedom;
- (8) Robbery, looting, and piracy;
- (9) Blackmail and kidnapping for ransom;
- (10) Destruction of public property.

Article X. In a combat zone, criminal and civil cases may be handled by local military offices when there is no court or when communication with the local court has been interrupted.

Article XI. Those sentenced according to Articles IX and X can appeal the day after the martial law is lifted.

Article XII. The highest commander in the territory placed under martial law has the right to:

- (1) Ban public gatherings, organizations, or newspapers, magazines, pictures, posters, slogans that are detrimental to war;
- (2) Open and read letters and telegrams and hold or confiscate the same when necessary;
- (3) Examine vessels, vehicles, airplanes that enter or leave the territory and suspend communications and blockade principal roads and lines when necessary;
- (4) Examine suspicious travellers;
- (5) Examine privately owned arms, munitions, weapons, and other dangerous articles and hold or confiscate the same when necessary;

(6) Examine installations, vessels, suspicious residences in combat zones, but not deliberately destroy or damage the same;

(7) When necessary, order the evacuation of civilians living in a combat zone;

(8) Destroy civilian property as required by conditions of war, but make due compensation therefore.

Article XIII. In territory under martial law, privately owned foodstuffs and articles may be investigated and registered, and their exportation forbidden when necessary.

In case of expropriation when necessary, due compensation shall be given.

Article XIV. During emergency, the National Government may, without waiting for the approval of the Legislative Yuan, declare a state of martial law in a particular territory, but shall not interfere with the duties of local administrative and judicial organs. In case of criminal offenses related to the prosecution of war, the local military organization may take up the case with the local judicial organ and hand over the case to the local court after investigation.

Provisions listed in Articles IV, V, VI, XII, and XIII may be applied when the state of martial law is declared according to this article.

Article XV. The state of martial law shall be lifted when the condition for declaring martial law no longer exists and everything should return to normal.

Article XVI. This law shall be in force from the day of its promulgation.

AIR DEFENSE LAW

(Promulgated on August 19, 1937)

Article I. This law is made to guard against enemy air raids, to reduce the damages, resulting therefrom, to safeguard national safety, and to protect the life and property of the people.

Article II. The highest military organization under the National Government is responsible for air defense work throughout the country. All things concerning the various Yuan, ministries, committees, departments, and local offices shall be carried out with the cooperation and collaboration of the different offices.

Article III. People of the Republic of China shall have the duty to serve and to supply materials for air defense.

In time of war or emergency, the people and civil airplanes and vessels in navigation shall have the duty to look out for the movement of airplanes belonging to the enemy country and countries sympathetic to the enemy and report the same to nearby military and police or air defense headquarters.

Article IV. Aliens with or without nationality or alien corporations having residence, property,

office, business, in the territory of the Republic of China shall all have duties of air defense. But the said duties shall not be in conflict with treaties and international law.

Article V. Those with one of the following conditions may be free from air defense service :

- (1) Crippled ;
- (2) With mental disease ;
- (3) Unfit for service because of age and health conditions ;
- (4) Engaged in government offices or serving in the standing army and unable to discontinue their work.

Article VI. The following conduct shall be sanctioned by the highest military organization under the National Government or its appointed organization :

- (1) Dealing in air defense materials and tools ;
- (2) Publishing or distributing air defense literature ;
- (3) Showing air defense pictures ;
- (4) Conducting air defense exhibits.

Article VII. In time of war or emergency, air defense information or alarm may have priority in the use of government, public, and private communication facilities, and may improve or change the same facilities.

Article VIII. With the permission or cooperation of local military and political authorities, air defense authorities may exercise the following power when necessary :

In case of Sections 6 and 7 the permission of the highest military authority shall be secured.

- (1) Order the people to participate in air defense or preparatory measures ;
- (2) Order the use of hospitals and clinics owned by the people or aliens for air defense use ;
- (3) Expropriate land or installations of the people according to law ;
- (4) Improve or enlarge streets, or the entirety or part of residences or buildings ;
- (5) Order or restrict the movement of the people ;
- (6) Forbid or restrict the movement of civil airplanes ;
- (7) Levy air defense surtax ;
- (8) When necessary, order the surrender of or investigate into materials concerning air defense.

Article IX. Violation of Articles III, IV, and VI shall be punished by not more than 30 days of penal servitude or not more than \$100 of fine. The punishment will be doubled if the offender instigates others to commit the offense.

Article X. Those who give away air defense secrets or destroy air defense installations, thus handicapping air defense work or bringing about dangers, shall be punished according to

the Army Naval, and Air Forces Criminal Law or the Military Secrets Protection Law.

Article XI. Expenditures incurred in air defense and installations shall be met by the National Government and local authorities according to the nature and actual conditions of the expenditure.

Article XII. When privately owned land or buildings are expropriated for air defense works, the losses incurred shall be borne by the local government.

Article XIII. When killed, wounded, or falling ill as a result of participating in air defense, the National Government or the local authorities shall pay for burial, pension, and medical expenses according to law.

Article XIV. Regulations governing the application of this law will be made by the highest military organization of the National Government.

Article XV. This law shall be enforced from the day of its promulgation.

CONSCRIPTION LAW

The Conscription Law now in force was promulgated after revision on March 15, 1943, superseding the one first promulgated on June 17, 1933 and enforced since March 1, 1936. Two supplementary regulations were adopted in 1939 and 1942 to meet demands arising from actual war needs.

CHAPTER I. GENERAL PROVISIONS

Article I. Male citizens of the Republic of China shall have the glorious duty of undertaking military service according to this law.

Article II. Military service shall be divided into militia service and regular service.

Article III. Male citizens shall begin military service on January 1 following their 18th birthday and complete military service on December 31 of their 45th year.

Article IV. Those crippled or with chronic disease and not fit for military service shall be exempt from military service.

Article V. Those imprisoned for life or deprived of their civil rights for life shall not perform military service.

CHAPTER II. SERVICE

Article VI. Militia service shall be divided into :

- A. Two years of elementary militia service for male citizens following their 18th birthday ;
- B. First-class militia service until their 45th year for those who have completed the elementary militia service but are not drafted for regular service ;
- C. Second-class militia service until their 45th year for those who have completed the elementary militia service but are not drafted for regular service or for first-class militia service.

Both first and second-class militia services shall be completed at the age of 45.

Article VII. Regular service shall be divided into :

- A. Standing service for male citizens after their 20th year. They shall be drafted for a two-year service after passing examinations. Non-commissioned officers in the infantry and men in special arms and trades shall serve for three years.

Students who have completed senior middle school and gone through military training in their schools shall be required to serve only one year in ordinary branches of arms and one and a half years in special arms.

After the completion of standing service, men may remain in actual service at their own request.

- B. Reserve service until their 45th year for those who have completed standing service.

Article VIII. Militia service men shall receive military training in time of peace and shall be called to the colors in time of war or emergency to :

- A. Reinforce the regular army ;
- B. Serve as auxiliary units ;
- C. Maintain peace and order.

Article IX. Standing service may be postponed for one of the following reasons but shall be resumed when the reason no longer exists :

- A. Being ill for six months or more.
- B. Sentenced to imprisonment or deprived of civil rights.

Article X. The term of standing service may be prolonged because of one of the following conditions :

- A. War or national crisis ;
- B. Cruises or duty abroad ;
- C. Important maneuvers or inspections ;
- D. Natural calamity or other emergencies.

CHAPTER III. ADMINISTRATION

Article XI. The Ministry of Military Affairs shall be responsible for the enforcement of conscription. The Ministry of Interior shall assist in conscription work. Other government offices shall assist in the work when they are concerned.

Article XII. For the enforcement of conscription, the nation shall be divided into command districts under the Ministry of Military Affairs with respective district headquarters.

Article XIII. Provincial and special municipality governments, under the direction and supervision of the Ministries of Military Affairs and Interior, shall help the command district headquarters in all conscription matters. Governors and special municipality mayors shall be supervisors of conscription in provinces and municipalities.

Article XIV. Magistrates and ordinary municipality mayors under the direction and supervision of superior district headquarters, shall take care of conscription matters in their respective districts.

CHAPTER IV. DRAFT

Article XV. Male citizens, after their 18th birthday, shall be subject to militia service and after their 20th birthday shall be subject to regular service. When they reach military age for regular service, draft candidates shall go through the following processes :

- A. Investigation of personal history ;
- B. Physical Examination ;
- C. Drawing of lots ;
- D. Calling to barracks.

The draft processes shall be administered by conscription committees composed of representatives of the command district headquarters and special municipal, county, and ordinary municipal governments and related offices.

Article XVI. The investigation of personal history shall take place from April to June in each year. Consular offices shall investigate those living abroad.

Article XVII. Physical examination shall be held each year from July to September in the draft candidates' home towns or other places of residence. Those who fail to be examined during the year may be examined the next year.

Article XVIII. The drawing of lots shall be held each year in October. Those physically fit shall be called to service in different arms according to the sequence of lots. The drawing shall be performed by the candidates themselves. The conscription committee shall draw for absentees.

Article XIX. Draftees shall be called to barracks in their home towns. Those who live in other cities may, upon request, report to other barracks. Those drafted for standing service shall report to barracks on January 1 of each year. Supplementary dates may be set when necessary.

Article XX. Men of military age may delay their service in case :

- A. They are sent abroad by the government and cannot return within three years ;
- B. They are in poor health, as certified by qualified physicians ;
- C. They have lost parents or wife less than one month previously ;
- D. They are college students under 25 years old ;
- E. They have families to support and have no brothers ;
- F. They are involved in a law suit.

The candidates shall be drafted when the reason for delay no longer exists.

CHAPTER V. CALL

Article XXI. Men in reserve and militia services shall be subjected to the following calls :

- A. Military Training ;
- B. Maneuvering ;
- C. Mobilization ;
- D. Inspection ;
- E. Emergency duties.

Article XXII. Men in reserve and first class militia services may postpone responding to mobilization if they are :

- A. Qualified school teachers ;
- B. Qualified public functionaries of or above the recommended rank ;
- C. Qualified technicians in war industries and communication services ;
- D. Police ;
- E. Classified under Articles IX and XX.

When the reason for delay no longer exists, the candidates shall be mobilized as usual.

Article XXIII. The following may be exempted from military training, maneuvering, inspection, and emergency calls :

- A. Those classified under Article IX and Sections A, B, and F, of Article XX ;
- B. Seamen on cruises abroad.

CHAPTER VI. PRIVILEGES AND DUTIES

Article XXIV. The following privileges may be accorded men in standing service :

- A. Postponement of the payment of debts incurred before service until the second year after their discharge from standing service ;

- B. Livelihood support for wives, parents and children ;
- C. Priority in applying for jobs in factories, schools, and government offices ;
- D. Privileges provided for in pension and compensation laws.

Article XXV. Men in reserve and militia services when in training and taking part in maneuvers shall retain their jobs, with pay.

Article XXVI. Men in active service shall be obliged :

- A. To vow their loyalty to the National Government of the Republic of China ;
- B. To keep all secrets in connection with their duties, even after the completion of their services ;
- C. To refrain from joining organizations without permission of superior officers ;
- D. To refrain from marriage without permission of superior officers.

CHAPTER VII.—SUPPLEMENT

Article XXVII. Women between 18 and 45 years old shall be subject to call to perform auxiliary service in time of war, when detailed regulations for their service are promulgated.

Article XXVIII. Volunteer service shall be governed by a separate law.

Article XXIX. Service in naval and air force shall be governed by the conscription law when not subject to special regulations.

Article XXX. Punishment for violations of this law shall be governed by separate regulations.

Article XXXI. The application of this law shall be decided separately.

Article XXXII. This law will be effective on the date of its promulgation.

CHAPTER IX

THE SINO-JAPANESE HOSTILITIES

HOW THE WAR BEGAN

The present Sino-Japanese War was the culmination of a series of aggressive acts consistent with the Japanese designs for world hegemony. The root of hostilities may be traced back to the seizure of Formosa in 1895 and of Korea in 1910. On September 18, 1931, Japan created the Mukden Incident. Chinese restraint facilitated the progress of the enemy's well prepared plans, leading up to the occupation of the four northeastern provinces: Liaoning, Kirin, Heilungkiang and Jehol.

The virtual walk-over whetted Japan's overweening ambition, and steadily her tentacles crept across the Great Wall and to the heart of North China. An autonomy movement was launched, aiming at the creation of a five-province puppet state embodying Hopei, Shantung, Shansi, Chahar, and Suiyuan, but Japan's efforts, threat, and coercion brought about only the establishment of a Political Council for Hopei and Chahar provinces.

Almost from the very moment of its organization, the Council was faced with difficulties fostered by the Japanese. Their North China garrisons were increased in spite of protests. In the spring of 1936, they demanded co-operation against Communists and also in the economic development of Hopei and Chahar. Two minor incidents were seized as bases of strong protests, resulting in Fengtai, a junction station of a branch railway linking the Peiping-Mukden and the Peiping-Hankow railways, being deprived of a local garrison. Lukouchiao, or Marco Polo Bridge, near Peiping, is the other junction station of the branch line.

On the night of July 7, 1937, the Japanese held large-scale maneuvers in the vicinity of Lukouchiao. One of their soldiers was alleged to be missing and the demand was made to search the district city of Wanping at Lukouchiao. This being turned down, firing started. The Chinese endeavored to settle it as a local incident, and withdrew the garrison from Lukouchiao. Not only did the Japanese refrain from withdrawing their

troops as agreed upon, but considerable reinforcements were also brought south of the Great Wall from Mukden. The fighting spread. On August 13, hostilities broke out in Shanghai. The undeclared war was called the "China Incident," and Japan flauntingly told the world that she would "beat China to her knees" in three months.

CHINESE STRATEGY

The Chinese strategy, as decided by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek long before the actual clash occurred, has its basis in China's vast territory, rich resources, large manpower and numerous inborn characteristics of the Chinese people. These factors have had the effect of making up for China's belated industrial development and deficiency in war equipment.

While keeping the enemy engaged in battle, the Chinese have utilized the time gained in increasing their own strength. The idea is gradually to scatter and break the enemy strength in China's vast countryside over a long period of time. So, in the first period of the war, every possible effort was made to extend as widely as possible the theater of operations, to make the Japanese pay as heavily as possible for every advance, and to make their hold not only costly but perilous. Space was traded for time. Guerillas poured into the Japanese controlled areas and behind their lines.

Japan's hopes of winning a quick war were frustrated at the outset. From Shanghai the fighting extended to the Yangtze Valley and then along the entire China coast and to the interior. After the Battle of Shanghai and the evacuation of Nanking, the Chinese massed troops at Hsuechow, an important railway junction city in northern Kiangsu. The enemy closed in from all sides, but the Chinese remained, leading the Japanese to speak confidently of a "Tannenberg" which was never realized. Having exacted a high price from the invaders, the Chinese withdrew at the eleventh hour with their field forces intact. China's strategy of magnetic warfare ever led the Japanese on

Setting out to conquer a part of China with a relatively small force, Japan soon became involved in widely apart and extensive hilly regions and today a million men and much heavy equipment are pinned down over a 3,000-kilometer front in China while her commitments go far beyond Chinese waters.

JAPANESE STRIKING POWER

A review of the war shows the decline of the Japanese striking power. At the beginning of the war, less troops were used to cover a wide territory, but with the progress of the war, more troops have had to be employed to make small gains. Prior to the fall of Nanking in December, 1937, the Japanese fielded 25 divisions. For the Battle of Hsuehchow the Japanese strength was increased to 29 divisions.

After May, 1938, the Japanese were compelled further to increase their number of divisions to 31 for the Wuhan Battle which, lasting over half a year, ended with the Chinese evacuation of Hankow and Wuchang in October of the same year. Throughout this campaign, the enemy had to fight his way westward on narrow strips of land on both sides of the Yangtze River. The blows handed out by the Chinese defenders were so severe that the Japanese striking power, having reached its climax, began to decline.

The fall of Hankow marked the beginning of the second period of the war. The Japanese brought in still more troops. The high point of Japanese concentration of troops in China occurred just after the first Changsha Battle in 1939, when well over 1,000,000 men, totalling between 37½ and 38 divisions, were tied down. Despite the increase, they not only failed to take Changsha in Hunan in October, 1939, Kukong (Shaokwan) in northern Kwangtung in December of the same year, and to hold Kunlun Pass in southern Kwangsi in January, 1940, but they suffered unprecedentedly heavy losses at the hands of the counter-attacking Chinese.

In the first period of the war, four major battles were fought—Shanghai, Sinkow (Shansi), Hsuehchow and Hankow. As their strategy was to exhaust the enemy, the Chinese withdrew after causing considerable enemy casualties. With the beginning of the second period however, a change came about. Although it was again the Japanese who took the offensive in the five major

battles at Nanchang, Suihsien-Tsaoyang, Changsha, southern Kwangsi and Tsaoyang-Ichang, the Chinese launched fierce counter-attacks at the right moments. At Suihsien-Tsaoyang in May, 1939, and at Changsha in October, the same year, the Japanese attacking units were routed with heavy losses.

The decline in the Japanese strength is further revealed by the distance covered. The greatest advance by Japanese troops was 620 kilometers during the initial phase of the first period, and 560 and 690 kilometers during the two subsequent phases of this period. During the first phase of the second period, the furthest enemy advance was 150 kilometers, and during the second phase, up to the end of December, 1940, 200 kilometers. The Japanese evacuation from Nanning in southern Kwangsi is counted as a retreat of 200 kilometers.

More revealing still, the Japanese penetrated 622,000 square kilometers, 322,000 square kilometers and 300,000 square kilometers, respectively, in the three phases of the first period. But they penetrated only 77,000 square kilometers during the first phase of the second period. In each case, the area mentioned represents the entire so-called occupied districts. In reality, the Japanese control only points and lines, scarcely more than one-tenth of the entire area.

CHINESE GAINING STRENGTH

The most striking development during the war has been the steady improvement of the Chinese Army. Though inferior in equipment, the troops have on many occasions handed out staggering defeats to crack Japanese units.

Whereas at the outbreak of hostilities China only had 1,700,000 regulars she now has 6,000,000 regular troops; whereas at the outbreak of the war there was no regular source of reserves she now has 11,000,000 recruits and reservists constantly under training, and whereas at the outbreak of the war there were few guerillas, she now has 356,000 of them organized according to the regulations set down by the National Military Council. When the war began, many arms in the possession of the Chinese Army were antiquated. They have now been replaced by entirely new weapons.

JAPANESE CASUALTIES

Japanese casualties up to June 8, 1942, were estimated at 2,500,000 of

which 1,000,000 were killed and 1,500,000 wounded. The full list as given out by the Chinese military spokesman on the fifth anniversary of the war follows :

Killed and wounded	... 2,500,000
War prisoners 29,924
Trophies	... 7,469,918
Mountain and field guns ...	1,981
Light and heavy machine guns ...	8,576
Infantry and cavalry rifles	192,420
Tanks, armored cars, motor vehicles ...	8,841
Planes downed and destroyed	2,504

Among the war booty were ammunition and military supplies which included shells, cartridges, helmets, flags, uniforms, hand-grenade throwers, poison gas cylinders, gas masks, documents and all types of equipment.

In a supplementary list published in November, 1942, by the National Military Council, the enemy casualties from the outbreak of the war up to the end of October, 1942, were 2,513,280. The enemy suffered 256,100 casualties in 1937 ; 444,890 in 1938 ; 409,795 in 1939 ; 343,617 in 1940 ; 314,820 in 1941 ; 154,058 in the first ten months of 1942, besides 590,000 killed and wounded suffered by garrison, supply and transport units behind lines.

CAMPAIGNS FOUGHT

According to the Chinese military spokesman on July 10, 1942, Japan has a total of approximately ninety divisions, including seventeen regular divisions, four newly organized divisions, seventeen reserve divisions, eighteen enlarged divisions, seven re-organized divisions, twenty mixed brigades and fifteen home and independent garrisons. With the exception of the 7th Division, the 12th Division, the independent and home garrisons stationed in the Northeast and the 19th Division in Korea, all other divisions and brigades have been thrown into the China war theater at one time or another.

The total Japanese strength in China on the fifth anniversary of the war was estimated at 800,000 to 900,000 men, excluding the units in Manchuria and Burma.

The following list shows the campaigns fought in the five years and the enemy strength immobilized in China :

Major campaigns fought	... 14
Guerilla battles 10,375

Japanese troops immobilized :—

Infantry divisions	... 30
Cavalry army	... 1
Special regiments	... 15
Planes immobilized approximately	... 1,000

BATTLE OF SHANGHAI

When more than 10,000 Japanese pressed forward from the Hongkew district, Shanghai, against the Chinese Peace Preservation Corps on August 13, 1937, the three divisions under the command of General Chang Chih-chung, which reinforced the Corps, delivered counter-blows and at one time succeeded in driving a wedge as far as Wayside Wharf on the Whangpoo River.

On the evening of August 22, the enemy's 3rd Division, 11th Division, the Fourth Brigade of the 8th Division together with another brigade of the 11th Division landed simultaneously under the cover of intense naval bombardment at three points : Chwansha, Shihtzelin, and Paoshan on the Yangtze, northwest of the mouth of the Whangpoo River. The combined force struck southward along a line extending from Paoshan to Lotien and Liuho. With the arrival of reinforcements commanded by General Chen Cheng, the Chinese counter-attacked beginning August 24, but owing to the easy co-ordination between the enemy's naval guns and his land and air forces and the concentrated unrelenting fire, the Chinese made little progress. Meanwhile, the enemy received additional reinforcements and took Lotien on August 29. Woosung and Paoshan also fell between September 1 and 7. By September 17, the Chinese were defending a line running from the North Railway Station in Chapei northward to Kiangwan, Miao-hang, Chaowangmiao, points southwest of Lotien and Shuangtsaoten.

The enemy continuously poured in reinforcements so that by the middle of September, the enemy's 1st, 3rd, and 11th Divisions together with portions of the 6th, 8th and 16th Divisions, totalling 100,000 men, collected between Woosung and Shanghai. They were armed with 300 guns, 200 armored cars and more than 200 planes. Pitched against the enemy force were the three group armies under General Chu Shao-liang, Lo Tso-ying and Hsueh Yueh, with General Ku Chu-tung as the commander-in-chief. It was a positional warfare with the main strength of the

enemy's 1st and 3rd Divisions making repeated assaults on the Liuhan-Lotien highway. Despite heavy sacrifices, the enemy made very little progress. It was not until September 30, when two points of the Chinese positions were reduced, that the defenders were compelled to retire to the southern bank of Wentsaopang, a creek lying between Kiangwan and Woosung, flowing eastward to the Whangpoo.

With the Chinese taking up new positions at Kwangfu, Szesiangkungmiao, and Liuho, the enemy force was further augmented by a brigade each from 102nd, 106th, 107th, 114th and 116th Divisions and the Formosan Army, so that the total enemy strength came to more than 200,000 men. Beginning October 7, the enemy repeatedly attempted to cross Wentsaopang creek in a southward drive. Despite the fierce pounding of enemy artillery and intensive fire, the Chinese 8th Division and the units commanded by General Hu Tsung-nan hurled back the enemy every time with severe losses.

After October 11, more enemy forces were massed in an attempt to break through the Chinese defenses at Tachang, west of Kiangwan, and south of Wentsaopang creek. Bitter fighting raged. On October 19, the Chinese launched a large-scale counter-attack, and it so happened that the enemy also surged forward with his main strength. The terrific impact resulted in tremendous losses to both sides.

On October 23, the Chinese retired to the line running from Siaokutseh to Tachang, Tsoumatang, Sintsinchiao, and Tangkiachiao, but there was no change in the defenses stretching from Chapei to Miaohang and at points north of Chenhang. The enemy kept on storming Tachang. With the final destruction of the Chinese positions, Tachang fell into enemy hands on October 25. For fear of being outflanked, the defenders in the vicinity of Shanghai retired to the south bank of the Soochow creek. On October 30, the enemy forced a crossing at two points. The Chinese counter-attacked repeatedly, but owing to the enemy's strong artillery fire, there was no marked improvement in the situation. Meanwhile, the enemy brought in additional reinforcements.

November 5 saw the landing of the enemy's 6th and 18th Divisions at Chuankungting and Kingshantsu on the north bank of Hangchow Bay. Chinese forces in Pootung on the eastern bank

of the Whangpoo and at Fengtsin, southwest of Shanghai, were ordered to check the enemy advance. Difficulties in liaison work and tardiness in movement resulted in failure to carry out the plan. The enemy took Sungkiang, southwest of Shanghai, on November 9, compelling the wholesale withdrawal of the Chinese forces from Shanghai.

BATTLE OF SINKOW

One of the chief Chinese victories in the initial stage of the war was in October, 1937, at Sinkow, north of Taiyuan, on the vertical Tatung-Puchow railway, commonly called the Tungpu line, in Shansi province.

With Taiyuan as their objective, a part of Itagaki's 5th Division took up positions in the vicinity of Wutai, northeast of Sinkow, while Suzuki Army Corps of the Japanese Kwantung Army drove southwestward from Fansze to Kwohsien, due north of Sinkow. From north of Sinkow, the Honma Brigade struck southward from Yenmen Pass to Yuanping. Enemy units also moved from Shohsien, north of the Great Wall, toward Ningwu, which is inside the Great Wall, northwest of Sinkow.

To hold key positions in Shansi, General Wei Li-huang's four and a half divisions were rushed on October 2 from the neighboring province of Hopei to Shansi by way of the horizontal Shihkiachwang-Taiyuan railway which links the two provinces. To allow time for the concentration of these troops in areas north of Taiyuan, the units originally stationed in the province were ordered to hold Kwohsien and Yuanping, north of Sinkow.

Fighting gained momentum, while General Wei's main body collected in Sinkow and in regions west of the railway town. Kwohsien was lost on October 8, and Yuanping two days later. Massing Itagaki's 5th Division, the 1st and 12th Divisions of the Kwantung Army, the enemy launched fierce frontal thrusts beginning October 13. Severe fighting raged for five days with little respite. The Chinese not only held their own, but delivered such staggering blows in counter-attacks that the losses to the enemy mounted in those few days to between 30,000 and 40,000 men. Testifying to the magnitude and severity of the fighting, Army Commander Ho Meng-ling and Divisional Commander Liu Chia-chi were killed in action. General Chu Teh's troops,

which attacked the enemy's rear, also inflicted heavy casualties on the invaders.

The Chinese stubbornly resisted enemy onslaughts in the vicinity of Sinkow until the night of November 2, when developments in eastern Shansi compelled the defenders to retire southward toward the provincial capital of Taiyuan.

The situation in eastern Shansi became tense on October 10, when the enemy, after the occupation of Shihkiachwang on the Peiping-Hankow railway in Hopei, sent the main body of the 20th Division westward in a determined drive toward eastern Shansi along the railway linking the two provinces. Troops under the command of Generals Sun Lien-chung, Feng Chin-tsai and Tseng Wan-chung, together with the 17th Division, entrenched in the Taiheng mountain range to the south and north of Niantzekwan, contacted two enemy regiments in the vicinity of Tsingsing, east of Niantzekwan, on October 10. Coming westward to the Kiukwan line, the enemy was hurled back with losses. The 77th Regiment of the enemy's 20th Division was surrounded for days by the defenders. The invaders were in such desperate plight that planes had to make a number of flights to drop supplies and food to them. Inferior weapons prevented the Chinese from annihilating the entire regiment surrounded.

On October 22, the enemy's 14th Division, hitherto deployed on the Peiping-Hankow railway front, rushed to the rescue of the surrounded regiment. With a portion of the strength making frontal thrusts against Niantzekwan, the main body of the division, about four regiments strong, switched southward from a point east of Tsingsing to assail the Chinese flank. As a counter-move, the troops under General Sun Lien-chung were ordered to Pingting, southwest of Niantzekwan, while General Sun Cheng's troops, originally intended to reinforce northern Shansi defenders, were rushed to eastern Shansi. The shifting of troops gave advantage to the enemy who occupied Niantzekwan on October 26, and Pingting four days later.

TAIERHCHWANG VICTORY

The Battle of Taierhchwang, a rural town 40 kilometers northeast of Hsuehchow in northern Kiangsu in early April, 1938, merits special mention.

The victory, which has since then been overshadowed by greater successes, was noteworthy because it was the first

severe blow the poorly equipped Chinese Army dealt to an overwhelming enemy strength including 60 to 70 field pieces, more than 10 heavy guns and 30 to 40 tanks. It proved that by good tactics, the Chinese could inflict heavy losses on the enemy despite the great disparity in equipment, as later events have further demonstrated.

The Battle of Taierhchwang began on March 23, 1938, when the Japanese forces, including the crack Itagaki and Isogai Divisions, started to converge on Hsuehchow, railway junction city in northern Kiangsu, from the north, south and northeast. In spite of great odds, the defenders firmly held their ground at Taierhchwang, repulsing repeated enemy assaults, while an enveloping movement sealed the fate of the attackers.

The main Japanese force, pushing southward along the Tientsin-Pukow railway, steered eastward along a branch coal-transportation line in the hope of taking Taierhchwang by storm, and then using it as a base of operations against Hsuehchow. The main strength of the Seya Brigade of Isogai's 10th Division formed the spearhead in the push, but it was thrown back in a headlong collision with General Sun Lien-chung's troops which had just reached the town. Preparations were being made to receive the enemy in a more impressive manner. General Wang Chung-lien's Army of General Tang En-po's Army Corps was then checking the enemy advance in the vicinity of Yihsien, two stations north of Taierhchwang. General Kwan Lin-chen's Army was immediately ordered to proceed to points east of Yihsien to launch a joint attack against the enemy with General Wang's Army. The positions along the south bank of the Grand Canal which passes by the southwestern corner of Taierhchwang were taken up by the 110th Division.

The next few days saw a steady increase in enemy strength, and by April 3, the main force of Isogai's 10th Division was drawn to the vicinity of Taierhchwang by the defenders. It was during this period that sanguinary fighting took place. Massing more than 60 field pieces, 10 heavy guns and between 30 and 40 tanks, the enemy made concerted onslaughts against the town. With sheer determination, General Chih Feng-cheng's 31st Division held its positions, engaging the enemy in hand to hand fighting. Although the enemy occupied three-fourths of the town

the defenders grimly clung to their posts, thereby allowing time for the flying units to complete their encirclement movement.

With the enemy's main strength drawn to the vicinity of Taierhchwang, the troops under the command of General Tang En-po struck at the thinned out enemy units at Yihsien and Tsaochwang, which are on the branch railway north of Taierhchwang. The thrusts were so fierce that the majority of the enemy units were wiped out, compelling the enemy to send down reinforcements from points on the Tientsin-Pukow line. But the Chinese at once shifted their attacks against the enemy's flank north of Taierhchwang. By March 31, enemy forces in the vicinity of Taierhchwang were surrounded.

Finding the Taierhchwang situation desperate, the enemy sent the Itagaki units, which were then storming Lini, northeast of Tsaochwang, to attack the Chinese flanks on the outer ring of Taierhchwang in an attempt to break up the Chinese cordon. The units were, however, thrown back by General Kwan's troops east of Yihsien. Having beaten back the enemy reinforcements, General Kwan's troops and General Chow Yen's Army turned round and joined in an all-front attack against the surrounded enemy. By the evening of April 6, more than 30,000 enemy troops were killed, while the enemy remnants, numbering more than 10,000 men, retreated northward in confusion, closely pursued by the Chinese. The battle was, however, not over, for the Chinese troops under the command of General Tsao Fu-lin in western Shantung were advancing southward along the Tientsin-Pukow railway to check the enemy retreat. Their line of retreat being thus blocked, the fleeing enemy units decided to hold out in the vicinity of Yihsien, the topography and the strong city walls being of advantage to the defenders.

BATTLE OF HSUCHOW

Following up their Taierhchwang successes, the Chinese pursued the fleeing enemy forces northward along the branch line astride the Tientsin-Pukow railway in southern Shantung, bordering Kiangsu. At Yihsien, the battered enemy made a stand, sticking to their strong defenses built on several heights, and awaiting reinforcements from the north. After April 20, the Chinese were reinforced by troops commanded by Generals Fan Sung-fu and Lu Han. The enemy

too received reinforcements, and under the cover of unceasing artillery fire counter-attacked repeatedly. Enemy troops at Lini, northeast of Yihsien, were likewise heavily reinforced and made repeated attempts to push southwestward. Prior to May 13, enemy troops consisting of units from the 5th, 10th, 103rd, 105th, 110th Divisions, and Yamashida and Sakai Army Corps were pitched against the troops of Generals Tang En-po and Sun Lien-chung in the vicinity of Yangchiachi, Aishan, Taierhchwang and points west of the town.

Meanwhile, enemy troops in Shansi, Suiyuan, Kiangsu and Anhwei war areas were being busily transferred to the northern and southern sections of the Tientsin-Pukow railway in the hope of converging on Hsuechow. In the first part of May, enemy troops in the southern section of the Tientsin-Pukow line started to move northward. One of the columns advanced northeastward to Hefei in central Anhwei to immobilize the Chinese troops in that region. The enemy's 9th Division and Inoseki mechanized unit, proceeding along the railway, veered westward in northern Anhwei to follow the Kwo River up to Mengcheng, northwest of Pengpu. The troops concentrated in northern Kiangsu, including units of the enemy's 3rd, 101st and 116th Divisions, became active around Fowning and Hwaiyin.

Mengcheng, northern Anhwei, fell on May 9, and Yungcheng, north of Mengcheng, and southwest of Hsuechow, on the morning of May 12. With Yungcheng as their base, the enemy troops split into two columns, one striking northwestward at Shangkiu (Kweiteh), which is on the Lunghai railway in Honan province, due west of Hsuechow, the other column making for Hsuechow in a northeasterly direction. The enemy troops concentrated at Pengpu on the Tientsin-Pukow railway in northern Anhwei, including units from the 102nd, 107th and 119th Divisions, pushed northward along the railway to Suhsien. From Tsining, southern Shantung, the enemy's 111th Division pushed westward, occupying Yuncheng on May 11, and Hotseh, in the southwestern corner of Shantung, on May 14. Other enemy units, including the 114th Division and a part of the 16th Division, also forged ahead in westerly and southwesterly directions, occupying Kinsiang and Yutai one after another on May 14.

Chinese troops under the command of Generals Sun Tung-hsuen, Shang Chen and Pang Ping-hsun engaged the enemy in the extensive regions in south-western Shantung in an attempt to retard the enemy advance toward the Lunghai railway so as to protect the western flank of Hsuehchow. The situation was, however, found untenable on May 13, and they withdrew westward.

In the latter part of May, the troops commanded by Generals Sun Lien-chung and Tang En-po, which were withdrawn from the vicinity of Taierhchwang, reached their designated places in southern Honan and north Hupeh. The troops under General Liu Ju-ming fought rear-guard action, offering stiff resistance, thereby hampering enemy progress. On May 19, Hsuehchow was completely evacuated, but the enemy plan of encircling the Chinese forces was totally frustrated.

WUHAN BATTLE

The Battle of Wuhan began on June 12, and ended on October 25. In the four and a half months, several hundred big and small engagements were fought, in which the enemy suffered more than 200,000 casualties, his twelve divisions, which were massed for the westward penetration, being replenished five or six times. The enemy's naval and air forces too sustained great losses in the campaign.

Remembering his failure to force the Chinese to come to terms after the occupation of Nanking, the enemy, soon after the Battle of Hsuehchow, concentrated his forces along the Yangtze valley. His objective was Hankow, which had become the base of China's resistance.

On June 12, enemy land and naval forces attacked Anking on the Yangtze in Anhwei province. Fighting ended with the capture by the enemy of the communication line linking Anking with Hofei in central Anhwei. On June 23, Hada units laid siege to Matang forts. Besides the strong naval and air support, the attacking units employed gas. Matang fell into enemy hands on June 26. On July 2, the enemy pushed to Hukow on the Yangtze in northern Kiangsi. Hukow fell three days later. With the landing of enemy units in the vicinity of Kiukiang on July 23, the battle of Hankow entered into a more serious stage.

The enemy advanced on Hankow in four columns, each consisting of two

to four divisions. On the south bank of the Yangtze, one column struck southward by way of the Kiukiang-Nanchang railway to protect the left flank and another surged westward along the Juichang-Wuning highway to converge on Wuchang from the south. On the north bank, one made for Hankow along the bank of the Yangtze and another moved along the northern foot of the Tapih Mountains on the Honan-Hupeh border to seize Sinyang on the Peiping-Hankow railway in Honan, north of Hankow. The enemy fleet sailed upstream to land marines wherever possible. It was hoped that by fighting on the external lines the Chinese forces might be encircled and destroyed.

For the defense of Hankow, tens of divisions were entrenched at the previously constructed positions on the Chiukung and Mufu Mountains on the Hupeh-Hunan border; the Lu Shan Range, in northern Kiangsi; and the Tapih Mountains. At Tienchiachen, forts were built on both banks of the Yangtze.

After the enemy landing at Kiukiang, the Chinese retired to their previously built defenses on both sides of Lu Shan and on the Kiukiang-Nanchang railway. The enemy's 106th Division waged an uphill fight but made no progress despite heavy sacrifices. After repeated reverses, the enemy changed his tactics by landing troops belonging to the 9th Division at Kangkow, west of Kiukiang, and those of the 101st Division at Sintze on the western shore of Poyang Lake and southeast of Kiukiang on August 22. The moves were aimed at outflanking the defenders on both sides. The units which landed at Kangkow advanced to Juichang, southwest of Kiukiang, while the troops which landed at Sintze moved westward in an attempt to cut the Kiukiang-Nanchang railway. Thereupon the Chinese withdrew from the railway front to their second line of defense at Mahuiling, due south of Kiukiang. The enemy at Sintze was held in check. With Lu Shan as their base of operations and utilizing the favorable terrain, the Chinese inflicted heavy casualties on the invaders. The battered enemy was left gaping at the impregnable positions which they later called "natural defenses." In the first part of October, the main strength of the 106th Division and a part of the 101st Division attempted another flanking movement. The Chinese rushed a part of their troops to the

scene and had the enemy surrounded at Wankuling. On October 10, as many as four regiments of the invaders were wiped out. Besides the killed, large quantities of arms and ammunition and important documents were littered on the field.

In the westward thrust, the enemy massed more than 40 ships to bombard Matowchen and the fort on the south bank of the Yangtze at Fuchihkow, bordering Hupeh and Kiangsi. In the attacks, poison gas was extensively used. Nevertheless, the enemy had to pay dearly in lives and ammunition for his slow progress. On September 24, Fuchihkow fort fell into enemy hands, but the losses in the advance along the Juichang-Wuning highway were so heavy that the enemy had to send for considerable reinforcements. The Chinese continued to deal out shattering blows to the invaders along every route the enemy took to approach Wuchang, south of Hankow. By the middle of October, the Chinese retired to the line in the vicinity of Wuning, northern Kiangsi, Tungcheng, southern Hupeh, west of Wuning, and Yochow, northern Hunan, west of Tungcheng. On October 25, the enemy was approaching Wuchang.

On the north bank of the Yangtze, the enemy's 6th Division, after the capture of Anking in Anhwei province, advanced westward to Taihu near the Hupeh border. Here, the Chinese counter-attacked, stopping the Japanese dead in their tracks. To break the deadlock the Japanese 3rd Division was landed at Siaoehihkow on the Yangtze, opposite Kiukiang, and in a joint attack with the 6th Division, took Susung and Huangmei on the Anhwei-Hupeh border. The Chinese again counter-attacked, wresting from the enemy Taihu and Tsienshan. Severe fighting soon raged at places east of Kwangtsi in eastern Hupeh, where the enemy broke through, forcing the Chinese to retire to the second defense line at Chiehling and Tienchiachen fort, in eastern Hupeh, bordering Kiangsi. Despite the enemy's intense aerial and naval bombardment and the use of poison gas, the defenders checked them for days, causing 6,000 to 7,000 casualties. The fort fell on September 29, and in early October, enemy ships steamed upstream and landed troops at several points west of the fort. On October 25, the enemy reached Hwangpei, northeast of Hankow, threatening Hankow's flank.

The Japanese 10th, 13th and 16th Divisions, advancing westward along the northern foot of the Tapieh Mountains launched severe attacks on Luan and Hwoshan in western Anhwei, and after crossing the Pi River assaulted the Chinese positions at Fuchinshan, only to be crushed by the defenders commanded by General Sung Hsi-lien. Here, half of the enemy's 13th Division was wiped out and among the killed were two regimental commanders. The loss of Kushih, in the southeastern corner of Honan, near the Anhwei border, exposed the Chinese flank at Fuchinshan to grave danger, and so Fuchinshan was evacuated on September 11.

Driving westward and southwestward to Hwangchwan and Shangchen, enemy forces encountered units under General Sun Lien-chung and the late General Chang Tze-chung. Severe fighting continued for a week during which the enemy made extensive use of poison gas, compelling the Chinese to retire to the prepared defenses at Tapieh Mountains. Here, the enemy was held up for more than a month. On the northern foot of the mountains, the enemy drove westward from Hwangchwan and occupied Loshan. Sanguinary fighting broke out in regions east of Sinyang on the Peiping-Hankow railway in southern Honan in the latter part of September. The troops under General Hu Tsung-nan killed more than 5,000 enemy troops. After receiving replacements at Loshan, the enemy broke through the Chinese defenses. Sinyang was evacuated on October 12. The Chinese took up new positions in the hilly region in the vicinity of Tungpeh Mountains, west of Sinyang. The enemy turned southward. Thereupon the Chinese decided to evacuate from Hankow according to plan. The enemy entered Hankow on October 25.

VICTORY IN SUI-TSAO AREA

Finding the Chinese forces in northern Hupeh a serious menace to his hold on Hankow, the enemy, at the end of April, 1939, ordered the 3rd, 13th, 16th Divisions and the 4th Cavalry Brigade to destroy the Chinese forces in the hilly regions on the Hupeh-Honan border. The main strength of the 13th, 16th Divisions, and the 4th Cavalry Brigade set out from Chunghsiang on the east bank of the Han River, northwest of Hankow, in a northerly direction, while the 3rd Division pushed westward from Yingshan and Sinyang, on the Peiping-

Hankow railway north of Hankow, in the hope of enveloping the Chinese in the Tungpeh Mountain region.

The invaders initiated the move on May 1. The column advancing northward along the Han River was given a serious rebuff by the late General Chang Tze-Chung's troops. Only after four days' fighting in which both sides suffered heavy losses did the defenders step aside to the east where they took up positions in the Tahung Mountain region. The Japanese reached Tsaoyang in northern Hupeh, near the Honan border, on May 7, and Sinyeh, northwest of Tsaoyang on May 11, and Tangho, northeast of Tsaoyang, on May 12.

After days of bitter fighting with General Liu Ju-ming's troops, the Japanese column from Sinyang reached the city of Tungpeh, about 50 kilometers west of Sinyang, on May 12. Thus the two enemy columns achieved a horseshoe encirclement around the Chinese positions. North of Tungpeh Mountain, General Tang En-po's troops made repeated ambush attacks between May 7 and 11, holding the enemy in check in the mountain region.

Meanwhile, as a counter-move, the Chinese rushed reinforcements to Nanyang, north of the two enemy-held points, Sinyeh and Tangho. While the Chinese pressed southward from Nanyang, Chinese forces along the Han River and in the Tahung Mountain region assailed the enemy flank to block the line of retreat. On May 14, both Sinyeh and Tangho were wrested from enemy hands. Tsaoyang was recaptured four days later, when the enemy, faced with the danger of having his rear cut, retreated in confusion. The troops under Generals Tang En-po and Liu Ju-ming counter-attacked from Tungpeh Mountain and from points northwest of Sinyang, recovering the lost ground within a short time. The enemy killed were estimated at more than 13,000 men.

CHANGSHA VICTORY I

In an effort to break the stalemate in China, the enemy in early September, 1939, made General Toshizo Nishio commander-in-chief of the "Japanese Expeditionary Forces to China" and Lieutenant-General Seishiro Itagaki his chief of staff, while large scale plans were made to capture Changsha, the provincial capital of Hunan.

For the campaign, the main strength of the 101st and 106th Divisions was secretly drawn to the western bank of the

Kan River in north Kiangsi, while the enemy forces in southern Hupeh consisting of the 6th, 33rd Divisions and a part of the 3rd and 13th Divisions, numbering 100,000 men, moved southward to points in northern Hunan. Enemy naval ships were ordered from the Yangtze to Yochow in northern Hunan. It became obvious that the enemy from northern Kiangsi, southern Hupeh and northern Hunan hoped to converge on Changsha. To counteract this, the Chinese decided to check the enemy column from northern Kiangsi and to destroy the invaders from the north as soon as they penetrated deep into the Chinese defenses.

The Japanese launched their campaign on September 17, when the forces in northern Kiangsi struck westward from Fengsin, west of Nanchang, toward Tungku with Liuyang, over 60 kilometers due east of Changsha, as their apparent objective. When the forces stretched out westward for some distance, the Chinese attacked their flank from north and south, compelling them to retrace their steps.

Fighting in north Hunan was of a more severe nature. Despite overwhelming odds, the Chinese held their first line of defense along the Sinchiang River, which runs from east to west, emptying into the Tungting Lake, from September 19 to 23. The enemy employed large quantities of gas in his attacks.

Receiving strong air and naval support, the Japanese surged forward from three directions. The left column, consisting of the 33rd Division, marched southward from Tungcheng in southern Hupeh. Intercepted south of Maishih, the invaders made a detour further eastward and eventually reached Taoshukiang and then pushed southward toward Changshuchieh which is east of Pingkiang and linked with the latter city by highway.

The central column, consisting of the 6th and 13th Divisions, crossed the Sinchiang River under the cover of heavy artillery fire and continued their advance toward the Chinese line along the Milo River further south. The right wing, composed of a regiment of the 3rd Division, a naval landing party, some 30 naval craft and more than 100 armed launches, endeavored to land at Luchioshib and Yingtien to attack the flank and rear of the defenders thereby supporting the main forces. In view of the stiff resistance, the enemy had

to send a large air force to support the landing operations.

Fighting was most severe in all sectors after September 23. The Chinese retired step by step, but at the same time in preparation for a counter-attack heavy forces were concentrated on both wings. The enemy rushed toward Changsha without hesitation, and by September 29, their vanguards were virtually within sight of their objective. On October 2, the Chinese counter-attacked. The enemy retreated in all directions. The Chinese people also helped the attacking units by killing Japanese stragglers. By October 6, the Chinese had regained all their original positions. The total Japanese casualties in the campaign were estimated at 40,000 men.

BATTLE OF KUNLUNKWAN

Following their occupation of Nanning on November 22, 1939, the Japanese concentrated two full divisions and at the beginning of December they loosed powerful thrusts in two directions: towards Wuming, directly to the north of Nanning, and towards Pinyang, to the northeast.

The highwater mark of the Japanese advance was reached during the first week of December, when the Japanese occupied the town of Takaofengyi on the road to Wuming, and the strategic pass of Kunlunkwan on the road to Pinyang. On December 2, the Japanese took the town of Hsiaotung in the province of Kwangtung, key to communications with their rear.

The Chinese at the same time were concentrating their forces in South China to repel the Japanese threat to the southwest communications system. Reinforcements were rushed into the threatened area. The southwestern command also threw into action part of China's small but efficient mechanized forces, including some tanks and heavy guns, while planes were also employed.

The Chinese attack on the Nanning front began during the second week of December with forces operating from Wuming and Pinyang. The Chinese first stormed Kunlunkwan on December 16, taking the Pass and Kiutang, a point further south, two days later. On December 19, they recovered Takaofengyi, and subsequently Chitang, Liutang and Wutang, points further south of Kiutang. On December 20, the enemy, strongly reinforced, fought back, capturing Takaofengyi, Kunlunkwan and Kiutang once more.

The Chinese also brought in reinforcements and recovered Kunlunkwan for the second time on December 31. On January 4, 1940, they advanced to Kiutang.

In the severe encounters, the 12th Brigade of the enemy's 5th Division was practically wiped out. When the Chinese pushed down to Patang, south of Kiutang on the Pinyang-Nanning highway, the enemy's 5th Division, having incurred unusually heavy losses at the hands of the Chinese, retreated piecemeal. It was estimated that two-thirds of the Division were destroyed, including one brigade commander and one regiment commander killed. Booty seized by the Chinese included 15 field guns, over 130 heavy and light machine guns, about 2,000 rifles, and large quantities of other war supplies. Close to the battlefields were buried a huge number of enemy dead beneath which considerable war materials and documents were found.

The Kunlunkwan Battle gave the Chinese greater confidence in their striking power. For the first time, Chinese mechanized units were employed in assault tactics, and the results showed that given heavy equipment, the Chinese could drive the enemy out of strongly fortified points. The Kunlunkwan or Kunlun Pass lies hidden in a series of rugged slopes and surrounding heights. For its defense, the Japanese had erected a chain of interlocking fire. The heights were literally infested with machine-gun nests, while at vantage points, artillery emplacements were built. The elaborate defenses made approach to the Pass exceedingly difficult, but with the support of heavy guns and tanks the Chinese were able to wrest the mountain pass from enemy hands.

SOUTHERN HONAN BATTLE

When January of 1941 ended, a major campaign was raging inconclusively in southern Honan. The Japanese who took the offensive were on the upper hand. In one week of rapid marching their three columns had covered roughly 200 kilometers of ground. On the first two days of February, however, the Chinese ferociously hit back. In a week's time they recovered all points north of Sinyang.

The Japanese made fairly extensive preparations for the campaign. Their objective was to capture the section of the Peiping-Hankow railway between Sinyang and Chengchow, the junction

of the north-south Peiping-Hankow railway and the east-west Lunghai railway.

In mid-January, Japanese troops on the Ichang-Tangyang-Kingmen line launched a sham attack on Yuanan, hoping to mislead and harry the Chinese troops west of the Han River. About the same time, the Japanese had increased their troops around Sinyang.

Also attempting to mislead the Chinese, Japanese troops west of the Han River again became active on January 23, while southeast of Sinyang a mild push was launched to harass the Chinese there. This was followed soon afterwards by the outbreak of a major battle in southern Honan.

Japanese troops which took part in this costly campaign were distributed as follows: The left wing comprised the entire Third Division, the 8th Regiment of the Fourth Division and a tank detachment. The center force was composed of the 17th Division (minus the 53rd Regiment), the 67th Regiment of the 15th Division, and a tank detachment. Parts of the 234th, 235th and 236th Regiments of the 40th Division, and a cavalry regiment made up the right wing.

The Japanese started moving on January 24. After having broken through the first Chinese line of defense north of Changtaikwan on January 25, the Japanese left wing west of the railway moved further away to encircle Chinese units there. After several days of bitter fighting between Maotsi and Kaoyi, this Japanese force, having learned of the large concentration of Chinese troops southwest of Wuyang, pushed further northward. On January 30, after a day-long engagement on the Hsiaossutien-Shangtien line, they reached the vicinity of Paoanyen and Wuyang.

Meanwhile, the Japanese center force, also setting out from their forward base north of Sinyang on January 24, broke through the first Chinese line at Mingkiang on the railway the following day. On January 26, it came into contact with Chinese troops at Kioshan, 35 kilometers north of Mingkiang. On January 27, a part of the Japanese force branched off westward from Kioshan to attack Chukow. Its main force, however, pushed northward against Chinese positions at Chumatien, 20 kilometers north of Kioshan.

From Chumatien, another Japanese detachment veered eastward on

January 28, to attack Junan, 40 kilometers to the east. Meanwhile, the bulk of the Japanese center force advanced to Suiping, another 18 kilometers to the north. From Suiping this unit crossed the Ju River. One detachment went to conquer Shangtsai a short distance to the northeast, but the main body made for Siping south of the Hung River, 26 kilometers north of Siping. Blocked by strong Chinese units north of Siping, the center force shifted westward and took Wucheng, midway to Wuyang, on January 30. Under heavy pressure, this enemy force was compelled to retreat southward on February 2.

The right wing, moving east of the railway, first subdued Chengyang, northeast of Mingkiang. Its bulk poured into Junan on January 28. Later, together with a detachment from Chumatien, it entered Shangtsai on January 29. Pushing northward, this combined unit received further support from Suiping and then crossed the Hung River to assault Hsiangcheng. A motorized unit of 3,000 men was sent to attack the Chinese at Chowchiakow and Sihwa along the Tasha River. That was the farthest the right wing went. On the evening of February 2, it was also forced to fall back on Shangtsai and flee southward.

After February 1, the Japanese center column and left wing joined forces in the Wuyang-Paoanyen area. The following day, still hoping to envelop Chinese troops there, this combined force attacked Fancheng, 34 kilometers west of Paoanyen. Suffering heavy losses, part of them retreated in a southerly direction toward Tangho, while about 5,000 men of the Third Division, in their push toward Nanyang, clashed with Chinese troops at Chaohochen. On the evening of February 4, however, they entered Nanyang, but were dislodged two days afterwards. They had to retreat to the railway by way of Tangho, Miyang and Tungpeh.

Several things are noteworthy in this battle which ended the first week of February with the Chinese re-occupation of all points north of Sinyang—Siping, Suiping, Chumatien, Kioshan on the railway and places on both sides of the railway. First, it was the rapid Japanese advance in the initial phase of the campaign. There was some fierce fighting between Sinyang and Kioshan. Once the Japanese went beyond Kioshan, their mechanized units moved fast on the plain. When they got to the southern

bank of the Tasha River, however, they were halted.

The Chinese adopted tactics of mobility in the campaign. When the three Japanese columns reached the Wuyang-Siping-Shangshui line (Shangshui is 10 kilometers south of Chowchiakow), they thought they had caught the Chinese field forces in their encirclement. As a matter of fact, they found themselves in a vacuum. All the time, Chinese units near Sinyang, Kioshan, Chengyang, and Miyang harassed the enemy lines. The Japanese detour from Fancheng to Nanyang and from Nanyang to Tangho was made with the same objective in mind, namely, to destroy the Chinese field forces. Here again, they plunged into an empty pocket with Chinese troops around but few actually inside it.

The Japanese retreated from Nanyang so hurriedly that they abandoned over 300 motor trucks, on which they depended for mobility in their hit-and-run campaign. With the Chinese hot on their trail, they set fire to these trucks and all unmovable supplies. On the southern Honan plain, the Japanese had a good chance to use their mechanized and motorized units with deadly effect. But once their lines of supplies were severed, and the amount of oil carried was exhausted, all motorized units became so hopelessly immobile that the Japanese had no choice but to destroy them.

BATTLE OF SHANGKAO

Northern Kiangsi witnessed a severe battle in March, 1941, when the Japanese made an abortive attempt to seize Shangkao, 100 crow kilometers southwest of Nanchang. Fighting began on March 15, and before the month was over, the Japanese had sustained 15,000 casualties. Large quantities of arms were abandoned on the battleground and dumped into rivers.

Employing 50,000 men, the Japanese, as usual, set out in three columns. The Japanese right wing, or the northern route, composed of a part of the 33rd Division, moved westward from Anyi, northwest of Nanchang. The central column, consisting of the 34th Division, advanced westward from Nanchang, while the Ikeda mixed brigade pressed westward from the southern bank of the Chin River, south of Nanchang.

The Chinese tactics, as subsequent events showed, was first to clip the two Japanese wings, and then deal with the

Japanese central column. An unexpectedly excellent opportunity was provided the Chinese when the Japanese central column, despite the early reverses suffered by the two wings, continued to thrust westward, thereby exposing itself to attacks from all sides.

The campaign was launched at dawn on March 15, when the Japanese right wing set out from Anyi. It took Fengsin, southwest of Anyi, the following day. At Fengsin, the enemy crossed the Liao River and advanced in a southwesterly direction to as far as Tsunchien, 60 crow kilometers southwest of Anyi. With the arrival of strong reinforcements from Ifeng, the Chinese counter-attacked on March 19, recovering Tsunchien the same day. Without giving the defeated Japanese a chance to re-organize themselves, the Chinese launched a severe attack on Lofang, where the retreating Japanese were collecting. In the battles fought in the vicinity of Lofang between March 21 and 23, the enemy suffered 4,000 killed and wounded. The routed Japanese fell back on Fengsin. Finding the Chinese units closely on their heels, the Japanese abandoned Fengsin to return to their base, Anyi.

When the Japanese right wing moved out of Anyi, the Japanese left wing, or the southern route, stretched southward from the Chin River to occupy Chukiang and then turned to Tucheng, west of Chukiang. After the occupation of the two cities, the column moved further westward, but by the time it reached Taiyang, the Chinese counter-attacked. With a small part left on the south bank of the river, the main body of the mixed brigade crossed to the northern bank from Huipu and Shihtouchai. Those who stayed on the south bank were, however, wiped out by the Chinese.

The central column advanced westward to Tacheng and then southwestward to Kaoan. As it pressed forward to Nanchalo, about ten kilometers north-east of Shangkao, on March 20, when the main body of the mixed brigade had joined hands with it, the defenders closed in from all sides. The troops which had successfully hurled back the northern route turned southward to cut the rear and flank of the attacking enemy. The Chinese encirclement of the enemy was completed in a region north-east of Shangkao.

Finding the situation critical, the enemy's 215th Regiment dashed westward from northwest of Nanchang to rescue the surrounded units.

Fierce fighting lasted from March 22 to 25, when tens of enemy planes continued their bombing attacks to help the enemy troops break through the Chinese cordon. Fighting was so severe that one small height was contested for six or seven times. The Chinese kept on tightening their cordon. The enemy fought northward and westward, but was repeatedly hurled back. Between 700 and 800 troops, however, succeeded in breaking through on the east side of the ring. They fought all the way back to Huipu, between Kaoan and Shangkao, but on arrival they found the place already securely in Chinese hands. Most of them were annihilated.

Meanwhile the enemy's 215th Regiment coming to the rescue of the beleaguered troops succeeded in reaching Tangpu, north of Shangkao, and on March 25, a junction was effected with the main body of the surrounded troops. The same evening, the Chinese had the enemy surrounded for the second time. After a whole night's attack, the Chinese captured Tangpu, the enemy remnants fleeing eastward the night of March 27. When the Chinese entered Nanchalo and Kwanchao on March 28, the places were littered with enemy dead.

The Chinese success in northern Kiangsi was considered particularly significant inasmuch as only seven Chinese divisions took part in the fighting.

CHUNGTAIO RANGE CAMPAIGN

Popularly known as Japan's "appendix" in Shansi, the Chungtaio mountain range was the scene of one of the severest battles ever fought north of the Yellow River when the Japanese on May 7, 1941, launched their fourteenth attempt to dislodge the Chinese from this stronghold. Toward the end of the month, large portions of the Chinese troops had fought their way to the rear of the Japanese lines to the north and northwest of the range. For the seizure of a few of the strategic points in the range and several river crossings south of the range, the enemy had paid a price of 30,000 killed and wounded.

The Japanese troops taking part in the campaign were estimated at 130,000. Heavy Japanese troop movements in early April warned the defenders of what was coming. The garrisons in the principal towns at the fringe of the mountains were reinforced, forming a semi-circle from Maotsintu on the

west and to Menghsien on the east, passing through Changtien, Hsiahsien, Chianghsien, Yicheng, Tsinsui, Yangcheng and Tsiyuan. Within this hoop the range stretches from the northeast to the southwest, due north of the Yellow River.

Zero hour came at 1 p.m. on May 7, when the Japanese began to advance from four points. The Japanese right wing drove eastward from Maotsintu and the left wing westward from Tsiyuan. North and northwest of the range, the Japanese approached southward in two columns from Chianghsien and Tsinsui.

The strongest of the four columns from Chianghsien, supported by bombers, drove to the southeast for Yuanchu on the north bank of the Yellow River. When checkmated half-way by the defenders the Japanese resorted to poison gas and eventually succeeded in reaching Yuanchu over the Chianghsien-Yuanchu highway late the following day.

With the Chungtaio range thus cut into two, the invaders concentrated their efforts on encircling the entire Chinese forces. The column which had captured Yuanchu split into two, one battling its way eastward along the Yuanchu-Tsiyuan highway to meet the left wing, and the other westward to join hands with the right wing. Hard pressed from both sides, the defenders, who had successfully held up the two Japanese wings, were compelled to retire northward. A small Chinese force, however, ferried across the river to the south bank.

To surround the Chinese troops east of the Chianghsien-Yuanchu highway, the column, which had set out from Yicheng, made repeated attempts to break through the main Chinese defenses but without avail. West of the highway the Japanese tried to encircle the Chinese by launching concerted attacks from Yuanchu in the east, Hsiahsien in the north, and Changtien and Maotsintu in the west and southwest.

The bulk of the Chinese forces began moving northward after May 12. The troops east of the Chianghsien-Yuanchu highway proceeded to the northwest of Tsinsui, west of Kaoping and north of Yangcheng. Those west of the highway succeeded in reaching the Chiwang Mountains bounded by Hsinchiang and Wenhsi, west of the Tungpu railway. Having come to the exterior lines on May 18, 19 and 20, the Chinese fought back. Fighting subsided on May 27.

CHANGSHA VICTORY II

Marshalling 120,000 men for operations with support from both aerial and naval forces, the Japanese, still smarting under their 1939 defeat, told themselves at the outset of the 1941 campaign: "This time we must conquer Changsha." Madly dashing southward, their advance units broke into the city but finally the entire army had to stampede back to Yochow after the Chinese had chopped up all supply lines behind them.

When the Japanese first penetrated the north and northeast sections of the city toward the end of September, they busied themselves installing military telephones and erecting defense works. They gave missionaries who stayed in the city throughout those hectic days the impression that they—the Japanese—meant to stay. Then one night Chinese guns across the Hsiang River suddenly thundered. All Japanese who had gained a foothold inside the city, hurriedly left northward. They did not even have time to inform all units. As a result many were trapped.

Chronologically, Changsha Battle II began with the clash at Tayungshan, or Great Cloud Mountains, southeast of Yochow, on September 6, between the Japanese 6th Division and a small but active Chinese force in the hills.

The curtain for the main show rose at night on September 17, when the enemy crossed the east-west Sinchiang River at four points. With a portion of the defenders engaging the enemy, the main strength drew to the enemy's flank and trailed the advancing invaders in a southerly direction. Without encountering serious resistance, the Japanese made rapid progress and on September 19, reached the east-west Milo River which they crossed at seven different points. On the south bank of the river, the Japanese forces staged several flanking movements in an attempt to encircle the Chinese field forces. The Chinese, however, withdrew to the Laotao and Liuyang river regions for a decisive battle. On September 26, the enemy entered this area where further flanking movements were launched to encircle the city of Changsha. On September 27, several hundred Japanese in plain clothes gained access to the north gate of the city but were soon annihilated. Small squads of Japanese troops, mostly in civilian garb, who penetrated the north-east sections of the city on September 25, and 29, eventually met with a similar disastrous end.

From the Sinchiang River to the outskirts of Changsha, the distance is roughly 100 kilometers. The farther the Japanese pushed, the longer and more vulnerable became their lines of communications. They had least suspected that the Chinese would place huge armies on their flanks and in their rear to sever their lines of supplies. As the battle lengthened, they soon ran short of both ammunition and food. Finally, they had to drop ammunition from airplanes.

The Japanese press-ganged thousands of Chinese peasants to repair roads previously destroyed by the Chinese. However, south of the Milo river, they could do nothing because of the presence of large Chinese armies. Consequently, the Japanese did not succeed in bringing over any sizable amount of heavy arms. This gave the Chinese troops a chance to fight them on equal terms on the Laotao-Liuyang front. The Chinese control of the Hsiang River, the landing of Japanese at numerous points around the Tungting lake notwithstanding, adequately protected the Chinese flank.

The Japanese drive broke the afternoon of September 30. A general retreat soon ensued. With Chinese troops on their heels and others attacking their flanks, the Japanese suffered heavily all the way to the Sinchiang River. By October 8, the Chinese had pushed right to the gates of Yochow, Japanese base in southern Hupeh on the northern section of the Canton-Hankow railway.

CHANGSHA VICTORY III

The Japanese could not have done worse in the third Changsha campaign. Everything happened just as the Chinese defenders had anticipated. As soon as the second major battle of Changsha ended in disaster for the Japanese, Chinese army commanders in defense of North Hunan started preparations for a third. In planning to meet another comeback of the enemy, they drew from a wealth of experience gained during the previous two attacks but they had the foresight to provide for certain different tactics that the invaders might apply in their renewed onslaught.

The Japanese came back toward the latter part of December, 1941, the troops pouring southward from their main base in Yochow in three columns. On the night of December 23, the enemy crossed the first Chinese defense line, Sinchiang River. From then on, the developments of the campaign fell in with almost exact detail with the Chinese

anticipation, thereby greatly facilitating the maneuvers of the defenders.

The third Japanese offensive against Changsha differed from the second in several details. Perhaps owing to the operations in other parts of the Pacific, the Japanese used fewer planes. The low water of the Tungting Lake rendered it difficult for the enemy to land troops on the left flank of the Chinese defense.

South of the Milo River and close to Changsha, a number of traps were set for the enemy. All the Chinese had to do was to lead or, if necessary, drive the enemy into them. Between Laotao and Liuyang Rivers east of Changsha, the Chinese formed a wide and deep pocket for the Japanese. West of this pocket was the city of Changsha, the objective of the Japanese drive.

The enemy's 6th Division crossed the Sinchiang at eight different points which stretched out from east to west for a distance of more than 10 kilometers. The troops were closely followed by the 4th Division. In the afternoon of December 27, the two enemy divisions crossed the second east-west river, Milo, one after the other. The enemy's 40th Division, which formed the left wing, crossed the Milo the following day.

The Japanese kept on rolling toward their objective. Half way between Milo and Changsha, they met with stiff resistance which necessitated the right column making a detour to the east, and the right and central columns thereby kept closer to each other than they had at the outset.

In the city of Changsha were entrenched Chinese troops. With the exception of some 160 civilians who desired to stay behind to assist the defenders in any manner, the whole city was evacuated. Every shop was barred, and every house was denuded of its valuables. The order the troops got was to defend Changsha to the last. They should not leave the city a single step even if their positions should be rendered untenable. The only other alternative, they were told, was to counter-attack and drive eastward from the city, and this could be done only with a specific order from the high command. In other words, there should be no retreat. One regiment of the enemy's 6th Division came into contact with the defenders the night of December 31. With their back against the Hsiang River, the city defenders greeted the enemy with concentrated fire.

Severe fighting continued for several hours. The attackers began to realize that they had underestimated the Chinese strength. Throughout the night, the Japanese made repeated attempts to break through the Chinese outer defenses, but every time they were hurled back with heavy losses. On the following day, additional Japanese troops arrived, including units of the 4th Division. The combined Japanese forces stormed the southeastern defenses. Having failed to make any advance, they soon shifted their attack to the southern and then eastern part of the city's outer defenses. On January 2, a part of the 40th Division also joined the attack. Meanwhile Changsha's northern outskirts were bombarded.

At one time the Japanese succeeded in breaking through the outer defenses, but before they could consolidate their gains, they were pushed back. Testifying to the severity of the fighting, one height on the southern outskirts, which is named Hung Shan Tou, or Red Hill Top, was attacked eleven times and it changed hands no fewer than four times. The capture of the height by the Japanese would expose the Chinese defenses around the city to grave danger.

The stiff resistance came as a great surprise to the enemy who was compelled to make repeated calls for reinforcements. As the tired, battered but nevertheless proud Japanese troops were being concentrated on the outskirts of Changsha to participate in the siege of the city, the Chinese set a new trap for the Japanese along the Liuyang river region.

On January 4, the Chinese reinforcements began to tighten their ring around Changsha, but what surprised the Japanese more was the heavy guns which began to fire on Japanese troop concentrations, inflicting unusually heavy casualties on the enemy. Several mountain guns, which the enemy with difficulty had brought up all the way from Yochow were silenced. With their line of communications dissected, the Japanese were then relying on air transports for their supplies. It became evident that there was very little chance for the majority of the attackers to return to their base. Finding it difficult to withstand the pounding of Chinese heavy guns, the Japanese collapsed the afternoon of January 4.

At Tungshan, southeast of Changsha, the retreating Japanese attempted to cross the Liuyang River. Not knowing

they had entered the Chinese bag, the Japanese hit several blind alleys, losing heavily in every attempt at crossing. Other columns which retreated eastward and northward likewise found their ways blocked time and again.

Of the four army divisions which came down to lay siege to Changsha, only scattered detachments and remnants, totalling one army division, succeeded in collecting at a point forty kilometers northeast of Changsha. Here again they were surrounded by the Chinese lying in wait for them. The two other army divisions which maintained communication lines and protected the rear and flanks of the advancing Japanese also suffered heavily.

As days went by, the Japanese casualties kept on mounting. The Chinese air force also took part in harassing the retreating Japanese.

BATTLE OF BURMA

When Japan started invading Burma early in 1942, General Sir Archibald Wavell was the Commander-in-Chief of the Allied forces in Burma. The Chinese Expeditionary Force to Burma was assigned positions east of the Rangoon-Mandalay railway, extending to the Burma-Thailand border, a stretch of more than 750 kilometers.

Upon the invaders' attack on Pegu, the Chinese troops moved from the border to Central Burma. By that time the situation on the Irrawaddy front had already become critical. The Chinese vanguard pushed up beyond Toungoo where they began digging themselves in on muddy fields on March 7. By the middle of March, cavalry patrol had reached south of Toungoo. The Chinese and Japanese met at Toungoo on March 19, and for ten days a lone Chinese division fought the Japanese motorized 55th Division and regiments from the 33rd Division. Relay bombing and intensive artillery shelling made the Chinese position untenable, while poison gas used by the enemy suffocated many of the defenders. After having inflicted heavy casualties on the enemy, the Chinese withdrew.

After the fall of Toungoo, the Japanese concentrated their attacks on the British positions west of the railway. Fighting a rear-guard action, the defenders gradually retreated along the Irrawaddy to northwestern Burma. The Chinese subsequently found their right flank exposed. Action was imperative. The

assault on the Japanese besieging the Yenangyaung oilfields, successfully carried out by a Chinese division rushed from Lashio on April 19, saved 7,000 British, Burmese and Indian soldiers and at the same time strengthened the Chinese flank. Thereafter, the Japanese shifted the bulk of their strength to the Chinese left flank besides continuing their pressure against the British.

Using Thailand as their base, the Japanese 12th Division and part of the 18th Division advanced in a three-pronged thrust against the Chinese in the Northern Shan States. One column entered Taunggyi on April 23, but was driven back by the Chinese who moved down along the railway the following day. Another Japanese column took Loilem and a third force executed a flanking movement further to the west. Well paved roads facilitated the Japanese movement of tanks and motorized units northward. After taking Hsipaw between Lashio and Mandalay the invaders entered Lashio on April 29.

Later, a Japanese column along the railway advanced toward Mandalay and Maymyo. The Chinese evacuated Mandalay on May 1. Another Japanese column advanced along the Burma Road and entered Yunnan Province on May 3. Its vanguard crossed the Salween River but it was destroyed on May 5 by the Chinese, who were effectively supported by Chinese bombing squadrons and A.V.G. pursuit planes. A reinforced Japanese column, however, took Tengchung in western Yunnan on May 11.

In Burma, the Japanese occupied Akyab, Bhamo, Myitkyina and other strategic cities.

CHEKIANG-KIANGSI BATTLE

Following Brigadier-General James Doolittle's devastating bombing of Tokyo and other Japanese cities on April 18, 1942, the enemy in China launched a major campaign involving the two provinces of Chekiang and Kiangsi for the seizure of the "bomb-Tokyo" bases. Employing 170,000 troops, supported by a large air force, the Japanese, beginning the middle of May, swept over central and western Chekiang in two weeks, capturing a number of key cities. On May 31, Japanese troops began to move from Nanchang in Kiangsi province. By the first week in July the invading units from Chekiang and Kiangsi had met and gained temporary control of the Chekiang-Kiangsi railway. Gaps were, however, re-opened from time to time

and from place to place. Early in August, Chinese forces counter-attacked and in less than ten days had recovered more than a dozen cities. The re-occupation of the airfields at Chuhsien, Lishui and other Chekiang cities completely nullified the enemy efforts.

The enemy's campaign in Chekiang and Kiangsi marked a departure from usual tactics. Failing to gain much by putting the main strength in columns moving along lines of communication, the Japanese threw in their firing power with "flying units." Without relying on heavy weapons, but adequately armed with machine-guns and other portable weapons, these units stole through difficult regions and then concentrated their attacks on thinly-defended points. Close co-ordination between the land and air forces constituted the main factor of their initial successes.

The use of a large air force by the Japanese was another feature of the Chekiang-Kiangsi Battle. The air force, larger than any ever used in any previous battle in China, operated mainly from Hangchow and Nanchang. Gas was extensively used.

With Fenghwa, Shaohing, Siaoshan and Fuyang in Chekiang province as their bases, the Japanese started a four-route offensive on May 15. Two days later they occupied Chuki, the first big city south of Hangchow on the Chekiang-Kiangsi railway. Kinhwa fell on May 28 and Lanchi on May 30. By June 1, when the Japanese began to attack Chuhsien, where the largest airfield in the Chekiang-Kiangsi area was located, it was estimated that the enemy had thrown into the field more than 100,000 men.

The enemy set out from Nanchang in Kiangsi on May 31 in two columns, pushing eastward and southeastward. They took Kweiki on June 16 and Iyang on June 29. Japanese forces from Chekiang entered Shangjao on June 15. By July 1, when Hengfeng was lost, the enemy gained control over the entire length of the Chekiang-Kiangsi railway.

Along the Fukien coast, Japanese troops landed on the north bank of the Min River on May 20, but were driven back to their warships on June 11. In southeastern Chekiang, the enemy took Wenchow. It was recovered by the Chinese on July 17 and the enemy again took it the following day with the support of landing parties. The city remained in enemy hands until August

15, when Chinese counter-attacking forces recaptured it.

Lishui, important highway city in southern Chekiang, was lost on June 24. After severe fighting in that region, Chinese advance units re-entered the city on August 28. Before they were driven back northward, the Japanese, having taken Kinhwa, made a southward detour attack to join the enemy column from the eastern part of the province. Enemy units from Kiangshan, a city on the Chekiang-Kiangsi railway, rolled further southward, reaching as far as Siensialing Mountain on the Chekiang-Kiangsi-Fukien border.

In Kiangsi, one of the main columns of the enemy forces from Nanchang moved southeastward with Sankiangkow as an advance base, the other column advancing along the railway. The column advancing southward reached Linchwan on June 5, Tsungjen on June 9, Nancheng on June 12 and Ihwang on June 14. Fighting was most ferocious in the Linchwan sector in the early part of July following the recapture of Ihwang and Tsungjen. On July 6, the Japanese raided Fengcheng and Changshuchen from Linchwan in the east and Sankiangkow in the north. Both Fengcheng and Changshuchen are highway cities south of Nanchang on the east shore of the vertical Kan River. They were, however, thrown back by the Chinese on the following day, and the area was free of enemy troops on July 9, when the Chinese intensified their counter-attacks on Linchwan and other eastern Kiangsi cities. Nancheng was recaptured on July 9, while the enemy evacuated Poyang on the east shore of Poyang Lake on July 10. The Japanese also landed on the east and southeast shore of Poyang Lake and via Juihung and Yukan. They drove southeastward and joined a detachment from Yukiang north of the railway.

Concerted action of the Chinese in August resulted in the quick re-occupation of Shangjao on the 19th, Kwangfeng on the 20th, Yushan and Yingtan on the 21st, Yukiang on the 22nd, Linchwan in Kiangsi and Changshan and Kiangshan in Chekiang in addition to two other minor points on the 23rd, and Tungsiang and Sankiangkow on the 24th. In southeastern Chekiang, the Chinese retook Wenchow on August 15 and Tsingtien on August 21.

Linchwan, key city in eastern Kiangsi, 80 kilometers south of Nanchang, changed

hands several times until August 23 when the enemy was definitely driven northward and the Chinese re-established full control over the city and its surrounding area. From Linchwan, Chinese troops moved northward and took Sankiangkow. They later reached a point only 15 kilometers south of Nanchang.

The Chinese recovery of Changshan and Kiangshan in western Chekiang on August 23, together with the recapture of Linchwan, happened within 24 hours. From Changshan and Kiangshan, Chinese troops advanced in two columns toward Chuhsien and in two days they were within a striking distance of only a few miles from the city. Chinese troops re-occupied the city on August 28.

In three months of continuous fighting, including many close-quarter combats, both sides suffered high casualties. The Japanese paid dearly for all gains, temporary though they were. To give but a few instances: The Japanese suffered 14,000 casualties in the attack on Kinhsia and Lanchi, lost 18,000 men at Chuhsien, and 8,000 at Shangjiao.

The rout of the Japanese on the 500-kilometer front in Chekiang and Kiangsi was chiefly due to the fact that the Japanese failed to crush the main Chinese strength and were not able to consolidate their long-stretched positions. After the evacuation of Chuhsien early in June, Chinese troops revised their tactics by withdrawing their main forces to both sides of the railway in the face of the enemy advance and attacking the enemy from the rear and flank. Meanwhile, Chinese units remaining behind the enemy lines continued to harass the enemy from the beginning of the hostilities. They were particularly active in Chekiang.

The Chekiang-Kiangsi Battle definitely shattered Japan's wild dream of building a Tokyo-Singapore railway via the Shanghai-Hangchow, Chekiang-Kiangsi and Hunan-Kwangsi railways and lines in Indo-China and Thailand.

THE BATTLE OF WESTERN HUPEH

The Japanese began their westward push in western Hupeh on May 13. Six days later the Chinese Air Force struck at the enemy supply bases and river crossings at Chihkiang and Yangchi, southeast of Chihkiang, on the south bank of the Yangtze in western Hupeh, inflicting heavy casualties on the enemy. Subsequent raids were made by Chinese and American planes in the Tungting Lake and Yangtze

River areas in Central China on May 20, 21, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31 and in early June during which enemy positions, troop concentrations, supply lines and communication centers were subjected to bombing and strafing attacks, causing extensive damage and heavy losses to the enemy.

Marshalling a force of 100,000 men, the enemy, after successful river-crossing operations, struck westward in three columns on the south bank of the Yangtze from Hwajung near the Hunan-Hupeh border, north of the Tungting Lake, Chihkiang, southeast of Ichang, and Itu, northeast of Chihkiang. In the initial stages of the fighting, the enemy land forces were supported by bombing planes in north Hunan, and paratroops were landed behind the Chinese line to press the Chinese back from their positions west of Chihkiang.

Following the fall of Yuyangwan on May 23, about 60 crow kilometers south of Ichang, the Japanese concentrated their attacks on Changyang due south of Ichang. Terming Yuyangkwan as the gateway to Chungking, the Japanese greatly publicized their success. Retiring step by step from the low-lying and lake districts for which the enemy was extremely well-equipped, the Chinese engaged the invaders in severe fighting in hilly regions where some of the heights rise 2,000 meters above sea level. Here the enemy found it difficult to use heavy armament.

Strongly supported by Chinese and American planes, the Chinese on May 27 fought ferociously against the enemy in occupation of Yuyangwan, wresting the pivotal base from the enemy two days later. This began a general counterattack on the entire front, the enemy being driven back piecemeal in all directions. Strategic points, including Changyang, Itu and Chihkian in western Hupeh and Nansien and Ansiang in northern Hunan were recovered by the Chinese. The first week of June saw the Chinese still in hot pursuit of the retreating enemy with the Chinese and American bombers and pursuits relentlessly executing bombing and strafing attacks on the fleeing invaders.

Reviewing the battle at a mass meeting held at Enshih in western Hupeh, General Chen Cheng, a War Zone Commander-in-Chief, placed the Japanese casualties at 30,000. The enemy had employed six divisions for the drive. Though superior in equipment and stronger in number, the enemy collapsed when the Chinese fought back in earnest.

CHAPTER X

EDUCATION AND RESEARCH

Among the indomitable forces at work in China against Japan's war of aggression are her educational institutions. These have been major targets of enemy bombings, but under such constant attacks they have thrived miraculously, true to China's traditional spirit of endurance and fortitude.

Through this baptism of fire, China's education has climbed to new heights of progress. Institutions of all grades in Free China during the war have registered an upturn. On January 1, 1943, the Ministry of Education reported 133 institutions of higher learning in China, including universities, independent and technical colleges. This showed an increase of 25 over the 108 just before the war. The total enrolment in the 133 colleges and universities was 57,832 against 31,188 in 1937.

HISTORY OF HIGHER EDUCATION

The history of modern higher education in China began in the first year of Emperor Tung Chih of the Manchu Dynasty (1862) when *Tung Wen Kwan* was established in Peking for the training of diplomatic personnel. Later a school on western culture known as *Hsi Hsueh Hsuehtang* (Western Learning School) was opened in Tientsin and another school called Nanyang Institute was established in Shanghai.

In the 28th and 29th years of Emperor Kwang Hsu (1902-3) the first set of regulations governing institutions of higher education was promulgated by the Manchu government. Then such institutions as *Tahsuehtang* (universities), *Kaoteng Hsuehtang* (higher institutions), *Kaoteng Shihyeh Hsuehtang* (higher industrial institutions), *Facheng Hsuehtang* (law institutions) and *Yuchi Shihfan Hsuehtang* (teachers' colleges) came into existence. The curriculum of these institutions emphasized Chinese culture and encouraged studies of western learning. By the first year of Emperor Hsuan Tung (1909), there were in China three universities and 24 higher institutions, with a total enrolment of 4,876.

After the founding of the Chinese Republic, the system of higher education was revised to provide for the establishment of universities, technical colleges and higher normal schools. In universities, there were departments of arts and sciences, law, commerce, agriculture, engineering and medicine.

There were technical colleges of agriculture, industries, commerce, law, medicine, pharmacy, navigation and foreign languages. By 1917, there were in China two national universities—University of Peking and Peiyang University—and eight other public and private universities.

Another reform in the system of higher education was introduced in 1922 when provisions were made for the establishment of colleges specializing on various subjects, and certain courses in colleges and universities were put on a selective basis. Thus all technical colleges and higher normal schools were classified as "colleges and universities." By 1925 there were 34 public colleges and universities and 13 private ones.

A further improvement was effected with the establishment of the National Government in Nanking in 1928. Institutions were classified into three main groups: universities, independent colleges and technical colleges. Universities and independent colleges might establish schools for post-graduate studies. A university consisted of colleges of arts, science, law, commerce, education, agriculture, engineering and medicine. There must be at least three colleges which had to include science and one of the three colleges of agriculture, engineering and medicine. Those having less than three colleges fell under the "independent colleges" category. With the exception of medical colleges requiring a six-year course, the term for graduation of all other colleges was fixed at four years. Technical colleges, including agriculture, engineering and medicine required a two to three-year course. Schools for post-graduate study were required to have at least three departments and to give a two-year course of study.

Universities, independent and technical colleges in China numbered 74 in 1928 and 108 before the outbreak of war in 1937. An abrupt drop to 91 was registered during the latter half of 1937. The trend has since been on the upturn: 97 in 1938, 101 in 1939, 113 in 1940, 129 in 1941, and 133 on January 1, 1943.

The 108 institutions of higher learning in pre-war days included 42 universities (16 national, seven provincial and 19 private), 34 independent colleges (five national, eight provincial and 21 private) and 32 technical colleges (six national 16 public and provincial, and 10 private).

They were scattered in five main districts: North China, Central China, East China, South China and Northwest China. North China, including Peiping, Tientsin, Hopei, Shansi and Shantung provinces had 30 institutions; Central China, including Szechwan, Hupeh, Honan and Hunan had 17 institutions; East China, embracing the cities of Nanking and Shanghai and Kiangsu, Chekiang, Anhwei and Kiangsi provinces had 45 institutions; South China provinces of Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Fukien and Yunnan had 13 institutions while the three northwestern provinces of Shensi, Kansu and Sinkiang had three institutions. Among cities, Shanghai was China's educational megalopolis with 25 institutions; Peiping came next with 14; Canton, seven; and Nanking, six.

REDISTRIBUTION AND DECENTRALIZATION

Most of the schools prior to the war were located in cities of China's coastal provinces. Such faraway provinces as Chahar, Suiyuan, Chinghai, Sikang, Ningsia, Mongolia and Tibet, not to mention the Four Northeastern Provinces, had remained outskirts unreached by education in its highly-developed forms. There was great need for decentralization. Japan's aggression brought about more progress along this line than would have been possible in a generation of peace.

The redistribution of China's educational institutions followed a series of migrations from the coastal board to the interior West, Northwest and Southwest China. The first migration took place in August and September, 1937, when students and teachers took to the road in large numbers from the Peiping-Tientsin area. Hardly were the first guns fired at Lukouchiao than the Japanese military authorities began an attack on the cultural institutions in these cities. They first struck Peiping. Following the occupation of the city in July, all but a few institutions of higher learning were forced to close down.

The fate of Tsinghua University is typical. Founded in 1912 with the balance of the American Boxer Indemnity Fund remitted to China, the university first served as a preparatory college and sent its graduates to the United States for higher education. In 1927, it was made a national university and soon became one of the best-equipped and staffed in the country. The university was occupied by the Japanese on October

13, 1937. The John Hay Memorial Library, one of the best and largest in China, was turned into a hospital for Japanese wounded soldiers and the Theodore Roosevelt Memorial Gymnasium into a stable for Japanese army horses! National Peking University, National Peiping University, National Normal University and others in Peiping suffered similar treatment.

In Tientsin, the outstanding private-supported Nankai University, founded and headed by the noted educator, Dr. Chang Po-ling, was the first victim, its buildings being deliberately destroyed in August, 1937, by means of artillery, bombs and incendiarism.

Tsinghua, National Peking and Nankai all travelled 1,200 crow-kilometers to Changsha in Hunan where they jointly operated a union university. Following the first Japanese bombing of Changsha on April 10, 1938, however, the union university made a further move of 1,000 kilometers to Kunming, Yunnan, where it has since been known as the National Southwest Associated University.

National Peiping and National Normal Universities in Peiping and Peiyang Engineering College in Tientsin moved some 800 kilometers and established another union university at Sian in Shensi. Because of repeated Japanese bombings of that city, they then went on to Nancheng and finally to Hanchung and Chengku, southern Shensi cities by the Han River where they have since operated under the name of the National Northwest Union University (now National Northwest University).

The fall of Shanghai, Soochow, Nanking and Hangchow in November and December 1937, led to the second migration. No less than 14 of the educational institutions in Shanghai were subjected to artillery and air attacks shortly after the outbreak of hostilities there. Four Chinese-owned universities, Tungchi, Fuhtan, Tahsia and Kwanghua were practically levelled to the ground. Among the Christian institutions, the University of Shanghai had its buildings occupied by the enemy soldiers and St. John's University was forced to abandon its campus even though it was within the British defense sector. Soochow University in Soochow and Hangchow Christian College in Hangchow were both affected. The International Settlement became a refuge where the University of Shanghai, St. John's, Soochow University and Hangchow Christian College shared rented quarters.

The National Central University in Nanking suffered the worst, being the object of four Japanese air raids in the fall of 1937, resulting in serious damage to the school library, the experimental school, the auditorium, the dental school, the girls' dormitory and the buildings of the College of Arts.

Long before these bombings, the school had started packing. All valuable books in the library and laboratory equipment were put into 550 wooden boxes which were taken to the river bank, ready for shipment upriver. The university, its students and faculty left Nanking early in October and after a 1,800-kilometer trip up the Yangtze River reached Chungking in early November. Construction of 24 new school buildings capable of accommodating more than 1,000 students, at Shapingpa outside Chungking, had been completed within 42 days by 1,700 men working in day and night shifts. In the meantime, its College of Medicine and Dentistry arrived in Chengtu, Szechwan capital, and resumed work on the campus of the West China Union University.

The University of Nanking and Gining College for Women in Nanking started their trek westward early in December. These institutions, together with Cheeloo University from Tsinan, Shantung, also joined West China Union University to become the Associated Universities in Chengtu. Other schools involved in the second migration westward included Fuhtan and Kwanghua from Shanghai, the former to Peipei near Chungking and the latter to Chengtu.

Long before the withdrawal of the Chinese forces from the Wuhan cities, National Wuhan University, one of the most beautifully and sumptuously housed of all Chinese universities, moved from Wuchang to Loshan, near Mount Omei, in Szechwan, as the first institution involved in the third migration. Huachung College in Wuchang made perhaps the longest trek among all mission institutions from its home to its present site not far from the Burma border. It left Wuchang on July 11, 1938, and established itself at Kweilin in Kwangsi, its Library School going

direct to Chungking. Raids soon became too severe in Kweilin, and early in 1939, the first group left for Yunnan. Finally, in the late spring, Huachung re-established itself in a little town near Tali, Yunnan.

The landing of the Japanese forces at Bias Bay on October 12, 1938, precipitated the long and most trying odyssey of the National Sun Yat-sen University, citadel of higher learning in South China since 1924. The trek over nearly 3,000 kilometers, first to Loting in southwestern Kwangtung, then to Lungchow in southern Kwangsi and eventually to Chengkiang in Yunnan was one that would discourage the bravest. The university remained in Chengkiang until the fall of 1940. Preparations for its return to Kwangtung were started as early as July, 1940. Pingshih, close to Kukong (Shaokwan), the provincial government seat since the fall of Canton, was chosen for the university while a few of its colleges were to operate at Nanhsiung, close to the Kiangsi border.

Overlapping all three migrations is the odyssey of Ming Hsien (Oberlin-in-Shansi), an institution founded by Dr. H. H. Kung, Vice-President of the Executive Yuan and Minister of Finance, with a 60-acre and \$1,000,000 campus at Taiku in Shansi province. The epic trek covering over 1,500 kilometers of the most difficult terrain under the constant menace of enemy bombs began in the early days of the war and ended in April, 1939, when the school settled down to the peaceful and tucked-away little city of Chitang, 45 kilometers from Chengtu in Szechwan.

The mass migration of China's institutions of higher education, full of trials and tribulations, involved numerous other institutions which moved at one time or another. To sum up, 24 moved from one place to another within the same province; 26 moved to the provinces of Hunan and Szechwan; eight moved to the provinces of Yunnan, Kweichow and Kwangsi and three moved to the provinces of Shensi and Kansu. These transient institutions, 62 in all, their original and new sites are listed below:

Within the Same Province:

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Original Site</i>	<i>Present Site</i>
National Hunan University	Changsha, Hunan	Shensi, Hunan
National Amoy University	Amoy, Fukien	Changting, Fukien
National Northwest Union University	Sian, Shensi	Chengku, Shensi
National Szechwan University	Chengtu, Szechwan	Kiating, Szechwan

Within the Same Province :—Contd.*Institutions**Original Site**Present Site*

National Sun Yat-sen University	Canton, Kwangtung	Pingshih, Kwangtung
National Chung Cheng Medical College	Nanchang, Kiangsi	Yungsin, Kiangsi
University of Honan	Kaifeng, Honan	Chenping, Honan
Lingnan University	Canton, Kwangtung	Hongkong
Kwangtung Kuomin University	Canton	Kaiping, Kwangtung
Canton University	Canton	Toishan, Kwangtung
Kwangtung (Provincial) Commercial College	Canton	Kukong, Kwangtung
Kwangtung (Provincial) College of Arts and Sciences	Canton	Lienhsien, Kwangtung
Fukien Christian College	Foochow, Fukien	Shaowu, Fukien
Fukien Union College	Foochow	Pucheng
Fukien (Provincial) Medical College	Foochow	Shahsien
South China Women's College of Arts and Sciences	Foochow	Nanping
Chekiang (Provincial) Medical and Pharmaceutical College	Hangchow, Chekiang	Tientai, Chekiang
Kiangsi (Provincial) Medical College	Nanchang, Kiangsi	Kanhsien, Kiangsi
Kwangtung (Provincial) College of Physical Education	Canton, Kwangtung	Lienhsien, Kwangtung
Shensi (Provincial) Medical College	Sian, Shensi	Nanchung, Shensi (later back to Sian)
Honan Hydraulic Engineering College	Kaifeng, Honan	Chenping, Honan
Kiangsi (Provincial) Industrial College	Nanchang, Kiangsi	Yuntu, Kiangsi
Hupei (Provincial) Agricultural College	Wuchang, Hupei	Enshih, Hupei
Chunghih Agricultural and Commercial College	Changsha, Hunan	Taoyuan, Hunan

To Hunan and Szechwan Provinces :

National Central University	Nanking	Chungking
National Wuhan University	Wuchang, Hupei	Kiating, Szechwan
National Tungchi University	Woosung, Shanghai	Nansi, Szechwan
National Chiaotung University	Shanghai	Chiulungpo (near Chungking), Szechwan
National Northeast University	Peiping	Santai, Szechwan
National Fuhtan University	Shanghai	Peipei, Szechwan
University of Nanking	Nanking	Chengtu, Szechwan
Kwanghua University	Shanghai	Chengtu, Szechwan
Chunghua University	Wuchang, Hupei	Chungking
Cheeloo University	Tsinan, Shantung	Chengtu, Szechwan
National Shanghai Medical College	Shanghai	Koloshan, Chungking
National Kiangsu Medical College	Shanghai	Peipei
Chaoyang University	Peiping	Pahsien, Szechwan
Ginling College for Women	Nanking	Chengtu, Szechwan
Peiping Minkuo College	Peiping	Ningsien, Hunan
National Dental College	Nanking	Chengtu, Szechwan
National School of Fine Arts	Yuanling, Hunan	Pishan, Szechwan
National School of Pharmacy	Nanking	Koloshan, Chungking
National Commercial College	Chinkiang, Kiangsu	Kancheng, Hunan
National School of Physical Education	Nanking	Peipei, Szechwan
Shantung (Provincial) Medical College	Tsinan, Shantung	Wanhsien, Szechwan
Kiangsu (Provincial) School of Sericulture	Chinkiang, Kiangsu	Loshan, Szechwan
Boone Library School	Wuchang	Chungking
Wuchang College of Fine Arts	Wuchang	Kiangtsin, Szechwan
National Central Industrial College	Nanking	Chungking
National Academy of Dramatic Arts	Nanking	Kiangan, Szechwan

To Yunnan, Kweichow, and Kwangsi Provinces :

National Chekiang University	Hangchow, Chekiang	Tsunyi and Meitan, Kweichow
National Southwest Associated University	Peiping & Tientsin	Kunming, Yunnan

To Yunnan, Kweichow, and Kwangsi Provinces :—Contd.

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Original Site</i>	<i>Present Site</i>
Tahsia (Great China) University	Shanghai	Kweiyang, Kweichow
Huachung College	Wuchang	Tali, Yunnan
National Hsiangya Medical College	Changsha, Hunan	Kweiyang
Kweichow Branch of National Chiaotung University	Peiping & Tangshan	Pingyueh, Kweichow
Kiangsu (Provincial) Education College	Wusih, Kiangsu	Kweilin, Kwangsi (now suspended)
Wusih School of Chinese Classics	Wusih	Peiliu, Kwangsi

To Shensi and Kansu Provinces :

University of Shansi	Taiyuan, Shansi	Sanyuan, Shensi (now back to Yichuan, Shansi)
Shansi Medical College	Taiyuan	Sian, Shensi (now merged with Shansi University)
Chiaotso Engineering College	Chiaotso, Honan	Tienschui, Kansu (now merged with North-west Engineering College)

Among institutions in the foregoing list, Tahsia University kept its main school work in the International Settlement of Shanghai while the part removed to Kweiyang served as a branch school. Fuhtan University which was shifted to Peipei near Chungking still maintained a supplementary school in the International Settlement of Shanghai. Kwang-hua University also remained in Shanghai, the part removed to Chengtu serving only as a branch school. Other institutions operating in the International Settlement and French Concession of Shanghai included the National Chiaotung University (with its branch school near Chungking), National Chinan University, Shanghai Commercial College, National School of Music, Utopia (Tatung) University, University of Shanghai, St. John's University, Soochow University, Shanghai College of Law and Jurisprudence, Hangchow Christian College, Chengfeng College of Arts, Nantung College, Shanghai Medical College for Women, Tungteh Medical College, Tunnan Medical College, Far East School of Physical Education, Shanghai School of Fine Arts, Sinhua School of Fine Arts.

Most of these institutions, together with those which remained in Peiping and Tientsin were affected following the outbreak of the Pacific war. A plan was mapped out by the Ministry of Education for the establishment somewhere in Chekiang province of a Southeast Union University absorbing most of the public and private institutions in

Shanghai. The Ministry appointed a preparatory committee of ten including Messrs. Ho Ping-sung, president of Chinan University; J. Usang Ly, president of Chiaotung University; Pi Fu-heng, president of National Shanghai Commercial College; Yang Yung-ching, president of Soochow University; Van Tseng-kong, president of the University of Shanghai; Chang Shou-yung, president of Kwanghua University; Tsao Hui-chun, president of Utopia University; Hu Chien-chung, publisher of the *South-eastern Daily News* in Kinkwa; Lo Mei-huan, formerly education commissioner of Ningsia and Wang Feng-kai, noted educator. This plan, however, was not carried out due to the unsettled conditions in Chekiang following the Japanese campaign on the Chekiang-Kiangsi Railway zone early in 1942.

On December 29, 1942, the recommendation of the Ministry of Education to incorporate the Southeast Union University into the Yingshih University in Chekiang province was approved at a meeting of the Executive Yuan.

Schools in Hongkong, Tientsin and Peiping were all asked to move to the interior. Among them, Yen-ching University in Peiping, whose president, Dr. J. Leighton Stuart is in "honorary confinement" in Peiping has already reopened in Chengtu. Half of the students—approximately 130—came from Peiping while the other half are new students admitted at entrance examinations held in Chungking and Chengtu.

Following the mass migrations of China's institutions of higher learning, there have been amalgamations, reorganizations and dissolutions. Besides Tsinghua, Peking and Nankai Universities which jointly form the National Southwest Associated University, and National Peiping University, National Peiping Normal College and Peiyang Engineering College which form the National Northwest Union University, the schools of fine arts from Peiping and Hangchow were merged to become the National School of Fine Arts. The College of Railway Administration (formerly in Peiping) was incorporated into the Engineering College (formerly in Tangshan, Hopei) of Chiao Tung University to form the Kweichow Branch of the National Chiao Tung University. In 1938, the Engineering Colleges of National Northwest Union University and Northeast University combined with the engineering college from Chiao Tung, Honan as the National Northwest Engineering College, while the College of Agriculture of the Northwest Union University combined with Northwest Technical College of Agriculture and Forestry as the National Northwest Agricultural College. In 1939, the College of Agriculture and Normal College of the Northwest Union University were made independent institutions. The Northwest Union University with its remaining Colleges of Arts and Sciences, Law and Commerce was renamed the National Northwest University. Other institutions amalgamated included the Kiangsu Provincial Medical College and the Department of Medicine of Nantung College which jointly form the National Kiangsu Medical College.

The Yunnan (Provincial) University in Kunming and Kwangsi (Provincial) University in Kweilin were nationalized in 1938 and 1939, respectively. The Provincial University and Hydraulic Engineering College of Honan, Ying-shih University of Chekiang, Chungking University of Szechwan and the University of Shensi together with the School of Music of Fukien were changed into national institutions in 1942. Private institutions nationalized included the Hsiangya (Yale-in-China) Medical College and Fuhtan University.

Among universities, independent and technical colleges affected by war, 19 have suspended work. They include the Hopei Provincial Industrial Technical College, Women's Normal College, Insti-

tute of Law and Commerce, Medical and Agricultural Colleges in Hopei province; Shansi Provincial Industrial Technical College, Commercial and Agricultural Technical Colleges in Shansi province; Shantung Provincial Rural Reconstruction Technical Institute in Shantung province, Shanghai Municipal Physical Education College in Shanghai, Peiping Municipal Physical Education College in Peiping and China Institute (*Chung Kuo Kung Hsueh*). The Shantung (Provincial) University was removed to Wanhhsien, Szechwan, and suspended there because of lack of students. So was Anhwei (Provincial) University after its removal to Shasi, due to financial difficulties. The Navigation Technical College at Woosung closed down shortly after the outbreak of hostilities in Shanghai, while the Sino-French Engineering College and Chichih University in Shanghai were dissolved because their presidents joined the puppet regime in Nanking. In 1941, Kiangsu (Provincial) Education College and Chunchih Agricultural and Commercial Technical College closed also because of lack of students.

Aside from those suspended after the war began, more than 80 higher institutions of all description have at one time or another moved inland. The only institutions which have remained in their original sites are Chungking University in Chungking, Szechwan (Provincial) Education College at Tzechikow near Chungking, West China Union University in Chengtu, Yunnan University in Kunming, Kwangsi University in Kweilin, Kansu College in Lanchow, Sinkiang College in Tihwa and other recently-established institutions in the interior.

WAR DAMAGES

The losses suffered by China's institutions of higher learning during the war can only be roughly estimated as no detailed up-to-date statistics are available. Figures in the possession of the Ministry of Education cover only the period ending December, 1939. According to these, the grounds and buildings of 91 out of the 108 pre-war colleges and universities were either occupied or damaged by the enemy. Among them 14 have been destroyed. The total losses sustained up to that date amounted to more than \$90,000,000. The following tables show the distribution of such losses.

**PROPERTY LOSSES OF NATIONAL UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES IN
THE WAR AREAS (UP TO THE END OF DECEMBER, 1939)**

NAME	Property Losses	REMARKS
National Central University	\$3,383,400	
National University of Peiping	1,022,317	
National Peking University	1,028,515	This sum includes only the equipment; the cost of the premises is not included.
National Tsinghua University	6,050,000	University premises and buildings, \$3,500,000; library \$2,500,000; branch in Changsha bombed, \$50,000.
National Normal University	1,502,871	
National Shantung University	3,611,663	Buildings in Tsingtao, \$2,912,580; laboratory, \$223,735; library, \$181,764; premises in Tsinan, College of Agriculture, \$287,584.
National Sun Yat-sen University	6,638,964	Damages by aerial bombardment.
National Tungchi University	1,480,000	
National University of Chekiang	1,560,000	Premises, \$1,300,000; other equipment, \$260,000.
National Hunan University	700,000	Damages by aerial bombardment.
National Amoy University	1,288,202	Buildings, \$972,700; libraries and laboratories, \$80,907; machinery, equipment, and museum pieces, \$189,595.
National Peiyang Engineering College	629,063	
National Chungcheng Medical College	1,200	Damages by aerial bombardment.
National School of Pharmacy	49,000	
School of Physical Education of the Central Institute of National Physical Exercises	179,814	
Woosung School of Commercial Navigation	290,700	Buildings and equipment, \$196,500; machinery, \$19,400; library and Laboratories, \$24,000; losses of faculty and students, \$50,800.
National School of Fine Arts	81,030	
National Chinan University	413,000	
National Wuhan University	2,875,937	
National Chiaotung University	2,369,650	
National Commercial College of Shanghai	183,066	
National School of Music	159,975	
National Medical College of Soochow	5,000	
TOTAL	\$37,003,467	

**PROPERTY LOSSES OF PROVINCIAL UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES IN
THE WAR AREAS (UP TO THE END OF DECEMBER, 1939)**

NAME	Property Losses	REMARKS
Provincial University of Hunan	\$1,600,000	This includes only the costs of the premises ; library and laboratory equipment not counted.
Anhwei Provincial University	3,088,607	
Shansi Provincial University	366,770	
Provincial Hsiangching University	951,837	
Kiangsu Provincial College of Medical and Political Science	325,106	
Kiangsu Provincial College of Education	249,678	
Hopei Provincial College of Technology	800,000	
Hopei Provincial Girls' Normal College	696,000	
Hopei Provincial College of Agriculture	152,353	
Hopei Provincial College of Medicine	186,930	
Chekiang Provincial School of Medicine and Pharmacy	698,794	
Shansi Provincial School of Agriculture	138,982	
Shansi Provincial School of Technology	14,589	
Kiangsi Provincial School of Medicine	70,000	
Honan Provincial School of Hydraulic Engineering	45,530	
Shantung Provincial School of Medicine	143,670	
Kiangsu Provincial School of Sericulture	64,051	
Kwangtung Provincial School of Physical Education	58,022	
TOTAL	\$9,650,919	

**PROPERTY LOSSES OF PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES IN
THE WAR AREAS (UP TO THE END OF DECEMBER, 1939)**

NAME	Property Losses	REMARKS
University of Nanking	\$15,384,834	
Fuhtan University	2,316,310	
Kwanghua University	544,975	
Tahsia University	800,000	
Soochow University	550,000	
University of Shanghai	1,510,000	
Yenching University	599,368	
Nankai University	3,750,000	University, \$3,000,000; Middle School, \$750,000.
Cheeloo University	957,350	
Huaching College of Wuchang	292,397	
Chunghua University of Wuchang	431,910	
Lingnan University	3,800,000	
Kwangtung Kuomin University	383,080	
Canton University	199,444	
Ginling College for Women	6,306,225	
Shanghai College of Law	510,000	
Chichih University	511,100	
Chaoyang College	247,750	
Chungkuo College	433,800	
Chengfeng College of Arts	100,000	
Peiping Union Medical College	
Peiping Minkuo College	215,000	
Tientsin Engineering and Commercial College	1,200,000	
Nantung College	307,810	
Hangchow Christian College	600,000	
Kwanghua Medical College of Kwangtung	169,928	
Chaiotso Engineering College	184,452	
Girls' College of Medicine of Shanghai	\$34,651	
Tungteh Medical College	160,000	
Southwestern Medical College	270,000	
Shanghai College of Law and Jurisprudence	50,000	
Wuchang School of Fine Arts	1,045,953	
Far East School of Physical Education	240,000	
Soochow School of Fine Arts	92,000	
Shanghai School of Fine Arts	123,000	
Sinhua School of Fine Arts	180,924	
Wusih School of Chinese Classics	110,000	
Boone Library School	26,000	
Chuantze School of Medicine of Shansi	102,650	
Railway School	30,988	
TOTAL	\$44,771,897	

NOTE.—The losses of University of Shanghai and Southeastern School of Medicine have not yet been reported.

The losses sustained by institutions of higher learning cannot be entirely evaluated in terms of money, as, for instance, the materials for economic research possessed by Nankai University, the modern history documents of Tsinghua University and the geological fossils of Peking University are most precious and can never be replaced.

As time went on, few educational institutions, no matter how far removed from the center of war, could get safely beyond the reach of Japan's ever-lengthening air arm. In June, 1939, the campus of West China Union University in Chengtu was bombed; in August, Wuhan University suffered in the bombing of the small West Szechwan city to which it had moved. The National Central University at Shapingpa was bombed thrice in the summer of 1940, on June 27, 29 and July 4. Fuhtan University in Peipei near Chungking also suffered serious bombing damage. The National Southwest Associated University in Kunming was most severely bombed on August 14, 1941, resulting in the destruction of its biology laboratory, book shelves of the library and a number of classrooms. In the same raid its normal college, dormitory for women students, dormitory for faculty members, general administration office and office of the executives were all badly damaged and rendered uninhabitable.

NEWLY-ESTABLISHED INSTITUTIONS

Among institutions established since the war broke out, 15 are national. Kweiyang Medical College was founded in Kweiyang in 1937. The following year at Lantien in Hunan province, an Independent Normal College was established. The education colleges of Central and Northwest Union Universities were changed into normal colleges. The education departments of the Southwest Associated and Yunnan Universities were combined into a normal college attached to the former while the education department of Chekiang University and the education department and institute of the National Sun Yat-sen University were all raised to the status of normal colleges in 1939. In 1940, an independent women's normal college was established at Peisa, Szechwan, and in the following year Szechwan University was also ordered to set up a normal college. To meet the need for teaching personnel in Kweichow province, the National Kweiyang Normal College was founded in Kweiyang. The National Kweichow

University at Kweiyang and National Northwest Medical College in Lanchow, Kansu, were founded in 1941. For training technical personnel, three technical colleges were established in 1939 at Loshan in Szechwan, Lanchow in Kansu and Sichang in Sikang. To replace the former one in Woosung, a marine college was inaugurated near Chungking. In 1940, National Chung-cheng University was founded at Taiho in Kiangsi province and the National Conservatory of Music was founded at Chingmukwan near Chungking. The year 1941 saw the establishment of National Kweichow Agricultural and Industrial College, National Social Education College and National Physical Education College.

Newly-established provincial institutions include Yingshih University in honor of Chen Ying-shih, revolutionary martyr, (made national on December 29, 1942), University of Chekiang, Fukien Provincial Agricultural College, Kwangsi Provincial Medical College, Hupeh Provincial Education and Agricultural Colleges. Among technical colleges are Kiangsi Provincial Animal Husbandry and Veterinary Science College, Shensi Provincial Medical and Commercial Colleges, Fukien Provincial School of Music (made national in 1942) and Normal College, Hunan Provincial Agricultural, Industrial and Commercial Colleges, Szechwan Provincial College of Technology, Kiangsu Provincial Soochow Industrial College and the Kiangsu-Anhwei Joint College of Technology. The Suiyuan-Mongol Law College of Suiyuan has also registered with the Ministry of Education. In all, there are 16 newly-established provincial higher institutions and technical colleges.

The number of private institutions was increased by 11. They are the Lisin Accounting Technical College, Minghsien (Oberlin-in-China) Agricultural and Industrial Technical College, Nanhua (South China) College, Szechwan-Sikang Agricultural and Industrial College, Chungking Methodist Commercial College, Northwest School of Pharmacy, Shanghai English Language School, West China Industrial and Commercial Technical College, Chengtso Embroidery School for Women, Rural Reconstruction College of the Mass Education Movement Association and Chunghua Vocational Technical College.

Of the 133 institutions of higher learning, there are 39 universities of which 22 are national and 17 are private. Among the 47 independent colleges, 16

are national, 10 provincial and 21 private. Technical colleges number 47 of which 17 are national, 16 provincial and 14 private. By provinces, Szechwan tops the list with 39 institutions (11 universities, seven independent colleges and 21 technical colleges); Shensi and Fukien come next with nine institutions each (Shensi: two universities, four independent colleges and three technical colleges; Fukien: one university, five independent colleges and three technical colleges); Hunan ranks third with seven institutions (one university, two independent colleges and four technical colleges); Kweichow has seven institutions (three universities and four independent colleges); Kwangtung has six institutions (three universities and three independent colleges); Kiangsi has five institutions (one university, one independent college and three technical colleges); Yunnan has four institutions—all universities; Kwangsi and Kansu have three institutions each (Kwangsi: one university, one independent college and one technical college; Kansu: one independent college and two technical colleges); Chekiang, Hupeh and Honan have two institutions each (Chekiang: one university and one technical college; Hupeh: two independent colleges; Honan: one university and one technical college); Anhwei, Sikang and Sinkiang have one institution each; (Anhwei: one technical college; Sikang: one technical college, Sinkiang: one independent college). Besides, there are four institutions in Peiping (two universities and two independent colleges), one in Tientsin (independent college), 25 in Shanghai (seven universities, 10 independent colleges and eight technical colleges) and two in Hongkong (one university and one independent college).

IMPROVEMENTS IN CURRICULUM

With the redistribution and decentralization of China's institutions of higher learning, certain improvements and readjustments in organization and curriculum to meet wartime demands have been effected. These are based upon the program for wartime education adopted by the Extraordinary Kuomintang National Congress convened in March 1938. The Congress resolved upon the *Program of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction*. Articles 29, 30, 31 and 32 of the Program dealt specifically with wartime education.

"Article 29. Both the educational system and teaching material shall be revised. A program of wartime education shall be instituted with emphasis on the

cultivation of the people's morals, and the enhancement of scientific research and the expansion of necessary facilities.

"Article 30. Technical personnel of all kinds shall be trained and given proper assignment in order to meet the needs of war.

"Article 31. Youths shall be given training to enable them to work in the war areas or rural districts.

"Article 32. Women shall be given training so that they may be of service to social enterprises and thereby of help to the nation's war strength."

The principle is to effect a well-balanced development of the different departments of learning. In many cases the emphasis has been on science and engineering. This policy began prior to the outbreak of war when many institutions of higher learning were instructed by the Ministry of Education to make changes and additions to that effect. For instance, the National Central University was ordered to provide a department of sericulture, Szechwan University to establish departments of horticulture and insect control, and Fukien Union University to have departments of agriculture and agricultural economics. Later the National Central University added a department of hydraulic engineering and a special course in mechanical engineering which has now been changed and enlarged into a department of aeronautical engineering. Peiyang Engineering College included in its mechanical engineering department a course in aeronautical engineering. A college of engineering was added to Utopia University which began with chemical and electrical engineering courses. Amoy and Kwanghua Universities added departments of architecture and engineering while the Industrial and Commercial College in Tientsin reorganized its engineering department to include construction and architecture courses.

During the first year of war, the provincial education colleges of Kwangtung, Szechwan and Kiangsu, together with the College of Education of Tahsia University were designated training centers for social and vocational education personnel. Wuhan University's agricultural department was incorporated into the College of Agriculture and Forestry of the National Central University. National Southwest Associated University opened a department of aeronautical engineering. Fuhtan University started a statistics

department. Kwangsi University instituted departments of electrical engineering and animal husbandry and veterinary science. A College of Agriculture was planned by Yunnan University.

In 1939, National Sun Yat-sen University's college of engineering included as a new feature a department of construction and architecture while departments of animal husbandry and veterinary science and agricultural economics were introduced in its college of agriculture. Fuhtan University augmented its curriculum by the addition of a department of horticulture. National Tungchi University included in its department of mechanical engineering a special course in ship-building.

In 1940, National Northwest University's geography department was expanded to include geology; National Hunan University's chemistry department was split into two divisions of chemistry and chemical engineering; Kwangsi University started a department of chemical engineering; National Northwest University's agricultural department was split into three departments of agriculture, insect control and agricultural economics; Canton University's College of Sciences was changed into a College of Sciences and Engineering with the addition to its curriculum of a department of architecture and engineering; Fuhtan University's horticultural department and a special course in land reclamation were incorporated into a newly-organized College of Agriculture which include a special course in tea cultivation; Amoy University's College of Sciences was changed into a College of Sciences and Engineering; Chungking University's electrical engineering department was split into two departments of electrical and mechanical engineering; Soochow University opened a department of chemical engineering.

In 1941, Northwest Engineering College opened a department of industrial management; Northwest College of Technology started a course in farm irrigation; Cheeloo University's special course in pharmacy was enlarged into a pharmaceutical department.

In all institutions of higher learning there are 192 colleges of which 81 are national, 23 provincial, and 88 private. Colleges of arts and literature constitute the largest number closely followed by colleges of sciences. Then come medicine, law, engineering, agriculture, commerce, and normal colleges. There are 725 departments of which 39 belong to national institutions, 63 to provincial and 313 to private institutions. Chemistry departments top the list followed by those of Chinese literature and economics. Of the total of 80 special courses, 39 belong to national institutions, 12 to provincial and 29 to private institutions. Courses in normal education predominate, followed by agriculture, arts and literature, engineering and commerce. There are altogether 47 technical colleges with a total of 100 departments and courses of which 35 belong to national institutions, 40 to provincial and 25 private institutions. Engineering departments or courses rank first in importance followed by commercial and other technical departments of studies.

HIGHER EDUCATION FINANCES

The pre-war annual expenditure of China's institutions of higher learning, according to statistics in the possession of the Ministry of Education, reached the highest peak of \$39,200,000 in 1936. An abrupt drop to \$30,400,000 was registered in 1937, the first year of the war. The upward trend was resumed the following year. Following is a table showing the annual expenditures during the 13-year period from 1928 to 1940:—

<i>Year</i>	<i>No. of Institutions</i>	<i>Annual Expenditures</i>
1928	74	\$17,909,810
1929	76	25,533,343
1930	86	29,867,474
1931	103	33,619,237
1932	101	33,203,821
1933	108	33,564,921
1934	110	35,196,501
1935	108	37,126,870
1936	108	39,275,386
1937	94	30,431,556
1938	97	31,175,068
1939	101	37,348,870
1940	113	58,296,680

Taking the year 1936 as typical of the pre-war period and 1940 as typical of the war period, the following table shows how the annual expenditure was distributed :

Description	1936		1940	
	Amount	Percentage	Amount	Percentage
Salaries	\$21,096,544	53.71	\$28,507,231	48.90
Administration	6,494,830	16.53	6,461,561	11.08
Equipment	7,564,420	19.26	16,075,364	27.58
Academic Research	1,739,467	4.43	4,778,151	8.20
Others	2,381,125	6.07	2,474,373	4.24
Total	\$39,276,386	100.00	\$58,296,680	100.00

The year 1940 also marked the peak of annual receipts of all the institutions of higher learning which totalled \$56,792,466. This marked an increase of more than \$18,000,000 as compared with the annual receipts in the pre-war year of 1936 which totalled \$38,749,147.

The receipts consist of appropriations from National and Provincial treasuries, proceeds from property, contributions, tuition fees and other items. The following table shows the annual receipts of the institutions of higher learning during the five-year period from 1936 to 1940 :

Description	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
Appropriation	\$23,139,466	\$17,232,773	\$20,056,502	\$25,532,857	\$41,415,058
Property	770,132	1,894,950	1,109,482	4,590,796
Contribution	6,765,895	7,809,444	4,016,693	5,079,397	4,260,382
Tuition Fees	3,421,426	1,768,888	1,813,821	1,844,167	2,789,833
Miscellany	4,652,228	3,407,880	2,911,969	2,595,723	3,736,397
Total	\$38,749,147	\$30,218,985	\$30,693,935	\$36,161,626	\$56,792,466

Appropriations from the National Treasury to institutions of higher learning include current and provisional expenses of all national universities, independent and technical colleges as well as subsidies for provincial and private institutions. In 1936, the total of national current and provisional expenses was budgeted at \$990,650,000 of which \$54,930,000 or 5.54 per cent went to educational and cultural institutions. Out of that amount, \$19,760,000 went to national institutions of higher learning and \$2,150,000 as subsidies to provincial and private institutions, aggregating \$21,910,000 or 39.9 per cent of the total amount of educational and cultural expenses and 2.21 per cent of the total national expenses. The educational and cultural expenses in 1937 decreased to \$47,780,000 of which \$24,870,000 or 52.06 per cent went to institutions of higher learning. Effective from September, 1937, all appropriations from the National Treasury were reduced by 30 per cent. As a result, the annual appropriations for national institutions of higher learning decreased to \$22,210,000 and subsidies for provincial and private ones to \$1,500,000, aggregating \$23,710,000. The half-year budget for July-December, 1938, listed only \$7,490,000 for institutions of higher

learning. Grants for schools moving to the interior and for relief of teachers and students from war zones, however, totalled more than \$175,000 each month. Educational and cultural expenses for the fiscal year of 1939 totalled \$34,600,000 of which \$17,360,000 went to higher-education institutions. For the fiscal year of 1940, \$19,090,000 out of \$44,130,000 educational and cultural fund went to higher institutions. A large increase was registered in 1941 when the educational and cultural fund reached \$80,860,000 of which \$38,000,000 went to higher institutions.

BUILDINGS AND EQUIPMENT

In equipment and buildings, the greatest progress in the history of China's higher education was made during the ten years before the war. It was during this period that National Sun Yat-sen University, National Tsinghua University and National Wuhan University completed their beautiful and commodious school buildings and equipment. The Northeast and Yenching Universities had completed their school buildings and equipment before this period, while those of National Central University remained under construction. New school buildings constructed during the period were valued at an average of

\$6,000,000 each year and books purchased for school libraries averaged 400,000

volumes each year. The following table shows the trend of increase :—

<i>Year</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Library Books Increased</i>	<i>Value of New Buildings and Equipment</i>
1928	2,158,126
1929	2,713,762	555,636	\$5,287,119
1930	2,983,266	269,504	6,208,283
1931	3,633,927	650,661	6,379,778
1932	3,951,847	317,920	6,216,559
1933	4,493,616	541,769	6,376,137
1934	4,876,964	383,348	6,642,254
1935	5,181,128	304,164	6,812,185
1936	5,446,530	265,402	7,564,420
Total		3,288,404	\$51,486,735
Average each year		411,051	6,435,842

The buildings of the 108 pre-war institutions of higher learning in 1936 were valued at \$65,000,000 and equipment at \$21,000,000. The following table shows the value of school buildings and

equipment as distributed among national, provincial and public and private institutions among which the values of buildings and equipment of seven institutions were unreported :

<i>Description</i>	<i>Value of Buildings</i>	<i>Value of Equipment</i>
National	\$21,039,511	\$ 8,625,473
Provincial & Public	5,057,210	2,422,284
Private	31,034,119	7,932,042
Total	\$57,130,840	\$18,979,799

No statistics are available as to the values of school buildings and equipment after the outbreak of war. Light in this connection, however, can be derived from the amounts of subsidies granted from the National Treasury for the remuneration of the teaching staff and improvements in school equipment of qualified private institutions. A special committee of seven members organized by the Ministry of Education examines petitions for such grants and determines the amounts to be given. Seventy per cent of the subsidies to private institutions are to be used specially for departments of science, engineering, agriculture and medicine. Then out of the total grants, 70 per cent are to be used for increasing equipment and 30 per cent to cover the salaries of additional teaching staff. In 1940, the latter item was increased to 40 per cent. This special fund was first fixed at \$760,000 a year, but was increased to \$1,784,000 in 1937 when provincial institutions were also made eligible to the fund. Subsidies granted during the latter half of 1938 totalled \$598,060; those granted during 1939 totalled \$1,146,120; 1940, \$1,627,120; 1941, \$2,427,120. Funds appropriated to national institutions of higher learning for school buildings and equipment

totalled \$3,454,383 in 1937; \$590,000 in 1938 (half-year); \$3,013,000 in 1939; \$1,180,000 in 1940 and \$1,600,000 in 1941.

Two appropriations of U.S.\$200,000 and U.S. \$800,000 were made in 1940 and 1941, respectively, for the purchase of library books and laboratory equipment.

The first appropriation was distributed among 39 national institutions and the second among 50 national institutions.

In addition, the Ministry of Education in 1938 organized a special committee to collect library books and textbooks. Up to the end of 1940, 62 boxes totalling 3,047 volumes of books and other publications valued at £3,000, together with 15 kinds of magazines valued at £350, were collected from England. They were distributed among 23 national, provincial, public and private institutions. In America, 200 boxes of books are being collected and shipped to China for distribution.

ENTRANCE EXAMINATIONS

To keep a well-balanced development of higher education, a unified system of entrance examinations for all national and public institutions of higher learning has been enforced, effective from 1938. Through this system the number of

students in any department of the colleges of arts, literature, law and education is limited not to exceed that of students in any department of the colleges of science, agriculture, medicine and engineering. Private institutions of higher learning to which the unified system of entrance examinations does

not apply, however, were required to submit their plans on the number of new students to be admitted to the Ministry of Education for approval. The numbers of students who passed entrance examinations for the different colleges during the ten-year period from 1931 to 1940 are shown in the following table :

<i>Year</i>	<i>Science, Engineering, Medicine and Agriculture</i>	<i>Literature, Law, Commerce and Education</i>	<i>Normal Colleges</i>	<i>Unclassified</i>	<i>Total</i>
1931	11,227	32,940	44,167
1932	12,007	30,070	42,710
1933	14,133	28,787	42,936
1934	15,698	26,042	41,768
1935	16,990	24,082	...	56	41,128
1936	18,459	23,152	...	311	41,922
1937	15,280	15,227	...	681	31,188
1938	18,029	16,836	850	465	36,180
1939	21,728	20,022	1,776	896	44,422
1940	25,262	24,897	2,217	...	52,376

From the above table it can be seen that the number of students majoring in science and allied subjects has been on the upward trend whereas arts students have been decreasing so that an equilibrium in the emphasis of these two major branches of higher education has been attained. The fact that the total number of students admitted in colleges and universities in 1940 was increased to more than 50,000 shows the wartime progress of China's institutions of higher learning.

EMPLOYMENT FOR COLLEGE GRADUATES

Readjustments and reorganization in curriculum and departments of institutions of higher learning are also effected in the light of findings of the Central Reconstruction-Education Co-ordination Committee. This committee was organized by the Ministry of Education

in compliance with an order of the Executive Yuan in August, 1938. It consists of representatives of the Ministries of Interior, Finance, Economic Affairs Communications, and Military Affairs and the Aeronautical Affairs Commission. Its purpose is to investigate the need for technical personnel in various organizations and branches of wartime activity on the basis of which advice is given as to necessary changes in curriculum and teaching matter in schools. The committee has also been instrumental in assigning graduates from colleges and universities to jobs for which they may be qualified.

The number of graduates from institutions of higher learning, according to statistics of the Ministry of Education, totalled annually 7,000 during 1931-33, 9,000 during 1934-36, 5,000 during 1937-39 and 7,700 during 1940. The Ministry of Education secured employment for 2,144 graduates in 1937, 2,413

in 1938, 2,812 in 1939, 2,776 in 1940.
University graduates from 1937 to 1940

secured work in the following government
offices and other organizations:

<i>Organizations</i>	<i>No. of Graduates Employed</i>
Ministry of Military Affairs	1,178
Board of Military Training	282
Board of Military Operations	12
Ministry of Education	202
Aeronautical Affairs Commission	422
Wartime Health Personnel Recruiting Committee	1,727
Ministry of Communications	1,753
National Conservancy Commission	74
Ministry of Economic Affairs	1,196
Chekiang Provincial Government	116
Ministry of Finance	263
Anhwei Provincial Government	174
Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry	36
Ministry of Social Affairs	10
Ministry of Interior	1
Ministry of Justice	84
Board of Political Training	33
Fukien Provincial Government	252
Kiangsi Provincial Government	12
Hunan Provincial Government	102
Kwangsi Provincial Government	444
Kweichow Provincial Government	127
Yunnan Provincial Government	33
Szechwan Provincial Government	52
Kansu Provincial Government	15
Sikang Provincial Government	9
Kweichow Provincial Kuomintang Headquarters	20
<i>San Min Chu I</i> Youth Corps	520
Administrative Personnel Training Corps of the National Military Council	100
Board of Trustees for British Indemnity Funds	240
Other Organizations	656
TOTAL ...	10,145

Measures for the readaption of China's higher education to wartime needs also include emphasis on military training. This was begun in October, 1931, and supplemented in June, 1934, by holding summer camps. Military training has since been conducted in three forms, namely, ordinary training during the school year, centralized training in summer camps and training in first-aid. Summer camps for collegians were cancelled beginning in 1940 and, instead, were conducted for students of senior middle schools upon their graduation.

More than 50 subjects with a direct bearing on the war have been included in the curriculum of institutions of higher learning. Among the more important of these may be mentioned chemistry of poison gas, charcoal and oil refining, national defense chemistry, armament manufacture, studies on military weapons and fortifications, air defense, automobile-driving, road-construction, army medical service, land reclamation, colonization and food administration, wartime economy, wartime finance, wartime government organization, wartime social welfare, wartime education and military psychology.

PROMOTION OF GRADUATE STUDIES

Graduate studies have been promoted in many institutions of higher learning. According to the plan laid out by the Ministry of Education in 1929, only those institutions with an annual budget of more than \$1,000,000, with sufficient library and laboratory equipment and with members of the faculty who have made special contributions toward the advancement of certain lines of learning can offer graduate studies. A department of graduate studies must offer at least three courses of advanced training and at least two such departments can make up a school of graduate studies. In August, 1929, the first set of regulations governing the establishment of graduate departments or schools was promulgated. At that time, both the National Sun Yat-sen University in Canton and Yenching University in Peiping had made preparations for the establishment of schools of graduate studies. In 1934, more detailed regulations embodying specific stipulations on the qualifications for the deans, professors and students for graduate departments and schools were announced. These were supplemented by a law enforced in the following year governing the conferring of degrees. This provides that those who have

studied for two years in the graduate departments or schools of government or recognized private universities or independent colleges and who have passed examinations of their respective institutions can be recommended by their school authorities as candidates for the M.A. degree. After 1935, 26 departments of graduate studies with 45 courses were established by 12 institutions. Most of these, however, were suspended on account of unsettled conditions during the mass migrations to the interior after the outbreak of war. In 1938, the Ministry of Education, in order to encourage the resumption of graduate studies appropriated funds to the various national institutions. At present, there are 35 graduate departments with 62 courses in 17 public and private institutions as listed below:—

1. National Central University has seven departments of graduate studies. Its graduate department in the College of Sciences offers courses in mathematics, physics, chemistry and geography; the department in the College of Agriculture offers courses in agriculture and forestry; the department in the Normal College in educational psychology; the department in the College of Law in political science and economics; the department in the College of Engineering in electrical and mechanical engineering, construction and architecture; the department in the College of Arts in history and philosophy; and the department in the College of Medicine in physiology.

2. National Southwest Associated University has four graduate departments. The College of Arts provides graduate study in Chinese literature, history, philosophy and Western literature; the College of Sciences in mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology and geology; the College of Engineering in electrical and mechanical engineering, construction and architecture; the College of Law in political science and economics.

3. National Sun Yat-sen University has three graduate departments. The College of Arts offers courses in Chinese literature and history; the College of Agriculture in soil and agricultural botany; the Normal College in education and educational psychology.

4. National Wuhan University has two graduate departments. Under the College of Engineering is a department of architecture and electrical engineering and under the College of Law a department of economics and political science.

5. National Chekiang University has three graduate departments with courses in mathematics under the College of Sciences, in history and geology under the College of Arts, and in chemical engineering under the College of Engineering.

6. National Northwest Engineering College has a graduate department of mining.

7. National Szechwan University has a graduate department in Chinese literature under its College of Arts and another one in chemistry under its College of Sciences.

8. National Northwest Agricultural College has a graduate department in farm irrigation.

9. National Northwest Normal College has a graduate department in education.

10. Nankai University has a graduate department specializing in economics under its College of Commerce.

11. University of Nanking has three graduate departments. The College of Arts provides a department of history; the College of Sciences a department of chemistry; and the College of Agriculture and Forestry a department of agricultural economics and horticulture.

12. Yenching University has three graduate departments, namely, department of graduate study in history in the College of Arts, department of graduate study in chemistry, physics and biology in the College of Sciences, and department of graduate study in political science in the College of Law.

13. Fujen University (Catholic) provides two departments of graduate study in its Colleges of Arts and Sciences. The former specializes in history and the latter in physics.

14. Lingnan University has a graduate department with courses in biology and chemistry in its College of Sciences.

15. Soochow University has a department of graduate study in law.

16. National Northeast University is planning to have a graduate department in history and geology in its College of Arts.

17. Cheeloo University is planning to have a department of graduate study in bacteriology in its College of Medicine.

The number of graduate students totalled 20 in 1937, 13 in 1938, 144 in 1939 and 284 in 1940. Appropriation

for each graduate department has been made by the Ministry of Education since 1939. In 1941, it amounted to \$1,240,000. This has been increased to \$1,500,000, effective from the fiscal year of 1942.

ACADEMIC RESEARCH

Study and research on academic and practical subjects, especially those that have a bearing on war, have been made by members of the faculty of the various institutions of higher learning with the encouragement of the Ministry of Education. An order to this effect was circulated in October, 1938. Special subjects covered according to papers later submitted to the Ministry by faculty members of 20 institutions, numbered 210. Among these, 47 were on literature and history, 61 on agriculture, 35 on science, 20 on law, 16 on education, 14 on engineering, seven on medicine. Topics related to war and reconstruction in the Southwest and Northwest include: (1) Alcohol as synthetic for gasoline, (2) land reclamation and colonization problems in Szechwan border regions, (3) topography of West China of military significance, (4) tribespeople of Northwest China, (5) racial, cultural and religious problems in the Northwest, (6) utilization of land and distribution of population in Szechwan province, (7) problems between Han-Chinese and the Chiangs (a tribe in Szechwan border regions), (8) effect of the Sino-Japanese war on China's economy, and (9) historical background of the Sino-Japanese war. According to a survey made in 1941, 322 college professors and experts were engaged in study and research in various technical subjects.

In the spring of 1940, the Ministry of Education organized an Academic Affairs Advisory Committee. Its functions are to advise on academic research projects of the various institutions, to recommend measures for the advancement of academic research, to examine the qualifications of graduate students who have been recommended as candidates for M.A. and doctorate degrees, to examine and approve suggestions for improvements in colleges and universities, to examine the qualifications of faculty members of the various institutions of higher learning, to study and advise on problems concerning the policy of sending students abroad and to study and devise measures of international cultural cooperation.

Serving as members *ex-officio* on this committee are the Minister and Vice-Ministers of Education and director of the

Department of Higher Education. Of the 25 members of the committee, 12 were invited by the Ministry of Education while 13 were selected from among presidents and deans of institutions of higher learning.

In 1941, the Ministry of Education set aside a special fund of \$100,000 from which prizes may be awarded for works of literature, philosophy, arts, and scientific inventions. Applications for such awards are to be submitted to the Academic Affairs Advisory Committee for consideration and those found satisfactory will be given prizes ranging from \$2,000 to \$1,000. After the regulations governing these prizes were announced in May, 1941, more than 510 applications were received by the end of 1941 and 204 were considered. Of these, however, only 29 were awarded prizes.

RESTRICTIONS ON SENDING STUDENTS ABROAD

Regulations governing the sending of students abroad have been made more strict. At first any student who had graduated from senior middle school might go abroad for advanced training. The qualifications required for going abroad were raised in a set of regulations promulgated in April, 1933. According to these, those going on government support must have the following qualifications:

- (a) Having been engaged in service closely related to the subject of specialization in school for more than two years after graduation from a government or recognized private university.
- (b) Having continued research work along special lines of study and written books or produced meritorious results after graduation from a government or recognized private university.
- (c) Having graduated with scholastic distinction from a government or recognized private university.

Those going on self-support must be graduates from a government or recognized private university. Graduates from higher vocational schools, however, are required to engage in vocational or technical service for more than two years before they are permitted to go abroad.

Since the outbreak of war, efforts have been made to limit the number of students studying abroad, so as not to drain on China's foreign exchange

reserve. The Ministries of Education and Finance have jointly formulated regulations restricting the purchase of foreign exchange and issuance of passports only to those students whose courses of study directly concern the problems of national defense, such as pure science, engineering, medicine and military science. To those who were studying these subjects abroad but who experienced financial difficulties as a result of the war, the Ministry of Education managed to remit varying amounts of relief funds so that they might complete their studies. A new set of regulations governing the sending of students to study abroad was promulgated as follows:—

- (1) The sending of students abroad, both on government and self-support, is limited to those who intend to study military science, pure science, engineering, medicine and those subjects of direct use or immediate concern to the war and national defense.
- (2) Any student must possess one of the following qualifications before his application can be considered:
 - (a) Having continued research or done actual work for at least two years, with distinction, after graduation from a government or recognized private university.
 - (b) Having continued research or done actual work for at least four years, with distinction, after graduation from a government or recognized private technical college.
- (3) With the exception of those students pursuing the study of military science, pure science, engineering, medicine or those subjects of direct use or immediate bearing on the war and national defense which must of necessity be continued, and whose accomplishments are endorsed by the institutions in which they study and by the Chinese embassies concerned, to whom an extension of the period of study may be granted, the students who are at present studying abroad with study permits and having stayed for three or more years in the countries specified or chosen, should at once return to China

before September, 1939; no remittance permit will be granted them in case of further delay on their part.

- (4) Students who are studying abroad without any study permit will not be considered by the Ministry of Education in case they petition for remittance; in case they wish to return at once, they may, with an endorsement from the Chinese embassies concerned, petition the Ministry of Education for remittance permit to cover their return passages.

The number of students studying abroad during 1929-40 totalled 7,837. The number of self-support students is larger than government-support ones. The number of self-support students studying abroad was largest in 1929 and smallest in 1940. The number of government-support students in foreign countries was largest in 1934 and smallest in 1938. Students sent abroad since the outbreak of war numbered 92 in 1938, 65 in 1939 and 86 in 1940.

The Board of Trustees for the British Indemnity Funds has sent, in seven batches, a total of 200 students to England. Examination for the eighth group was scheduled for 1940 but was called off due to the European war.

National Tsinghua University has held five annual examinations for scholarship students to the United States. Among those sent, 15 still remain in the United States. A special scholarship fund was created on the occasion of the celebration of the 70th birthday anniversary of Chairman Lin Sen of the National Government. Two examinations have been held, the one who passed the first examination is now studying in the United States specializing in military chemistry, the other examination called for a student in steel refining. The successful candidate for this scholarship is also going to the United States.

In 1942 the Ministry of Education sent to England eight scholarship students for graduate work, in the following subjects: aeronautical engineering, mechanical engineering, electrical engineering, shipbuilding engineering, textile engineering, chemical engineering (particularly manufacture of gunpowder), pharmaceuticals and economics (particularly planned economy). Examinations for applicants were held in Chungking, Chengtu, Kunming and Kweilin from August 20 to 22. Applicants who participated in the examinations were all university graduates with two or more years of research work or public service or technical school graduates with four or more years of research work or public service.

LIST OF INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING

<i>National Universities</i>	<i>President</i>	<i>Location</i>
1. Central University	Chiang Kai-shek	Shapingpa, Chungking
2. Southwest Associated University	Chiang Mon-lir	Kunming, Yunnan
	Mei Yi-chi	
	Chang Po-ling	
3. Northwest University	Lai Lien	Chengku, Shensi
4. Sun Yat-sen University	King Chin-chen (Acting)	Pingshih, Kwangtung
5. Chiaotung University	Wu Pao-fung (Acting)	Chiulungpo, Chungking
6. Tungchi University	Ting Wen-yuan	Lichwang, Szechwan
7. Chinan University	Ho Ping-sung	Kienyang, Fukien
8. Wuhan University	Wang Hsing-kung	Kiating, Szechwan
9. Northeast University	Tsang Chi-fang	Santai, Szechwan
10. Chekiang University	Chu Ko-chen	Tsunyi, Kweichow
11. Szechwan University	Hwang Chi-lu	Chengtu, Szechwan
12. Hunan University	Hu Shu-hua	Chensi, Hunan
13. Amoy University	Sah Pen-tung	Changting, Fukien
14. Yunnan University	Hsiung Ching-lai	Kunming, Yunnan
15. Kwangsi University	Huang Chih-lu	Kweilin, Kwangsi
16. Chungcheng University	Li Yun-hua	Taiho, Kiangsi
17. Fuhtan University	Chang Yi	Peipei, Chungking
18. Kweichow University	Chang Ting-hsin	Kweiyang, Kweichow
19. Chungking University	Chang Hung-yuan	Shapingpa, Chungking
20. Shansi University	Yen Hsi-shan	Yichuan, Shensi
21. Yingshih University	Wu Nan-hsuan	Taiho, Kiangsi
22. Honan University	Wang Kwang-ching	Sunghsien, Honan

LIST OF INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING—*Contd.**Private Universities*

	<i>President</i>	<i>Location</i>
23. University of Nanking	Chen Yu-kwang	Chengtu, Szechwan
24. Utopia University	Tsao Hui-chun	Shanghai
25. University of Shanghai	Van Tsung-kong	Shanghai
26. Kwanghua University	Chang Shou-yung	Chengtu, Szechwan
27. Tahsia University	Wang Po-chun	Kweiyang, Kweichow
28. Yenching University	Y.P. Mei (<i>Acting</i>)	Chengtu, Szechwan
29. Fujen University	Chen Huan	Peiping
30. Soochow University	Yang Yung-ching	Shanghai
31. Chunghua University	Chen Shih	Chungking
32. Lingnan University	Li Ying-lin	Pingshih, Kwangtung
33. Kuomin University (of Kwangtung)	Wu Ting-sin	Kaiping, Kwangtung
34. Franco-China University	Li Lin-yu	Kunming, Yunnan
35. Cheeloo University	Tang Chi-ho	Chengtu, Szechwan
36. Huachung College	Wei Cho-min	Tali, Yunnan
37. University of Canton	Chen Ping-chuan	Kukong, Kwangtung
38. Aurora University	Hu Wen-yueh	Shanghai
39. West China Union University	Chang Ling-kao	Chengtu, Szechwan
40. Fukien Christian University	Lin Cheng-jen	Shaowu, Fukien
40a. Hangchow Christian College	Baen E. Lee	Shaowu, Fukien

National Independent Colleges

41. Shanghai Medical College	Chu Heng-pi	Koloshan, Chungking
42. Chungcheng Medical College	Wang Tze-kan	Yungsin, Kiangsi
43. Kweiyang Medical College	Li Tsung-en	Kweiyang, Kweichow
44. Kiangsu Medical College	Hu Ting-an	Peipei, Chungking
45. Northwest Medical College	Hsu Tso-hsia	Nanchang, Shensi
46. Hsiangya Medical College	Chang Hsiao-chien	Kweiyang, Kweichow
47. Normal College	Liao Shih-cheng	Lantienchen, Hunan
48. Northwest Normal College	Li Cheng	Chengku, Shensi
49. Northwest Engineering College	Lai Lien	Chengku
50. Northwest Agricultural College	Unknown	Wukung, Shensi
51. Women's Normal College	Hsieh Hsun-chu	Peisa, Szechwan
52. Social Education College	Chen Li-kiang	Pishan, Szechwan
53. Kweichow Agricultural and Industrial College	Li Shu-tien	Kweiyang, Kweichow
54. Kweiyang Normal College	Wang Ko-jen	Kweiyang
55. Conservatory of Music	Chen Li-fu	Chingmukwan, Chungking
56. College of Commerce	Chen Jui-lin	Kanchen, Hunan

Provincial Independent Colleges

57. Kansu College	Sung Ko	Lanchow, Kansu
58. Sinkiang College	Wang Shou-cheng	Tihua, Sinkiang
59. Hsiangching Commercial College	Lu Sze-tseng	Kukong, Kwangtung
60. Kwangtung College	Huang Lin-shu	Kukong, Kwangtung
61. Education College of Szechwan	Yen Hsin	Tzechikow, Chungking
62. Fukien Medical College	Hou Tsung-lien	Shahsien, Fukien
63. Kwangsi Medical College	Li Tsu-wei	Kweilin, Kwangsi
64. Fukien Agricultural College	Yen Chia-hsuan	Yungan, Fukien
65. Hupeh Agricultural College	Kwan Jo-liang	Enshih, Hupeh
66. Hupeh Education College	Chang Po-chin	Enshih, Hupeh

Private Independent Colleges

67. Peking Union Medical College	H. S. Houghton (<i>Acting</i>)	Peiping
68. Shanghai College of Law and Jurisprudence	Unknown	Shanghai
69. Nantung College	Cheng Yi-tung	Shanghai
70. Chungkuo College	Unknown	Peiping
71. Chaoyang College	Sun Hsiao-lou	Pahsien, Szechwan
72. Shanghai College of Law	Chu Fu-cheng	Lansi, Chekiang

LIST OF INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING—Contd.

Private Independent Colleges—Contd.

	<i>President</i>	<i>Location</i>
73. Ginling College for Women	Wu Yi-fang	Chengtu, Szechwan
74. Fukien Christian College	Lin Ching-yi	Shaowu, Fukien
75. Hangchow Christian College	R. J. McMullen	Shanghai
76. Chengming College of Arts	Chiang Wei-chiao	Shanghai
77. Minkuo College	Lu Tang-ping	Ningsiang, Hunan
78. Hwanan College for Women	Wang Shih-ching	Nanping, Fukien
79. Engineering and Commercial College	Liu Pin	Tientsin
80. Women's Medical College (of Shanghai)	Unknown	Shanghai
81. Tungteh College of Medicine	Ku Yu-chi	Shanghai
82. Tungnan College of Medicine	Kuo Chi-yuan	Shanghai
83. Kwanghua College of Medicine	Chen Yen-fen	Hongkong
84. Nanhua College	Chung Lu-chai	Meih sien, Kwangtung
85. Szechwan-Sikang Agricultural and Industrial College	Wei Sze-lwan	Chengtu, Szechwan
86. Rural Reconstruction College	James Y. C. Yen	Chungking

National Technical Colleges

87. School of Fine Arts	Chen Tsu-fu	Pishan, Szechwan
88. Central Industrial Technical College	Wei Yuan-kwang	Chungking
89. School of Pharmacy	Chen Sze-yi	Koloshan, Chungking
90. Technical School of Dentistry	Unknown	Chengtu, Szechwan
91. Normal School of Physical Education	Chang Chih-kiang	Peipei, Chungking
92. Central Technology College	Chow Hou-shu	Kiating, Szechwan
93. Northwest Technology College	Tseng Chi-kwan	Kaolan, Kansu
94. Sikang College of Technology	Chow Tsung-lien	Sichang, Sikang
95. Marine College	Sung Chien-hsun	South Bank, Chungking
96. College of Commerce	Cheng Jui-lin	Kancheng, Hunan
97. Academy of Dramatic Arts	Yu Shang-yuan	Kiangnan, Szechwan
98. College of Oriental Languages	Wang Wen-hsuan	Chenkong, Yunnan
99. Border College	Wang Yen-kang	Pahsien, Szechwan
100. Technical College of Physical Education	Fang Wan-pang	Kiangtsin, Szechwan
101. Northwest Medical Technical College	Chi Chin-hsin	Lanchow, Kansu
102. Fukien School of Music	Lu Chien	Yungan, Fukien
103. School of Hydraulic Engineering of Honan	Liu Te-jen	Chenping, Honan

Provincial Technical Colleges

104. Chekiang School of Medicine and Pharmacy	Wang Chi	Tientai, Chekiang
105. Kiangsi Industrial Technical College	Li Yu-hsiang	Yuntu, Kiangsi
106. Kiangsi School of Medicine	Hsiung Tsun	Kanhsien, Kiangsi
107. Kiangsi School of Animal Husbandry and Veterinary Science	Hsiao Chun-chin	Taiho, Kiangsi
108. Shantung School of Medicine	Yin Hsin-nung	Wanhsien, Szechwan
109. Shensi School of Medicine	Li Fu-ching	Siañ, Shensi
110. Kiangsu School of Sericulture	Cheng Pi-chiang	Kiating, Szechwan
111. Anhwei Normal College	Liu Lai-chien	Lihuang, Anhwei
112. Fukien Normal College	Tang Yung-chin	Yungan, Fukien
113. Hunan School of Agriculture	Yang Pang-chieh	Nanyueh, Hunan
114. Hunan Industrial Technical College	Chung Po-chin	Nanyueh, Hunan
115. Hunan Commercial Technical College	Yu Nan-chiu	Nanyueh, Hunan

LIST OF INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING—*Concl'd.*

<i>Provincial Technical Colleges—Contd.</i>	<i>President</i>	<i>Location</i>
116. Szechwan College of Technology	Li Yu-hsing	Chengt'u, Szechwan
117. Kiangsu-Anhwei Joint, College of Technology	Hung Fan-wu	Sanyuan, Fukien
118. Shensi Commercial College	Lu Hsiang-chen	Sian, Shensi
119. Suiyuan Suiyuan-Mongol Law College	Unreported	Unreported
<i>Private Technical Colleges</i>		
120. Wusih School of Chinese Classics	Tang Wen-chih	Kweilin, Kwangsi
121. Boone Library School	Shen Tsu-jung	Kiangpei, Chungking
122. Wuchang School of Fine Arts	Tang Yi-ching	Kiangtsin, Szechwan
123. Far East School of Physical Education	Chen Meng-yu	Shanghai
124. Shanghai School of Fine Arts	Liu Hai-su	Shanghai
125. Sinhwa School of Fine Arts	Hsu Lang-si	Shanghai
126. Lisin Accounting School	Pan Hsu-lun	Peipei, Chungking
127. Soochow School of Fine Arts	Yen Wen-liang	Shanghai
128. Minghsien Agricultural and Industrial College	Chia Lin-ping	Chintang, Szechwan
129. Chungking Methodist Commercial College	Yang Chung-hsi	Chungking
130. Northwest School of Pharmacy	Hsueh Tao-wu	Sian, Shensi
131. English Language School of Shanghai	Chin Wei-cheng	Shanghai
132. West China Industrial and Commercial Technical College	Hu Chung-shih	Chungking

NOTE:—The above list does not include the Central Political Institute, South Hot Springs near Chungking, of which Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek is president.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

Progress has also been made in secondary education. The number of secondary educational institutions was given at 2,819 by the Ministry of Education for 1941-42. This shows a considerable increase over the previous years: 1,896 schools from August, 1937 to July, 1938; 1,814 schools from August, 1938 to July, 1939; 2,288 schools from August, 1939 to July, 1940; and 2,483 schools from August, 1940 to July, 1941.

The term "secondary education" includes three kinds of schools—ordinary middle schools, normal schools and vocational schools. The term "middle school" includes both junior and senior grades. According to their nature and sources of income, middle and vocational schools are of two kinds: public and private. The public schools may be national, provincial, municipal or county (*hsien*). Normal schools are all public.

Of the 2,819 secondary educational institutions, 56 are national. They include the First to the Eighteenth

National Middle Schools, the National Northeast Middle School, National Suiyuan Middle School, two middle schools in the border regions, three middle schools for overseas Chinese students; two normal schools in the interior, 11 in the border regions and another two for overseas Chinese students; 10 vocational schools in the interior and six for the border regions together with a special training class for technicians. In addition to these, the Ministry of Education has instructed the provincial education commissions to establish provisional middle schools for the accommodation of middle school students and teachers from war zones. Then there are middle schools attached to national institutions of higher learning. All counted, national secondary educational institutions and those under the direct control of the Ministry number well over 70. All other institutions are provincial, municipal, county and private. In the list of private institutions are 250 Christian middle schools. Of the total, 2,158 are middle schools, 374 normal schools and 287 vocational schools.

HISTORY OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

In olden days, education in China consisted of two grades, higher and lower. It was not until the 23rd year of Emperor Kwang Hsu (1897) of the Manchu Dynasty that the intermediate gap was filled. This was effected by the establishment of the *Nan Yang* (South Seas) *Kung Hsueh* which consisted of the higher, middle and lower departments. In the following year, the term "middle school" was included in a set of regulations governing the establishment of educational institutions. These were revised and amended four years later when a four-year term for middle schools was stipulated. Courses on industries were added to the curriculum during the third and fourth years. Normal schools were attached to middle schools. In the following year, the term of study in middle schools was prolonged to five years. Elementary normal schools, agricultural, industrial and commercial vocational schools of the secondary grade which likewise gave five-year courses, were established.

According to the regulations governing the conduct of normal schools, girls were not admitted. This exclusion clause, however, was abolished with the establishment of the Peiyang Women's Normal School in the 31st year of Emperor Kwang Hsu (1905). This was followed by the promulgation in 1907 of a set of regulations on normal education for women.

The first year of the Chinese Republic, 1912, saw the reform and revision of the secondary education system whereby the school-term for middle schools was changed back to four years while all normal schools with a five-year course were put under the control of provincial governments. Regulations concerning the establishment of middle and normal schools for girls were promulgated. Normal schools for men provided special training classes for primary school teachers while those for women included in their curriculum courses on nursing. A four-year course of study was instituted in vocational schools.

Secondary education was again revised in 1922. The revised regulations stipulated a six-year course for middle schools and normal schools. The middle schools were divided into junior and senior grades, each of three years. Junior middle schools could be established independently, but combined junior-senior middle schools were declared

preferable. Senior schools could offer courses in agriculture, industries and commerce.

After the founding of the National Government in Nanking in 1928, the system of secondary education underwent another modification whereby equal emphasis was laid on arts and sciences. Every encouragement was given to the establishment of lower and higher agricultural, industrial vocational schools by provincial governments. Effective from 1931, all ordinary middle schools had to include courses on vocational education while many *hsien* middle schools were changed into vocational or rural normal schools.

By July 7, 1937, China had 3,264 secondary educational institutions of which 1,296 were in areas now occupied by the enemy. The pre-war institutions of secondary education included 1,958 middle schools, 814 normal schools and 494 vocational schools.

IMPROVEMENTS IN MIDDLE SCHOOLS

To overcome the loss in number and to meet wartime needs, the Ministry of Education has endeavored to improve the system of secondary education in Free China. In the past, there was no comprehensive plan for the regional distribution of institutions of secondary education. As a result, some provinces, especially those along the coast, were crowded with schools while interior provinces were badly in need of them. To remedy the situation, the Ministry promulgated regulations in 1938 for the distribution of institutions. According to these, each province was divided into middle, normal and vocational school districts.

The middle school districts were created in accordance with population, financial condition, cultural level and communication facilities. The schools in each district were ordered to organize secondary education research committees to study educational problems. So far, such school districts have been organized in the provinces of Szechwan, Kwangsi, Kweichow, Chinghai, and Ningsia.

Improvements were made in administration of the middle schools and in their curriculum with respect to wartime needs. The contents of the textbooks or the courses in citizenship, Chinese language, history and geography were considerably modified to fit actual conditions, and instructive passages were selected from the teachings of Dr. Sun Yat-sen and other great leaders.

It was resolved at the Third Educational Conference in 1938 that the four categorical virtues of propriety, righteousness, integrity and self-respect, should be made in all schools the four commandments for character cultivation. At the beginning of the school year of 1938 the Ministry of Education promulgated an *Outline on Character Education*. The tutorial system was introduced in the same year to promote character cultivation in all secondary educational institutions.

Teachers' summer research sessions, started in 1934, have continued to help improve the teaching staff of secondary schools. Various aspects of secondary education are discussed and research conducted with the heads of provincial education commissions acting as chairmen. Examinations for teachers are also held during these sessions.

All students are required to take military training and to attend training camps for three months every summer.

NORMAL SCHOOLS

The 374 normal schools in Free China may be classified into normal schools, simplified normal schools, normal schools for kindergarten teachers, village normal schools, and simplified village normal schools, besides short-term teachers' classes. All schools give a three-year course except those for kindergarten teachers which operate on a two-or-three-year term while short-term teachers' classes require only one year. For ordinary normal schools, only graduates from junior middle schools are eligible, while graduates from higher primary schools may be admitted to simplified normal schools. Aside from the 15 national normal schools, they are all financed by provincial, municipal or *hsien* governments.

Normal school districts were marked out in the provinces, with one normal school for men and one for women in each. The creation of normal school districts was set forth in the program of normal education adopted by the National Government after the outbreak of war as follows:

- (1) The normal school districts should be demarcated in 1938. Each district should establish at least one normal school or one village normal school. In case the district is unable to establish a girls' normal school, a girls' department should be

opened in its normal school for men. Simplified normal schools and simplified village normal schools should be established jointly by the *hsien* governments of the district. The number of schools, classes, teachers and students as well as their registration should be calculated by the various provincial education commissions concerned.

- (2) Normal schools should be institutions providing guidance and assistance to the primary school teachers within the normal school districts.
- (3) Primary school teachers should be given periodical guidance, correspondence and research opportunities by their controlling educational authorities in order that they may find chances for improvement, and summer sessions for research and conference should be conducted by the normal schools in each normal school district.
- (4) Normal school students should be given concentrated training, the expenses for which should be borne by the Government. After graduation they should be required to serve in the schools for a period of three years at designated localities.

VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS

The number of vocational schools estimated at 494 in 1936-37 registered an abrupt drop to 292 in 1937-38 and to 256 in 1938-39. The efforts of the Ministry of Education for the promotion of vocational education bore fruit in the academic year of 1940-41 when the number of 332 was reached.

A special plan was mapped out by the Ministry in November, 1938, whereby Free China was divided into three vocational school districts, namely, Szechwan-Sikang, Northwest and Southwest. One or more national technical colleges have been established in each of these districts as nuclei of technical and vocational education. In the provinces, vocational schools are being established in places where they can cooperate with local factories, experimental farms or agricultural stations and other plants.

Emphasis has also been laid on the establishment of junior vocational schools in interior cities. A number of such institutions were first established by the

Ministry in Kweichow, Kwangsi, Kansu, Chinghai and Ningsia and then turned over to local educational authorities. Each province emphasizes certain branches of training, namely, brewery, pottery, leather-tanning and sericulture in Szechwan; sugar-manufacturing, tea processing, papermaking and weaving in Kiangsi; pottery and woollen weaving in Kansu; cotton spinning and weaving in Shensi; agriculture in Kweichow; paper and lacquer manufacturing in Fukien and small industries in Shansi and Kwangsi. The Ministry also ordered that *hsien* graduating more than 200 primary school students each year should establish a junior vocational school independently or in cooperation with neighboring counties.

Special short courses are also conducted to meet urgent demands for skilled tradesmen. The first wartime short-term vocational class was the tele-communications and automobile mechanics' training class maintained by the Ministry of Communications in 1938. In 1939-40, 36 classes were conducted for 1,300 students in land survey, civil engineering, dyeing and weaving, leather-tanning, printing, and processing of agricultural products. Twenty-three classes with an enlarged curriculum embracing pottery, industrial and business management were conducted for 800 students in 1940-41.

Productive education courses are also included in middle schools. In junior middle schools courses are given on wood-working, gardening and elementary

agriculture. In senior middle schools, students are taught foundry, black-smithery, hydraulics and related subjects.

As supplementary training for factory workers, the Ministry of Education, in cooperation with the Ministry of Economic Affairs, ordered that supplementary training classes be maintained by factories or mining concerns employing more than 300 or 500 workers. Most of the government factories and larger private concerns have complied with this order. Besides giving training to their own off-shift laborers, they have also enrolled primary school graduates who, with one to three years of training, may become foremen and skilled workers.

SECONDARY EDUCATION FINANCES

The annual expenditures of secondary educational institutions, national, provincial, municipal and district, show a steady increase during the war years. The amount reported for 1936 was \$46,561,868. This was decreased to \$30,396,758 in 1937 since when the figures have gone upward to \$34,647,885 in 1938, \$44,889,288 in 1939 and \$64,356,462 in 1940. This increase can be attributed to the ever-rising cost of living and the increase in the number of national secondary educational institutions whereas before the war no national middle schools were in existence. The annual expenditures of secondary educational institutions during the period 1936 to 1940 are shown in the following table:

<i>Year</i>	<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Annual Expenditure</i>	<i>Total</i>
1936	Middle Schools	\$29,935,112	\$46,561,868
	Normal Schools	8,897,029	
	Vocational Schools	7,729,727	
1937	Middle Schools	20,866,634	30,396,758
	Normal Schools	5,313,267	
	Vocational Schools	4,217,857	
1938	Middle Schools	24,615,400	34,647,885
	Normal Schools	5,691,929	
	Vocational Schools	4,340,556	
1939	Middle Schools	32,027,520	44,889,288
	Normal Schools	7,397,214	
	Vocational Schools	5,464,554	
1940	Middle Schools	43,984,272	64,356,462
	Normal Schools	11,101,958	
	Vocational Schools	9,270,232	
TOTAL			\$220,852,261

Appropriations from the National Treasury in 1936 were limited to subsidies for vocational schools with good records to cover their expenses for increasing equipment and technical teaching staff. With the founding of national secondary educational institutions, funds appropriated from the National Treasury have been increasing each year. The funds consist of the total amount of current expenses of national institutions (part as living allowances for the students) grants and special scholarships for normal and vocational schools and scholarship loans for students from war zones. In 1940, a total of \$8,736,539 was appropriated.

Appropriations in the form of grants and scholarships to normal and vocational schools in 1941 totalled \$4,200,000. Of this, \$3,000,000 went to normal schools and the remaining \$1,200,000 to vocational schools. The sum for normal schools is used for the following purposes :

<i>Purpose</i>	<i>Amount</i>
Equipment	\$ 500,000
Scholarships	300,000
Food Allowances	2,000,000
Teachers' Allowances	100,000
Normal Education Movement	100,000
TOTAL	\$3,000,000

The amount appropriated to vocational schools is used for the following purposes :

<i>Purpose</i>	<i>Amount</i>
Equipment	\$ 580,000
Production...	180,000
Teachers' Allowances	180,000
Field Practice	100,000
Textbooks	70,000
Scholarships	30,000
Research	60,000
TOTAL	\$1,200,000

NUMBER OF STUDENTS

The number of students of secondary educational institutions of all descriptions has also shown some increase over pre-war years. The figure for 1936 was given at 583,363, including 454,380 middle school students, 76,879 normal school students and 52,104 vocational school students. This was increased to 622,803 in the academic year of 1939-40 which was distributed in the various kinds of secondary educational institutions as follows :—

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>No. of Students</i>	<i>Total</i>
MIDDLE SCHOOLS		
Senior Middle Schools	96,214	
Junior Middle Schools	428,181	524,395
NORMAL SCHOOLS—		
Normal Schools	17,597	
Village Normal Schools	2,163	
Simplified Normal Schools	23,900	
Simplified Village Normal Schools	15,771	59,431
VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS—		
Higher Vocational Schools		
Agriculture	2,917	
Industries	7,883	
Commerce	3,393	
Home Industries	2,754	
Others	340	17,287
LOWER VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS		
Agriculture	8,495	
Industries	5,521	
Commerce	4,449	
Home Industries	3,111	
Others	111	21,687
GRAND TOTAL		622,800

NUMBER OF GRADUATES

The number of graduates from secondary educational institutions for

the academic year of 1939-40 is given by the Ministry of Education at 82,407 as shown in the following table:

<i>Institutions</i>	<i>No. of Graduates</i>	<i>Total</i>
MIDDLE SCHOOLS—		
Senior Middle Schools	11,763	
Junior Middle Schools	52,522	64,285
NORMAL SCHOOLS—		
Normal Schools	4,876	
Village Normal Schools	635	
Simplified Normal Schools	5,368	
Simplified Village Normal Schools	1,599	12,478
VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS—		
Higher Vocational Schools	2,411	
Lower Vocational Schools	3,233	5,644
GRAND TOTAL		82,407

PRIMARY EDUCATION

In primary education, emphasis has been laid on anti-illiteracy work. This was seriously begun in the summer of 1935 when a five-year plan for compulsory education was adopted by the National Government, effective from 1935 to 1939, inclusive. At the end of the five-year period, it was expected that more than 40 per cent of the entire number of illiterate children would have received compulsory education for one year. Following this, it was planned that a four-year program, 1940 to 1943, inclusive, would be enforced during which 80 per cent of the children of the entire country would receive two years of compulsory education. Beginning from 1944, another four-year program was to be launched and it was expected that illiteracy would be wiped out by the end of 1949.

According to this plan, the Central Government, provincial, municipal and *hsien* governments were to cooperate in making appropriations for the rising expenditures of the primary schools. In 1935, 25,901 part-time schools and 35,175 ordinary six-year primary schools

were established with 11,974 supplementary classes attached to the former. To the existing schools, 211 grades were added with 775 two-division elementary classes attached. In addition, there were 129 simplified primary schools, 11 groups of visiting teachers and students and more than 3,481,930 pupils.

In 1936, 38,117 part-time schools and 13,267 ordinary primary schools were established with 21,444 part-time supplementary classes and 1,916 two-division classes attached. In addition, 161 simplified primary schools were founded; 736 groups of visiting teachers and 4,405,291 pupils were added. The sum total of primary school attendance in 1936 was 21,433,334.

The outbreak of the war in July, 1937, made it impossible to carry out the five-year program of compulsory education as originally planned. This accounted for the drop in primary school attendance to 12,847,924 in the academic year of 1937-38. The numbers of primary schools, teachers and staff, pupils, graduates and annual appropriations during 1937-38, 1938-39 and 1939-40 are shown in the following table:

PRIMARY EDUCATION STATISTICS

Year	No. of Schools	No. of Teachers and Staff	No. of Pupils	No. of Graduates	Annual Appropriations
1937-38	229,911	482,160	12,847,924	2,497,378	73,444,593
1938-39	217,394	432,630	12,281,837	2,733,846	64,932,910
1939-40	218,758	427,454	12,669,976	3,027,885	65,870,491

Source:—Reported by the Statistical Office of the Ministry of Education.

By July, 1941, there were 232,145 primary schools with an enrolment of 22,424,884 pupils. The increase was due to the promotion of the people's education program adopted by the Ministry of Education in 1940 which is described in the next section. This program called for the establishment of *hsiang* or *chen* (nucleus) schools and *pao* people's schools. Of the total of 232,145 schools in 1941, *hsiang* or *chen* schools numbered 18,510 and *pao* schools numbered 138,073.

PEOPLE'S EDUCATION

The five-year plan for people's education was promulgated at the National Conference on People's Education held under the auspices of the Ministry of Education in March, 1940. According to the plan, the program was to begin in August, 1940 and end in July, 1945. The program calls for the establishment during the first year of one nucleus school for each *hsiang* or *chen* and one people's school for every three *pao*. [Each *pao* consists of six to 15 *chia* and each *chia* consists of six to 15 families. That means a *pao* consists of 100 to 150 families. Six to 15 *pao* make a *hsiang* (town) or a (village)] *chen* so that by the end of one year (July, 1941), 65 per cent of the children of school age (between 6 and 15) and more than 30 per cent of the illiterate adults, ranging in age from 15 to 45, should be in school. Each year, the number of schools and and their enrolment are to be gradually increased so that after the program enters into its fifth and last year in August, 1944, there will be one people's school for each *pao* and the entire remaining illiterate population, children and adults, should be in school.

Statistics of the Ministry of Education show that in 1938 China's illiterate population totalled 360,000,000. Of this number, 40,050,000, were children below six years, 74,250,000 children of school age (6 to 15), 79,430,000 people above 45 and 1,570,000 dumb, deaf, crippled or insane persons. The number of illiterate people within the age bracket of 15 and 45 is thus reduced to 165,000,000. Since 1938, however, 46,348,469 illiterates have been educated. Of this number, 44 per cent were children and 56 per cent were adults between 15 and 45. By August, 1940, when the five-year program was launched, the number of illiterate adults between 15 and 45 to receive schooling was

approximately 140,000,000 and that of children between 6 and 15, 53,101,531.

Regarding finances, Central Government subsidies for the people's education program, according to the plan adopted at the conference, total \$32,000,000 for the first year (August, 1940 to July, 1941), \$56,000,000 for the second, \$64,000,000 for the third, \$80,000,000 for the fourth and \$70,000,000 for the fifth and last year.

Detailed measures for executing the people's education program were further devised at a meeting of the People's Education Promotion Committee held under the auspices of the Ministry of Education on April 13, 1941. The committee was organized by the Ministry of Education. It consists of two members each of the People's Political Council, the Legislative Yuan and the Finance Committee of the Supreme National Defense Council.

Problems discussed at the meeting concerned finances, personnel, treatment of teachers and effective management of the *hsiang* or *chen* and *pao* schools. Concerning finances, it was decided to adhere to the original plan and ask the Central Government to make appropriations accordingly. The meeting also agreed that the principals of the *hsiang* or *chen* and *pao* schools should concurrently serve as *hsiang chang* or *chen chang* and *pao chang*, respectively, instead of vice-versa. Wherever finances permit, the posts of *hsiang chang* or *chen chang* and *pao chang* and principals of the schools should be held by different persons. To assure effective administration of the schools, it was decided to hold periodical examinations of the school personnel so that rewards and punishment may be given.

To improve the treatment of teachers, it was urged that due consideration be given to the cost of living in different localities. Besides the regular salary, it was suggested that the teachers should be given an allowance for rice or lodging or both, according to local conditions.

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS

At present, there are a total of 27,655 *hsiang* or *chen* nucleus schools and 194,646 *pao* people's schools. Of these, 7,887 *hsiang* or *chen* nucleus schools and 52,642 *pao* people's schools were established in 1942 which marked the extension of the people's education movement to the provinces of Chinghai, Sinkiang and Sikang. The 19,768 *hsiang* or *chen* nucleus schools and 142,004 *pao* people's

schools reported at the end of 1941 (Chungking) and 15 Free China provinces were distributed in one municipality as follows:—

<i>Provinces & Municipality</i>	<i>No. of Nucleus Schools</i>	<i>No. of People's Schools</i>
Szechwan	3,709	27,828
Kweichow	609	803
Yunnan	1,011	8,328
Kwangsi	2,163	18,534
Kwangtung	1,664	13,689
Fukien	2,318	8,599
Chekiang	1,291	7,031
Kiangsi	900	3,035
Hunan	1,603	18,819
Hupei	466	8,467
Honan	1,589	14,851
Shensi	502	4,000
Kansu	532	2,492
Chungking	26	35
Anhui	1,336	5,106
Ningsia	49	387
TOTAL	19,768	142,004

SOCIAL EDUCATION

The work of social education overlaps with that of people's education in that it also aims at wiping out illiteracy. It must enable the people to read and write, to have a general knowledge of rural and city life; and it must teach them to control themselves, how to promote public life, and how to be informed on national and international affairs. Adult schools, folk reading centers, public playgrounds and other physical education facilities, phonetic classes, general, commercial and industrial continuation schools, schools for the blind and the deaf, reformatory schools, asylums for orphans and destitute children, museums, art galleries, schools of music and dramatic arts, theaters, cinemas, music clubs, educational films, broadcasts, circuit carts and troupes, libraries and "people's readers," are all means to realize this end.

The number of groups, organizations and institutions engaged in the dissemination of social education, according to the Ministry of Education, totalled 153,767 in 1941. No up-to-date figures are available as to the number of students or persons benefited. Statistics released for the academic year of 1939-40 gave the number of students at 5,690,591. This was an underestimation including only

those who attended schools, classes or other social education institutions. Social education seeks to enlighten through its varied vehicles the entire population except those who are already in regular institutions of higher, secondary and primary education. The task of social education, therefore, is at once a tremendous and expensive one.

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATIONS

Directing the work of social education in China is the Department of Social Education of the Ministry of Education which has under its supervision five committees on physical education, musical education, visual education, promotion of the phonetic system, and fine arts.

For the promotion of social education in the provinces, the Ministry has ordered that a special section to deal with the matter be attached to every provincial education commission. Up to 1941, the provinces of Hupei, Shensi, Kweichow, Kiangsi, Chekiang, Kwangtung, Shansi, Kansu, Yunnan, Kwangsi, Fukien and Szechwan had complied with this order. In the provinces of Chinghai, Sikang, Shantung, Honan, Anhwei, Chahar, Hunan, Ningsia, Hopei and Suiyuan and the municipality of Chungking, social education has been

included as an important aspect of work though no special section has been created.

VEHICLES OF SOCIAL EDUCATION

Among the 153,667 social education organizations and institutions, those under the direct control and supervision of the Ministry of Education include the National Peiping Library, National Central Library, National Peiping Palace Museum, National Central Museum, Museums of Historical Relics, National Conservatory of Music, two Social Education Service Corps, five Circuit Dramatic Troupes, a Circuit Singing Corps, a Mass Education Circuit Cart and the Experi-

mental Mass Education Institute at Chingmukwan.

In the provinces, there are provincial mass education institutes, libraries and public playgrounds or gymnasiums. Many of them also have museums, art galleries and science institutes. Under provincial education commissions are visual education departments, motion picture studios and circuit corps as well as circuit singing and dramatic troupes. Each *hsien* also has one or more mass education institutes and, wherever finances permit, a library, a public playground and a museum. The various vehicles for the dissemination of social education are described in the following table:

<i>Organizations</i>	<i>Total</i>
Mass Education Institutes	959
Newspaper Reading Rooms	36,503
Organizations with Radio Receiving Sets	868
Folk Lecture Halls	6,574
Libraries	894
Science Institutes	35
Art Galleries	39
Museums	35
Museums of Historical Relics	46
Public Playgrounds	1,658
Music Clubs	397
Folk Reading Centers	7,966
Institutes for Orphans and Poor Children	126
Institutes for the Blind and Deaf—Mutes	14
Reformatory Schools	6
Social Education Personnel Training Centers	94
Theaters, Cinemas and other Amusement Centers	358
People's Tea Houses	2,392
Public Parks	587
Mass Education Experiment Districts	123
Circuit Education Film Districts	50
Radio Education Advisory Districts	45
Social Education Service Corps	86
Circuit Dramatic Troupes	49
Mass Education Circuit Carts	8
Experimental Circuit Singing Corps	1
Mass Education Schools	77,652
All Kinds of Supplementary Schools	428
Schools of Dramatic Arts	5
Phonetics Training Schools and Classes	123
Physical Training Centers and Classes	48
Theatrical and Big-Drum Entertainers Training Centers and Classes	7
Others	15,496
GRAND TOTAL	153,667

The Experimental Mass Education Institute at Chingmukwan of the Ministry of Education serves as the model and demonstration center for all the 959 institutes throughout the country. These are distributed in one municipality (Chungking) and 18 provinces as follows.

<i>Provinces and Municipality</i>	<i>No. of Institutes</i>
Chungking	1
Szechwan	138
Sikang	30
Yunnan	60
Kweichow	85
Shansi	5
Chinghai	11
Kansu	59
Shensi	51
Sinkiang	1
Honan	65
Hunan	80
Hupei	86
Kwangtung	75
Kiangsi	49
Anhwei	41
Chekiang	93
Ningsia	5
Shantung	4
TOTAL	959

Before the war, there was only one national library, namely, the National Peiping Library while the National Central Library was being planned in Nanking. Provincial, municipal and *hsien* libraries totalled 1,836. Now, part of the National Peiping Library remains in Peiping while the other part has been removed to Kunming where it cooperates with the library of the Southwest Associated University. The preparatory office for the National Central Library was transferred to Peisa, Szechwan, where the library is now open to the public. A branch library was opened in Chungking in February, 1941. The National Central Library has a staff of 61 persons. Annual expenses amount to \$165,200. The library has 43,947 volumes of books. The National Peiping Library has a staff of 92 persons, spends \$232,000 annually and has more than 500,000 volumes of books.

The 892 other libraries are distributed in 19 provinces and one municipality (Chungking) as follows:—

<i>Provinces and Municipality</i>	<i>No. of Libraries</i>
Chekiang	82
Anhwei	1
Kiangsi	51
Hupei	16
Hunan	64
Szechwan	109
Sikang	4
Kansu	3
Chinghai	12
Fukien	45
Kwangtung	85
Kwangsi	69
Yunnan	178
Kweichow	28
Ningsia	1
Shansi	44
Honan	57
Shensi	37
Sinkiang	4
Chungking	2
TOTAL	892

Preparations for the establishment of the National Central Museum were started in April, 1933 and were nearing completion in 1937. The museum was to be built at the site of the Ming Mausoleum in Nanking. After the war began the museum's treasures, archives and documents were safely removed to Nansi, Szechwan. Its budget for 1941 was estimated at \$33,600.

In the provinces, municipalities and *hsien*, prior to the war, there were more than 80 museums. Many of these have been destroyed, looted or occupied by the enemy so that only 35 are left in Free China. Of these, 18 are attached to government or public organizations.

Thirty-five science institutes were established in the provinces of Kwangtung, Hupei, Yunnan, Hopei, Sikang, Ningsia, Suiyuan, Shansi, Kansu, Fukien, Anhwei, Chekiang, Shensi, Kwangsi, Hunan, Szechwan and Kiangsi and the municipality of Chungking following the promulgation of organic regulations by the Ministry of Education

in February, 1941. Later the Ministry circulated orders urging that by the end of 1942 at least one science institute must have been established in each province or municipality. The functions of the institutes, as set forth in regulations adopted by the Ministry, are fourfold: (1) to popularize scientific knowledge among the people, (2) to supplement scientific education in schools, (3) to provide answers and solutions for scientific problems and difficulties, (4) to study and conduct research in natural sciences.

DRAMA AS MEDIUM

Considerable emphasis has been paid by the Ministry of Education on drama as an effective vehicle of social education. In 1938 and 1939, the Ministry organized four circuit dramatic troupes which have since performed in the provinces of Honan, Hupeh, Hunan, Kwangsi, Chekiang, Fukien, Kwangtung, Kiangsi, Szechwan, Kweichow, Yunnan, Sikang, Shensi, Kansu, Ningsia and Chinghai. Besides dramatic performances, these troupes spread enlightenment among the masses through singing, drawing and other arts. They also give lectures and conduct training classes in modern drama. An experimental dramatic troupe was organized in May, 1941, which has as its working sphere the neighborhood of Chungking.

Two of the drama schools are national, the National Academy of Dramatic Arts in Kiangnan, Szechwan, and the National School of Musical Drama in Chungking. The former, which was first established in Nanking in 1936, was promoted to the status of a technical college in July, 1940, by order of the Ministry of Education. The National School of Musical Drama was formerly located in Tsinan, being a provincial institution of Shantung. Since its removal to Szechwan, it has received a monthly grant of \$2,000 from the Ministry. This was increased to \$5,000, with the change of its status from a provincial to a national institution, effective from January, 1941.

On December 20, 1940, the Ministry circulated orders urging all grades of national educational institutions to organize singing and dramatic troupes through which the students might use their spare time to spread social education. More than 22 schools have complied with this order.

For the extension of the social-education-through-drama movement to the provinces and municipalities, the

Ministry in April, 1939, promulgated organic regulations of circuit dramatic and singing troupes for all provincial and municipal governments. In June, 1940 the Ministry outlined the work for the promotion of dramatic and musical education for the provincial education commissions and municipal education bureaus as follows: (1) a special staff member should be assigned to look after affairs concerning the promotion of drama as a medium of social education, (2) drama personnel should be trained, (3) each commission or bureau should organize at least one circuit dramatic and singing troupe, (4) mass education institutes should cooperate with local schools or public bodies in the drama movement, (5) schools of or above the secondary grades should organize dramatic and singing troupes, (6) plays and books on drama should be written and (7) inspectors should take note of the achievements made in dramatic education in schools. To date, 18 Free China provinces and the municipality of Chungking have adopted this program.

MUSIC AND FINE ARTS

The Committee on Musical Education of the Ministry of Education at a meeting in April, 1941, resolved that there should be a special department of music in all national normal colleges and designated April, 5, legendary birthday of Huang Ti, the first emperor of prehistoric China, as Music Day.

For the training of musical personnel, the Ministry established the National Conservatory of Music in the autumn of 1940. A special training class was conducted by the conservatory during the summer of 1941 at which 44 persons chosen from among teachers of music in provincial and municipal normal middle and primary schools and mass education institutes by the various provincial education commissions and municipal education bureaus concerned, took a five-week course.

The Ministry of Education in January, 1941, organized a Committee on Education in Fine Arts. Its activities during the past two years are summarized as follows:—

1. The sponsorship of art exhibitions: The committee sponsored and supervised five art exhibitions in 1941. The first was held by the China National Art Society on January 1, 1941, at which, more than 1,000 paintings and other

fine arts productions were exhibited. The second was held on International Women's Day, March 18, also by the China National Art Society. Fifty per cent of the proceeds of the exhibition were contributed to the comforting of troops. A children's art exhibition was held on April 4 to 6, 1941, to mark the celebration of Children's Day in Chungking at which 1,700 pieces done by school children below 15 were on display. Nutrition was the theme of an exhibition held by the National Health Administration on May 5, 1941. From November 12 to 18 an exhibition was held in the Chungking Branch of the National Central Library as a part of a publicity week for the promotion of social education.

In addition, the Ministry of Education also sponsored the Third National Art Exhibition held from December 25, 1942 to January 10, 1943 at the Chungking branch of the National Central Library.

2. The supervision of the work of art galleries: Before the war, China had 58 art galleries. Since then, many of them in enemy-occupied territory have been destroyed, looted or occupied by the invaders. The work of the remaining 39 art galleries in Free China is under the close supervision of the committee.

3. The production of works of fine arts: Productions completed by the committee include portraits of Dr. Sun Yat-sen, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek and Chairman Lin Sen, a painting on orphan relief, a painting of refugees, a painting on the Changsha Victory, a painting on the martyrdom of General Chang Tze-chung, a kneeling image of Wang Ching-wei, the traitor.

RADIO AND MOTION PICTURES

Realizing the importance of radio broadcasting and motion pictures as means of social education, the Ministry of Education started its efforts in 1936 to popularize these two mediums. In May of that year, arrangements were completed with the Central Broadcasting Administration to insert in its schedule a program on education. The following month, an order was circulated to provincial education commissions and municipal education bureaus to instal radio receiving sets in all secondary educational institutions and mass education institutes. In July, a radio personnel training class was conducted to which all municipalities and provinces sent students.

The Ministry's Committee on Visual Education was organized in July, 1936. The committee has worked in close cooperation with the Central Movie Studio and the China Motion Picture Corporation of the Political Training Board of the National Military Council. It has produced many educational pictures independently or with the help of the two motion picture concerns. Among these are a series of films showing Chinese industrial ingenuity such as "Cotton of the Sungkai District of Szechwan," "Bristles," "Tea," "Charcoal Burner," "Vegetable Oil" and "Synthetics for Gasoline". Other movies produced by the committee include "The Second Generation" (describing activities in orphanages), "Land Reclamation by Refugees," "Banknotes" and "World Trends." A series of lantern slides has been produced depicting episodes of patriotism from ancient Chinese history, "Wen Tien-hsiang," "Shih Ko-fa" and "Cheng Cheng-kung" patriots of the declining Ming Dynasty, "Emperor Yu Controlling the Flood," "Ancient China before Huang Ti" and a picture on Sikang.

With a view to popularizing visual education on a nationwide scale, the Ministry has ordered the establishment of visual education departments by all provincial governments. Szechwan was the first province to carry out this order. Its visual education department, affiliated with the Education Commission of the provincial government, has to date turned out scores of films of highly instructive value. Other provinces that have complied with the Ministry's instructions are Kiangsi, Hunan, Shensi, Kwangsi, Sikang, Chekiang, Fukien, Kansu, Honan, Hupeh, Kwangtung, Yunnan, Kweichow and Anhwei and the municipality of Chungking.

Pioneer in the field of educational cinematography in China is the Science College of the University of Nanking which first introduced visual education to Chinese masses and students by 16 millimeter educational films in 1930. In 1934 it established a department of educational cinematography to make its own films. To date, scores of educational films covering a variety of subjects have been produced and released by the department, benefiting hundreds of thousands of people in all walks of life.

A further stage of progress in the promotion of educational cinematography was made by the Science College in 1938 when a visual education institute was

organized. The institute, which offers a two-year course, graduated its first class of eight students in the summer of 1940. Ten were graduated in the summer of 1941 and 16 in the summer of 1942. These graduates are now serving in visual education departments of provincial education commissions and municipal education bureaus and in schools where they promote cinematography as an effective medium of social education.

PHONETIC SYSTEM

The Committee for the Promotion of a Phonetic System of the Ministry of Education aims at the unification of the Chinese language through the use of phonetics. This work became especially significant with the launching of the people's education program in 1940 for the elimination of illiteracy in China.

On November 1, 1940, the committee began publication once every three days of a folk newspaper with phonetics which both pupils in primary schools and the illiterate masses who have mastered the phonetic system in mass education schools may be able to read. The paper prints news about the war, world affairs, political developments, common-sense knowledge and folk literature in which only simple Chinese characters are used. Its present circulation is 5,000 copies, but it is hoped to bring its circulation up to the mark of one copy for every *pao* throughout the country.

In 1935, four sets of phonetic types were made by the Chung Hwa Book Company at the committee's request. These were supplied to Chinese publishing concerns so that all textbooks for primary and mass education schools carry the phonetic symbols alongside the Chinese characters. With the outbreak of war, the four sets of types were left behind in enemy-occupied territory. Two new sets were completed in August, 1941.

The first government decree on the promotion of a phonetic system in provinces, municipalities and *hsien* was issued in 1930. In November, 1940, the Ministry of Education circularized orders urging strict adherence to that decree. At the Eighth Plenary Session of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang in March, 1941, a resolution was adopted calling for the popularization of the phonetic system

in pursuance of which the Ministry renewed its orders to provincial education commissions and municipal education bureaus and schools.

PHYSICAL CULTURE

Some of the major activities of the Committee on Physical Education of the Ministry of Education are: the establishment of schools and the popularization of physical education and military drill in all schools; a nation-wide program for health education; boy scout training in primary and secondary schools; a systematic study of Chinese boxing and encouragement of contests and tournaments; military drill in schools of all classes; general physical examination of all students; and the inauguration of the National Gliding Association.

At present there are 542 students majoring in physical education in colleges and universities besides those in schools of physical education. During the four-year period ending in 1941, training schools and continuation classes were opened from which 713 persons have been graduated, including 52 girls. The number of boy scouts and girl guides has now reached the figure of more than 300,000. No less than 95 per cent of Chinese military pilots are men who have received sound physical training in schools.

SOCIAL EDUCATION FINANCES

The National Government in 1928 decreed that all provincial and municipal governments should set aside 10 to 20 per cent of their educational funds for the promotion of social education. This decree was supplemented by an order issued by the Ministry of Education on April 14, 1933, that out of any new sources of educational funds created by provincial commissions of education, at least 30 per cent must be devoted to the dissemination of social education. In municipalities and *hsien* 30 to 50 per cent should be used for the same purpose.

Effective from 1936, social education expenses have been listed in the Central Government's Reconstruction Fund. The amount appropriated for social education in 1936 totalled \$1,100,000. This was increased to \$1,810,000 in 1939, and \$2,000,000 in 1940 and 1941. A further increase to \$5,000,000 was

effected in 1942. Appropriations made during the four-year period ending 1941

and their purposes are shown in the following table :—

<i>Purposes</i>	<i>Accounts</i>			
	1938	1939	1940	1941
Mass Education	\$570,000	\$1,484,000	\$860,000	\$510,000
People's Readers	50,000	100,000		
Educational Films	75,000	123,000	140,000	360,000
Radio Education	40,000	103,000	110,000	
Education on Arts			194,000	350,000
Social Affairs and Administration			262,000	330,000
Relief Facilities and Projects			434,000	450,000
TOTAL	\$735,000	\$1,810,000	\$2,000,000	\$2,000,000

The preceding list does not include appropriations to the National Peiping Library, National Social Education College, National Conservatory of Music, National Academy of Dramatic Arts, National School of Musical Drama, National Peiping Palace Museum,

National Central Library and National Central Museum.

The annual expenditures on social education of the various provinces and the municipality of Chungking during the three years of 1938, 1939 and 1940 are shown in the following table :—

<i>Province</i>	<i>Annual Expenditures</i>		
	1938	1939	1940
Chekiang	\$55,935	\$165,768	\$438,920
Anhwei			106,771
Kiangsi			207,224
Hupeh	34,405	32,383	2,000,000
Hunan	86,264	99,050	unreported
Fukien	117,270	1,239,892	93,682
Kwangsi			421,367
Shensi	65,664	74,856	99,350
Shansi	328,600	270,925	unreported
Ningsia	1,107	1,107	18,357
Sikang			145,108
Kansu	7,797	56,880	61,067
Chinghai	1,275	9,545	5,658
Szechwan	122,500	254,860	unreported
Kweichow	30,028	151,216	240,017
<i>Municipality</i> Chungking			66,000

BORDER EDUCATION

Border education has as its field of work all the border regions of China inhabited by tribespeople including Mongols, Tibetans, Mohammedans, Miaos, Lolos and other tribes. The Department of Mongolian-Tibetan Education of the Ministry of Education undertakes to provide all border districts of China with modern education and

to preserve and reconstruct their cultures. Border education did not follow any systematic trend until 1939 when the Ministry for the first time defined its policy, which it modified in 1940. According to this modified policy for border education, the purpose is to unify and reconstruct the culture of the various tribes of China with equal emphasis on primary education,

citizenship training, language, vocational and hygienic training. In secondary education, special emphasis is given to the development of technical abilities and to a clear understanding of the Chinese race and nation. In higher education, attention is paid to the training of technical personnel for the reconstruction of China. In social education, international affairs, scientific and engineering fundamentals are taught.

Considerable progress in the promotion of border education has been made since the establishment of the Department of Mongolian-Tibetan Education in 1930. Border education personnel has been trained: linguistic symbols have been devised and unified; texts and reference books have been written and loans and scholarships granted.

National border educational institutions already established include one technical college, two middle schools, eleven normal schools and six vocational schools. To these should be added the Border Education School of the Central Political Institute at South Hot Springs near Chungking, while several national institutions of higher learning give courses of border culture.

Of the eleven border normal schools, two—Likiang Normal School in Yunnan

and Suining Normal School in Ningsia—were established in 1942 with an initial appropriation of \$350,000 each from the Ministry of Education. In addition, preparations were started in March, 1942, to establish the National Technical College of Eastern Languages and Culture for which Tali in Yunnan was chosen as site. Other appropriations made by the Ministry for border education in 1942 included \$270,000 for various border vocational schools and \$230,000 for four border normal schools.

The number of border educational institutions, provincial and private, prior to 1939, in various provinces, according to the Ministry, totalled 24 normal schools, three middle schools and 2,375 primary schools. Many of these, however, have been closed, amalgamated or otherwise reorganized. All the 13 primary schools in Chahar, for instance, were closed on account of the war while in Suiyuan only four of the 29 primary schools were able to resume their work. In Sikang, three of its five primary schools were incorporated into the Sikang Provincial Primary School. The number of schools and their distribution in the various provinces as reported in 1936 are shown in the following table:—

<i>Province</i>	<i>Normal Schools</i>	<i>Middle Schools</i>	<i>Primary Schools</i>
Kansu	1		55
Chinghai	1	2	143
Ningsia	2		14
Sikang	1		5
Yunnan	10		35
Kweichow	1		12
Szechwan	2		15
Hunan	2		100
Sinkiang	2		1,412
Suiyuan	1		29
Chahar			13
Kwangsi	1		541
Tibet			1
TOTAL	24	2	2,375

The regulations governing the admission of Mongolian and Tibetan students in government or recognized private institutions in the interior which have been in force for many years were recently revised by the Ministry of Education whereby their application has been widened to students from all border regions of China.

These regulations provide that students from border districts desirous of entering schools of or above the secondary grade in the interior must be recommended by the offices of the various Mongolian

banners, local official organizations in Tibet, authorities of the various national border schools or the education commissions of the provinces of Sinkiang, Chinghai, Kansu, Ningsia, Sikang and other southwestern provinces. Government or recognized private institutions of or above the secondary grades should give special favorable consideration in their entrance examinations to applicants from border districts as recommended by the various organizations. Those who fail to pass the examinations should be admitted as

auditors while those whose standing is very low may be assigned by the Ministry of Education to certain supplementary schools. Border students admitted to government schools in the interior are exempt from payment of all school fees while those in private schools pay low rates. Scholarship aids are given by the Ministry to border students with good scholastic records.

OVERSEAS CHINESE EDUCATION

For the education of students of overseas Chinese families who have come to China in large numbers, especially since the outbreak of the Pacific war, there are at present three national middle schools and two national normal schools. In addition, the Ministry of Education, in cooperation with the Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission, established a special institute for South Seas Chinese students in April, 1942.

Scattered over forty-five countries and dominions on five continents prior to the outbreak of the Pacific war were 3,231 institutions of higher, secondary and primary education for overseas Chinese students. They included one college, eight normal schools, 117 middle schools, four vocational schools, 2,477 primary schools, 93 continuation schools and 53 other schools. Government appropriations for overseas Chinese education amounted to \$200,000 in 1940 and \$1,000,000 in 1941.

Overseas Chinese youths may enter any educational institutions in China for which they qualify. Of institutions of higher learning in China, the National Chinan University has the largest enrolment of overseas Chinese, the National Sun Yat-sen University comes second, the National Amoy University third, University of Canton fourth, Kuomin University fifth, Lingnan University sixth, Yenching University seventh, and the University of Nanking eighth.

THE ACADEMIA SINICA

As the highest research organization under the National Government, the Academia Sinica, despite its limited finances, personnel and equipment, has carried on an extensive program throughout Free China. It maintains ten institutes: physics, chemistry, engineering, geology, astronomy, meteorology, zoology and botany, psychology, history and philology, and social sciences. Until July, 1937, the first three institutes were located in Shanghai, while the central office and the other seven institutes were all in Nanking. At present, the central

office is temporarily located in Chungking; the institutes of zoology and botany, meteorology, history and philology, and social sciences in two localities in Szechwan; the institutes of chemistry, astronomy and engineering in Kunming; and the institutes of physics, geology and psychology in Kweilin. The work of the various institutes during the war has been as follows:

THE INSTITUTE OF HISTORY AND PHILOLOGY

Four lines of work are carried on, namely, history, archaeology, ethnology and physical anthropology, and philology and linguistics. The institute possesses an extensive archaeological and ethnological collection, including a number of treasures, such as the tortoise inscriptions of Yin dynasty from the site of Anyang. These treasures are in a small city in Szechwan. The collection of books, anthropometric records, and linguistic records in the institute is also extensive and remains intact. The institute members work in a village in southern Szechwan.

Prof. Chen Yin-ko has completed his treatise on the political history of Tang dynasty. Lao Kan of the institute has made a study of bamboo inscriptions of the Han Dynasty found in the vicinity of the Gashiun Nor, Ningsia, and for this work he was awarded the Yang Chuan prize of the academy in 1941. Chuan Han-sen has studied the economic history of the Sung period and was awarded the Yang Chuan prize of the academy in 1942. Fu Lo-huan wrote a paper on the method of administering the various racial groups adopted by the Liao emperors. Other history section work includes the editing of historical records of the Ming Dynasty, the editing of sources of Kin history, and the compilation of a critical bibliography of the astrological works of the Han Dynasty.

In the archaeological section of the institute, excavation reports of the following sites have been completed: Hsiao T'un Tsun, Liang Chen Chen, Hou Chia Chuan, Sunhsien, Hwehsien, Chihhsien, and Ta Shih Kung Tsun. Reports about archaeological investigations in Suiyuan, western Szechwan, and Sikang are ready for publication. Prof. Tung Cho-pin has profoundly analysed the tortoise inscriptions of Anyang and thereby obtained a possible solution of Yin chronology as well as a knowledge about the method of calendar making adopted by the Yin people. The excavation of Han tombs in Pengshan, Szechwan,

and archaeological investigation in the Northwest, especially the study of Buddhistic paintings in Tunhwang grottoes, Kansu, are in progress. The latter work was taken up in collaboration with the National Central Museum. A party of three experts, consisting of Prof. Hsiang Ta of National Southwest Associated University, and Lao Kan and Shih Chang-ju of the institute left Chungking for the Northwest in April, 1942 and are still going on with their work.

In the field of anthropology, the principal items of work have been ethnological and anthropometric investigation of the Miao people of Kweichow, and the ethnological investigation of the racial groups of western Szechwan and Sikang. Reports about the measurements of the bones of the Chinese people are ready for publication.

In the field of linguistics, detailed surveys of dialects of Hupeh, Hunan, Kweichow, Kwangsi, Szechwan and Yunnan have been carried out by Prof. Li Fang-kwei and his assistants. A survey of Miao dialects, Tung dialects, and Tai dialects of Kweichow and Kwangsi was also carried out and a comparative study of Tai dialects was made. Prof. Chao Yuen-ren, who has headed the section of philology and linguistics since the founding of the institute, went to the U. S. A. in the autumn of 1938 to lecture in American universities.

The longer publications of the institute of history and philology appear in the form of treatises, monographs, and excavation reports, while the shorter ones appear in the periodical entitled *The Bulletin of the Institute of History and Philology*. The latest number of this bulletin was published in November, 1942.

THE INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

The work of the institute has been concentrated along five lines: (1) the economic history of China, (2) the problems of wartime economy in China, (3) finance, currency and trade, (4) the history of army organization, and (5) public administration.

In the field of economic history of China, treatises on the history of land taxation in the Ming Dynasty, on the finances of the Ching Dynasty, and on the development of modern cotton industries are ready for publication.

The National Resources Commission asked the institute to study the problems of wartime economy. Reports written by the members of the institute include those on the fluctuation of commodity prices during wartime, on a general survey of industry and currency conditions in Free China, on the economic conditions of the occupied territories and on the estimated war losses of China.

In the field of public finances, studies on the financial relations between the central and provincial governments since the founding of the Chinese Republic, on district finances, on the finances of Yunnan, and on the provincial and district finances of Kwangsi have been completed. In 1942, in collaboration with the Ministry of Food, the institute sent a party of investigators to study on the spot the actual working of the new government regulations on (a) the payment of land tax in kind, (b) government purchasing of cereals. Studies on currency problems include an estimate of silver stock in China and investigation on the finances and cooperative undertakings in the farm villages of Chekiang province. Statistics on Sino-Japanese trade in recent years and on the interport trade of China during 1936-40 were compiled and the evolution of international trade of China was studied.

Lo Erh-kang of the institute has chosen the history of army organization in China as his special field of study. He has written a book on the history of the Hunan Army organized by Marquis Tseng Kuo-fan. His two manuscripts, one on the history of "Green Barracks" and another on the army organization during the last decades of Manchu Dynasty are also ready for publication.

In the field of public administration, a book on the relations between provincial and district administrations in Kwangsi province is near completion.

THE INSTITUTE OF ZOOLOGY AND BOTANY

The work of the institute falls under four sections: 1. Fresh-water biology, 2. Entomology and parasitology, 3. Mycology and plant pathology, and 4. Seed plants and forestry.

In the field of fresh-water biology, ichthyological surveys have been made in the provinces of Hunan, Kwangsi, Szechwan and Sikang. Food supply and feeding habits of various edible common fishes found in Szechwan were studied in the hope of increasing the fish supply

of the province. For a most valuable edible fish, *monopterus javanensis*, detailed studies on its respiratory mechanism in both the embryonic and the adult stage, its behavior, breeding habitat, and embryonic development, and on its circulatory system in the adult stage were carried out with remarkable success yielding results of particular interest. To help forward the anti-malaria campaign, a selected group of native mosquito-devouring fishes has been studied under conditions of artificial cultivation and distribution. Studies have also been made on Entomostraca, Protozoa, and fresh-water Algae.

In the field of entomology and parasitology, systematic studies have been carried out for a beetle family Chrysomelidae. Observations have been made on the life history of insects injurious to horticulture. Means of natural control of mosquito multiplication and the parasitic round worms found in domesticated and wild animals have been investigated.

In the field of mycology and plant pathology, a monograph on Chinese fungi, including about 2,000 species, was completed in 1938. Successful studies on the life history and methods of control of various fungus diseases affecting tung oil trees have been made. Experiments have been performed on the preservation of sweet potatoes, oranges and other horticultural products.

Systematic studies have been made on the umbellate and the grass families. Extensive forest survey was carried out in Sikang province for three successive years. Particular attention was laid to the preservation of natural forests. Utilization, growth rate, and fungus diseases of economic trees were carefully noted. In collaboration with the Kansu provincial government, a similar survey is now in progress in that province.

Most of the research papers of the institute appear in its own periodical "Sinensia." The 13th volume of this periodical will be published in 1943.

THE INSTITUTE OF METEOROLOGY

Since its founding, the institute has been in charge of both service work and research work. Before the Japanese invasion, with the Central Meteorological Observatory in Nanking as its base the institute had in its charge a number of weather stations and rainfall stations scattered throughout the country. After successive removals which took place after the fall of Nanking in 1937, the institute

settled down again in a town near Chungking, carrying with it a part of the equipment of the Central Meteorological Observatory. The number of instruments now in use in the temporary quarters is, of course, much less than that formerly in use in Nanking. In fact, the restarting of self-registered weather records did not begin until January, 1942.

Members of the institute have been faced with many difficulties. For instance, they realized the importance of observations of upper air wind drift; but from October, 1941 to May, 1942 only 66 balloons could be sent up, because balloons were not available.

In the autumn of 1941, the National Government inaugurated the Central Weather Bureau. The 17 weather stations and 100 rainfall stations formerly under the direction of the institute were transferred to the bureau. Henceforth the members of the institute devoted themselves to research in the science of meteorology itself, to statistical analyses of weather data, and to the climatology of China.

The papers of the institute, besides appearing in monographs and memoirs, mainly appear in the *Meteorological Magazine*, published by the Meteorological Society of China. To the latest issue of this magazine, P. K. Chang of the institute contributed an article on the climatic regions of Szechwan, and C. C. Yang contributed an article on the upper air currents over southern Szechwan.

THE INSTITUTE OF GEOLOGY

Since its removal to Kweilin, members of the institute, to meet wartime needs, have paid much attention to the mineral resources of southwestern China. In cooperation with other Chinese geological institutes, the mountainous area in western Hupeh, western Hunan, the eastern border of the Kweichow plateau, the Kwangsi Plateau and the Nanling Ranges have been explored. These are areas in which metalliferous deposits abound. Hitherto they were comparatively little known geologically owing to their highly mountainous character. With the rapid development of motor roads in these areas, field-work has been greatly facilitated. Consequently, important results have been obtained within the past few years regarding ore deposits as well as geological formations.

Ore bodies either in the form of lenticular layers or persistent veins, or

else of irregular masses have been located with respect to principal structural trend and to the alignment of igneous intrusions. They are mainly formed in the older rocks, and particularly in those of Sinian age. Tin, tungsten, gold, antimony, lead, zinc, mercury, together with iron and coal are among the principal elements being studied.

Stratigraphical, tectonic and geomorphological observations made in the mountainous areas are contributing much toward the elucidation of important geological events. Of wider scientific interest is the investigation of the extensive distribution of an ancient glacial deposit, or tillite, along the eastern border of the Kweichow plateau. This deposit can be compared, in point of time, with a similar formation well known in Scandinavia, North America and elsewhere in the world. In these same regions, but to a much greater extent "remains" of quaternary glaciations are also found. Boulder-clays with typical ice-scratched boulders occur far and wide in association with fluvio-glacial gravels and sometimes with varve clay. Along numerous ancient valleys descending from the high mountains on the edge of the Kweichow plateau, and from the high ranges of western Hupeh, western Hunan and northern Kwangsi, it is possible to trace, step by step, the distribution of the vanished glaciers. With unequivocal evidence in hand, geologists and climatologists must now find a new interpretation of the cause of glaciation.

Substantial data obtained in the course of the last few years regarding the structural elements of the country shows the importance of a mesozoic movement or movements that were responsible for the general "layout" of China. The results of investigations now fully establish the fact that the broad belt of mountainous country stretching from northern Kwangsi, past western Hunan and eastern Kweichow, continues to the Yangtze Gorge area of western Hupeh. This formidable, complex range extends farther to the north-northeast forming the eastern border of the Shansi plateau, and still further north, the Great Khingan Range running between Mongolia and Manchuria. On the eastern side of this so-called Neocathaysian up-lift lies an elongated, depressed area embracing the Manchurian plain, the North China plain and the Central Yangtze Basin. Palaeontological research by members of the institute has brought out the interesting

fact that this elongated basin of north-easterly trend was from time to time invaded by marine fauna in the geological past.

THE INSTITUTE OF PHYSICS

Up to July, 1937, the institute was located in Shanghai where it had the advantage of using modern laboratory facilities which are not all available in the interior. In 1938, the institute moved to Kunming; and then in October, 1940, it moved again to Kweilin, following a government order. Its re-establishment at Kweilin was completed only toward the end of 1941. In its temporary quarters, it has a magnetic laboratory, a radio laboratory, an observatory of terrestrial magnetism, and a machine shop. The shop was bombed by enemy planes in the summer of 1941 and suffered much damage.

The majority of members of the institute were occupied with problems which demanded immediate attention such as those of radio communication, making of permanent magnets, making of scientific apparatus, ore-prospecting by magnetic and electrical methods. A few members, however, still found time to carry out a survey of terrestrial magnetism in Fukien and Kiangsi provinces. While in Fukien, they had the opportunity of observing the magnetic disturbances during the total solar eclipse of September 21, 1941. Their findings substantiated the view that these magnetic disturbances were caused by the cutting-off of ultra-violet radiation from the sun. The survey of terrestrial magnetism in Kiangsi province will be completed in 1943, and at the same time the work will be extended to Hunan province.

In the magnetic laboratory, methods for measuring the susceptibility of minerals and rocks both in powder form and in bulk form were devised and compared in 1942. Results obtained with powders of different degrees of fineness were also compared. Measurements on the variation of magnetic constants with temperature for single crystals of nickel-cobalt alloys are now in progress.

Besides making the physical apparatus required by members of the institute for their own work, the machine shop also accepts outside orders.

THE INSTITUTE OF PSYCHOLOGY

The institute, temporarily located in Kweilin, is directed by Dr. G. H. Wang. Its principal work has been in the field

of physiological psychology, the subject taken up being the physiological analysis of the developmental behavior of the tadpole. The method adopted went further than the parallel observation of the various stages in the development of behavior with those in the growth of the nervous system. Either a part of the central nervous system of the frog embryo or of the tadpole was destroyed by surgical operation or one of the sensory organs was cut off, and the resultant changes in the development of behavior were observed. In 1940 observations were made of the normal development of the swimming and righting reflexes of the frog (*Rana Guentheri*) and the effect produced upon this development by transaction of the various parts of the central nervous system before hatching. The results of this experiment were published in the *Journal of Neurophysiology*. In 1941, the effect of strychnine and other drugs on the developing nervous system of the frog was studied. In the same year, H. T. Chu, assistant in physiology in the Army Medical College, worked in the institute and observed the ciliary movement and the circulation of the cerebro-spinal fluid in the brain ventricles of Anurans. His paper was published in the *American Journal of Physiology*. In 1942, Dr. G. H. Wang made experiments on the effect of the development of the higher nervous centers in embryo on the spinal cord. Preliminary results seemed to demonstrate that the first effect was that of inhibition. Experiments on tadpole behavior after the reconstruction of the nervous system by the method of grafting with the embryonic nervous system were started in May, 1942, the first step being to develop a grafting and feeding technique.

Since 1941, Dr. G. H. Wang has been attempting to propound a theoretical system to embrace all the reflex actions of the spinal cord as studied by Sherrington and his associates.

In the field of comparative neuro-anatomy, research has been carried out on (1) a comparative study of the septum of the forebrain, (2) structure of mesencephalon and rhombencephalon of hedgehog *Erinaceus*, (3) a kind of recurrent fibers in the cerebellar cortex of the monkey, (4) nucleus of the trapezoid body in the mammalian brain, and (5) the central nervous system of Manis. The first mentioned work was by Dr. Y. T. Lu and the last three were by H. T. Chang. The third was published in the *Journal of Comparative Neurology*

THE INSTITUTE OF ASTRONOMY

The institute was founded in 1928 but the construction and equipment of its observatory on the Purple Mountain in the suburb of Nanking were not completed until 1934. After only three years of using this equipment, the institute had to move to Kunming and lost much of the heavier equipment. Since Kunming is noted for the clearness of its sky during the dry season, it was decided to build there a small observatory which was completed in 1938. The spectrohelioscope was again set up and is used for daily observations of sunspots. A Ross camera with 4-inch objective for the study of variable stars was also set up again.

The total solar eclipse of September 21, 1941, was a rare opportunity for the Chinese astronomers. The path of the shadow swept across the country from the Northwest toward the Southeast, covering a distance of over 4,000 kilometers. A number of years ahead of the event, a plan of collaboration was organized by the institute, the National Central University, the University of Nanking, and the Institute of Physics of Academia Sinica. The exigencies of the war demanded the curtailment of the original program, and only two observation parties were sent out, one to Fukien province, and another to Kansu province. Clear sky did not greet the former party, but did greet the latter, the members of which successfully photographed the corona, determined the times of contacts, and found that the light intensity of the corona was .39 of that of the full moon. Coincidentally, it was found that the eclipse expedition made a great impression upon the populace who had formerly never realized that modern science could predict a celestial event with such precision.

On February 2, 1941, a member of the institute found the comet 1941 C. Paraskevopoulos. He made a number of observations and computed the elements of its orbit.

Dr. W. C. Tai joined the institute in the autumn of 1941 and is now engaged in theoretical astrophysics, observational work being impossible under present circumstances. In 1942, he completed two papers, one on the convective equilibrium and color temperature of stars, and the other on the analysis of some peculiar stellar spectra.

THE INSTITUTE OF CHEMISTRY

The institute is now located in Kunming where its laboratory was

completed in July, 1940, with funds partly provided by the British Indemnity Fund. Since the former director of the institute, Dr. Chuang Chang-kung, was unable to come to the interior, H. C. Zen, secretary-general of the academy for the period 1939-40, served as director. In April, 1942, Dr. Woo Sho-chow was appointed to succeed Zen.

The work of the institute falls under three headings:

- (1) Physical and inorganic chemistry,
- (2) Organic chemistry,
- (3) Applied chemistry.

Since 1933, Dr. Woo had been photographing and measuring the ultra-violet absorption spectra of gases. After coming to the interior, he found it impossible to continue this work for gases and had to shift to liquids and solutions. The results obtained from solutions made possible the detection of molecular structure and photochemical behavior of compounds in their solution state. The work was so far confined to the electronic spectra of compounds containing the carbonyl group. D. K. Liu was Dr. Woo's co-worker in this work.

D. K. Liu and H. P. Chung have carefully analysed the contents of the principal rock salt ores of Yunnan. They found no trace of iodine by ordinary methods; and if iodine is present, its amount must be less than eight parts per ten million. Sodium sulphate is present in the salt liquor to the extent of 13-22 per cent. By applying the phase rule to the system $\text{NaCl}-\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4-\text{H}_2\text{O}$, it was found possible to separate out about three quarters of sodium sulphate by cooling the salt liquor to the neighborhood of 0°C , and then to further reduce the sodium sulphate content to 1-2 per cent by fractional crystallization. Another method of obtaining refined salt is to add calcium chloride to salt liquor so as to precipitate calcium sulphate. It had been suggested that the joint application of both methods would give the best and the most economical results. The separation of potassium sulphate and potassium chloride has also been effected. By successive crystallization, it has been found possible to obtain potassium carbonate of purity about 99 per cent, and then to obtain from the latter pure potassium chlorate and other potassium compounds. Pure chemicals used by Chinese chemists were formerly imported from abroad, and since foreign supply is now either cut off or difficult to obtain, home-made pure chemicals are now very much needed.

Dr. C. K. Chuang, former director of the institute, and his associates have made a further analysis of the Chinese drug *han feng chi*. Besides the alkaloid tetrandrin $\text{C}_{38}\text{H}_{42}\text{O}_6\text{N}_2$ which had been known already, Dr. Chuang found in this drug another alkaloid of composition $\text{C}_{36}\text{H}_{40}\text{O}_6\text{N}_2$, which he named demethyl-tetrandrin, because one OCH_3 radical of tetrandrin was replaced by an OH radical.

Dr. Huang Min-lon joined the research staff of the institute in the spring of 1941. He, Lo Chien-pen and Miss Chu Ju-yung have been engaged in organic synthesis. They have synthesized a series of symmetrically substituted azobenzenesulfonamides, devised an improved method of preparing N1-acetyl-sulfanilamide, described a color reaction of sulfanilamide and its derivatives containing a free amino group, and found for the sulfanilamide, albucid, uliron, neo-uliron, and daganan (either in pure state or in tablet form) a method of identification, distinct, specific, and generally applicable, which has been called the micro-acetylation method. They have also carried out synthetic work in the santonin series, and synthesized two new desmotropo-santonins, two new desmotropo-santonous acids, and the bromination products of desmotropo-santonins and desmotropo-santonous acids.

Studies made in applied chemistry have included the purification and thermal treatment of castor oil, the preparation of phosphorus and phosphate fertilizers from the phosphate ores of Yunnan, the preparation of paper pulp from reeds and corn stalks, and the making of silicon iron from Yunnan minerals. The dehydration of castor oil has been thoroughly carried out, more than 20 sulphates and alums having been used as catalysts. With each catalyst, the iodine value of the dehydrated oil as well as its miscibility with mineral oils were determined. Experiments on low temperature distillation of Yunnan lignite have also been performed. The work in applied chemistry was directed by Dr. H. H. Wang and Dr. T. N. Chang who are now associated with industrial firms.

THE INSTITUTE OF ENGINEERING

The institute, after being moved from Shanghai to Kunming, found itself in an entirely different environment where the facilities for experimental work were inadequate. The two experimental plants of the institute, one on

glass-making and another on steel-making, were fortunately moved to Kunming with the institute itself; and work along these two lines could still be carried on. The plant for glass-making was bombed by enemy planes in September, 1940, and soon re-established itself in a village near Kunming. Although it has had to operate on a reduced scale, it has been able to furnish much glassware needed in medical service and in scientific work. Because of the lack of proper raw materials, the glass produced is inferior to that of former days.

The equipment in the experimental plant for steel-making includes a rolling mill. For supplying the wartime need of special kinds of steel, most of the equipment of the plant was loaned to a steel manufacturing plant jointly organized by the Ministry of Economic Affairs and the Yunnan provincial government. The members of the institute also lent their technical service to this plant.

In 1941, the Central Electro-technical Manufacturing Plant of the National Resources Commission asked the institute to make tungsten magnetic steel which was needed in making telephones and electric meters. The tungsten magnetic steel produced in the laboratory of the institute has been found satisfactory, being comparable in quality with the American product. The making of cobalt magnetic steel was also attempted in 1941. The cobalt ores of Yunnan were found to contain 1.5-6.7 per cent cobalt oxide. From these ores, cobalt oxide of purity above 90 per cent was prepared, the remaining impurity being mainly iron oxide. This cobalt oxide can be used as the starting material for making cobalt magnetic steel.

The material testing division of the institute has carried out an extensive series of tests on Yunnan timber, including tangential and radial shrinkage, mechanical properties, specific gravity, and moisture content. For certain selected kinds of timber, dry distillation experiments will also be carried out for the purpose of obtaining acetone, wood alcohol, and acetic acid.

THE NATIONAL RESEARCH COUNCIL

The National Research Council was organized as a part of Academia Sinica in 1935. Its function is to promote and to co-ordinate scientific research in the whole country, the word "scientific" being used in the wider sense, including

the social and historical sciences. Members of the council consist of the president of Academia Sinica, the directors of its research institutes, and thirty members elected by professors of national universities. The term of office of the elected members is 5 years. The council ordinarily meets once a year.

In 1941, the council decided to publish two journals, *Science Record* and *Bulletin of Academic Research*. The former shall contain short communications of original scientific research by Chinese scientists, the language used being English, French, or German. The latter is published in Chinese, and contains general reviews of the significant advances in various fields of study and abstracts of scientific papers by Chinese scientists and of those by foreign scientists on subjects related to China. On account of the difficulties of printing in the interior, the first number of *Bulletin of Academic Research* did not appear until December, 1942, and the first number of *Science Record* in February, 1943.

In 1941, the council recommended that the Academy organize an institute of mathematics as soon as it could be properly equipped with books and periodicals. Unfortunately, it has been impossible to obtain such equipment on account of transportation difficulties.

The Academia Sinica was founded in 1928 in Nanking with the late Dr. Tsai Yuan-pei as its president. After his death in March, 1940, the National Government appointed Dr. Chu Chia-hua acting president. During the period 1939-41, H. C. Zen and Fu Sze-nien successively served as secretary-general. The latter resigned in the autumn of 1941 and Dr. Yeh Chi-sun, professor of physics in the National Tsinghua University, was appointed to the post (to whom thanks are due for this comprehensive report of the work of the Academia Sinica).

NATIONAL ACADEMY OF PEIPING

Research projects completed by the National Academy of Peiping during the past five and a half years have greatly helped the economic reconstruction of China at war.

With the Japanese occupation of Peiping in 1937, the work of the academy, with its headquarters in that northern city, was suspended. Later, however, it succeeded in removing part of its books and equipment and in resuming a large part of its research activities in Kunming, Yunnan.

The National Academy of Peiping consists of nine institutes of physics, radium, chemistry, materia medica, physiology, zoology, botany, geology, and historical studies and archaeology. Notable achievements have been made by each of these institutes during the past five years.

Since its removal to Kunming, the Institute of Physics, whose studies were chiefly on photography, spectroscopy, piezoelectricity and geophysics, has more and more inclined to attack practical problems concerning national reconstruction and development of wartime industries.

With its spectroscopic equipment, a laboratory of spectrum analysis has been set up to meet the need of the budding metallurgical industry in this country. Some routine work was carried out and new techniques were developed.

Particularly noteworthy has been the service rendered by the institute to radio communication. Numerous radio stations both fixed and movable have been established, but almost all of them are of quite small power. The interference between them would be troublesome if they were not crystal-controlled. The institute has stabilized more than 1,000 transmitters with quartz oscillators made in its laboratories.

In addition, the institute has devoted much of its effort to the development of applied optics and geophysical prospecting. A small optical shop was set up in Kunming. Optical machines were built, testing instruments designed and craftsmen trained. After three years' painstaking work, the institute was able to produce most of the optical parts. Achromats, prisms and flats have been supplied to various institutions for educational and research purposes. Microscopes for the general usage of university students are being made for the Ministry of Education. To date, more than 200 microscopes have been completed.

In geophysics, the institute's two main undertakings have been the preparation of a gravity map of China and the precise determination of longitudes and latitudes. As its geophysicists proceeded with their work of gravity determinations throughout the province of Yunnan to the borders of Burma and Indo-China, their attention has been directed to mineral resources and to a study of effective methods of exploitation which have been immediately put into application.

The work of geophysical prospecting was concentrated on the study of metallic ore deposits. To date, five different mining districts have been thoroughly examined by the institute's geophysical field parties employing chiefly magnetic and electrical apparatus. The National Resources Commission's I-Men iron mine was the first one surveyed, the survey lasting six months. Then the An-Ning iron mine the Lu Tien lead-silver mine, the Kochiu tin mine and, lastly, the Chaotung lignite field were successfully subjected to geophysical investigation.

The results of these studies, made at the request of the respective mining organizations concerned, have not only greatly altered the concepts of the geologists and mining engineers as to the extent and economic value of these deposits, but have also led to possible improvements in the methods of geophysical prospecting.

The Institute of Radium consists of three laboratories—chemistry, radioactivity and X-rays. In the chemistry and radio-activity laboratories a great number of Chinese minerals were examined chemically and radio-actively. Protactinium was studied and its branching ratio redetermined with counters. A detailed study of the absorption co-efficients of B-rays revealed the important fact that it is neither a fixed nor a single value, but depends on the thickness of the absorber and the surrounding conditions of the source under measurement.

In the X-rays laboratory, the work is mainly on crystal analysis. Some improvements of classical methods and techniques have been realized. With an induction furnace, some alloys of tungsten and antimony were prepared and they are being studied with X-rays.

Problems of different branches of chemistry are investigated by the Institute of Chemistry including both pure chemical research as well as research in applied chemistry. Among topics covered in the work for the past five years are: (a) Extraction of dyestuffs from local plants and their application to various textiles, (b) recovery of used engine oils, replacement of Diesel oil by vegetable oil and preparation of a gasoline substitute from molasses and saw dust, (c) analysis of water samples taken from different places in the vicinity of Kunming, (d) molecular rearrangements of organic compounds, (e) syntheses of compounds related to vitamin K, (f) derivatives of sulfanilamide,

- (g) preparation of angular methyl group,
- (h) syntheses of rotenon derivatives.

Research work in the Institute of Materia Medica has been concentrated on the investigation of Chinese drugs, such as Chinese ephedra, *Maohuang*, Chinese corydalis, *Pei-Mu*, *Hsi-Hsin*, *Mu-Fang-Chi*, *Shih-Chan-Chu*, *Yang-Chin-Hua*, *Kou-Wen*, *Ta-Cha-Yeh*, etc. The active principles have been isolated and their constituent properties as well as the pharmacological actions have been studied. Besides, the institute also prepares some materials as ephedrine, vitamin B, etc., on a commercial scale for clinical uses.

The Institute of Physiology has undertaken research in subjects capable of application in daily life, in addition to pure academic work. Investigations on the nutritious values of foodstuffs, experiments on the treatment of chicken cholera by sulfanilamide and typhus by some Chinese medicine from the *Pen-Tsao* have been conducted with satisfactory results. Studies have also been made of the types of Chinese drugs produced in Yunnan and on the basal metabolism of the Yunnanese people.

Research conducted by the Institute of Zoology was formerly restricted to the seashore animals of China. Since its removal to Kunming, this sort of work had to be directed to the limnological fauna of Yunnan. The fauna of the Kunming Lake, the Erh-Hai, Yang-Tsung-Hai and Fu-Sian Lake become material to work on. An experimental station for lacustral biological studies was set up in 1939, under the joint auspices of the institute and the reconstruction commission of Yunnan. The station has been able to make systematic studies of the principal fresh water fauna of Yunnan, particularly the fishes of these inland lakes, their diseases and enemies, together with the chemical and physical properties of the lake waters. Besides aquatic animals, terrestrial animals like Reptilia and Spiders of Yunnan were also collected and worked on.

The work of the Institute of Botany has been concentrated on problems of economic botany since its removal to the interior. Investigations on agricultural and forestry topics, such as the distribution of forests, classification and diseases of farming plants and particularly experiments on cultivating medicinal plants have been under way.

Under the joint sponsorship of the institute and the National Northwest

Agricultural College, a special botanical survey was planned and organized to do research on the plant life of North-west China as well as on their economic values. In 1940, a botanical garden was brought to completion, inside which experiments have been performed. Botanical parties were despatched to various centers of botanical interest throughout the Northwest, particularly the surroundings of the great western mountain ranges. The entire collection of plant specimens belonging to the institute numbers more than 60,000.

For more than ten years, the Institute of Geology has been cooperating with the National Geological Survey of China. Outstanding among contributions to science and geological work has been the discovery and identification of fossil remains of the well-known *Sinanthropus Pekinensi* or the Peking Man with its contemporary vertebrates excavated from the limestone caves at Chou-Kou-Tien, near Peiping.

Since 1937, extensive field and laboratory studies have been in progress despite the war. Detailed mapping of mineral deposits occupied a major part of the institute's work, though emphasis has also been laid on paleontological studies. The excavation and investigation of a complete fossil Dinosaurs skeleton (*Lufengosaurus Huenei* Young) from Lufenghsien, Yunnan, is among the noteworthy achievements of the institute.

The Institute of Historical Studies and Archaeology consists of three main fields: the study of literary material in ancient Chinese history, the compilation of archaeological materials excavated at Paoki, Shensi, several years ago and the collection of historical materials about the inhabitants living in the border regions of China.

In 1933, a committee was appointed at the request of the Shensi provincial government to start an excavation at Touchitai, near Paoki. The excavation began in 1934 and by 1937, materials of historical significance were obtained there including the remains of many human dwelling places of the Stone Age, relics of ancient city walls and more than 100 tombs belonging to various ancient periods. The first of a series of publications, *Studies of Li-Tripods Excavated at Touchitai*, prepared by Su Ping-ki has just gone to press, while the report of the excavation is now under compilation.

Several important works on the studies of literary materials in ancient Chinese history have been completed within the last three years, namely, *Legendary Period in Chinese Ancient History* and *Tsun-Ko-Tsin-Sze-Hwei-Tien*, (the name index for the holders of the degree of "Tsin-Sze" during the various Chinese dynasties) Papers of other investigations are listed in the institute's publication *Collected Papers of Historical Studies*.

The National Academy of Peiping was founded on September 9, 1929, in Peiping, in accordance with an act passed by the Executive Yuan of the National Government. Under the leadership of Li Yu-ying and Dr. Li Shu-hua, respectively president and vice-president of the academy, is a staff of 120 members. It receives \$420,000 annually from the Government plus a variable monthly subsidy to cover the rising cost of living.

SINO-AMERICAN COOPERATION FOR PROMOTION OF EDUCATION

One of the great organs of educational and cultural enterprises in China is the China Foundation for the Promotion of Education and Culture which has at its disposal the indemnity funds returned to China by the United States Government. Since the suspension of the indemnity payments by the Chinese Government at the end of 1938, the Foundation has been deprived of its major income and has had to depend mainly on the endowment income plus the proceeds from a loan contracted with the Central Bank of China, the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications and the Farmers' Bank of China. Despite financial limitations, the work of the Foundation during the past four years has covered a wide range of activities which may be briefly summarized under three main categories: direct enterprises, joint enterprises and subsidized institutions.

Under direct enterprises, scientific research professorships in China and fellowships both in China and abroad are maintained by the Foundation. The recipients of such professorships and fellowships in 1939-40 are listed as follows:—

Dr. Chi Ping, research professor in zoology, continued to work at the Science Society of China, Shanghai. A paper entitled "Study of the effect of cerebral cortical lesion on the respiratory exchange and its associated phenomena of the albino rats" was prepared and published.

His experimental work on "Comparative study of the calorie production of the albino rat under certain different conditions" was completed in the year and that on "Study on the chronaxie of a certain cerebral motor point of the albino rat at three postnatal growth stages" was nearing completion. The investigation "Observations on the basal metabolism of the albino rat after a cerebral cortical injury at various nursing periods" was still in progress.

Prof. H. Y. Chen, research professor in botany, continued his work at the Botanical Institute of Sun Yat-sen University. Besides directing graduate studies, he actively carried on studies of the Gesneriaceae and Fagaceae. A part of his time was also devoted to writing up the flora of Kwangtung and Hainan Island.

Dr. Chi Li, research professor in archaeology, continued to work on the Yin-hsu potteries at the Research Institute of History and Philology of Academia Sinica. For the first half year, he devoted his full time to finishing up the work on the classification of potteries: (1) revising the formula for the index of dissimilarity; (2) carrying out the porosity test; (3) repairing the standard specimens from Nanking. During the second half year he was drafting a monograph on the studies of Yin-hsu potteries. The monograph was to be divided into three parts: Part I, Descriptive; Part II, Analytical; Part III, Comparative and Historical. The draft of Part I was nearly completed. He also started working on the bronzes recovered from Yin-hsu.

Dr. A. W. Grabau, research professor in geology, continued his work in the Cenozoic Laboratory at Peiping. The fifth volume of his book "Palaeozoic formations in the light of the pulsation theory" was completed and ready to go to press. Another book prepared by him under the title of "The rhythm of the ages" was published by the French Bookstore, Peiping, in January, 1940.

Dr. Ta-kuin Tsing, formerly the Foundation's professor of aerodynamics at Peiyang Engineering College, was reinstated and transferred to the Research Institute of Aeronautics, Tsing-Hua University, in July, 1939. During the year he prepared a set of apparatus for laboratory work on elementary aerodynamics and wrote a textbook on elementary aerodynamics. He is writing another book on "Construction of air-panes."

Among holders of fellowships in China were Tai Chen of Yenching University who worked on the utilization of Chinese flint fire clays in making refractory bricks, and Han-po Ting of the same institution who worked on a further study of the hybrids already obtained between *R. nigromaculata* and *R. plancyi* and the continuation of further hybridization experiments on the Chinese anurans and an experimental study of the Bidder's organ in Chinese toads.

Recipients of foreign fellowships included Shih-nge Lin of Massachusetts Institute of Technology on "Study of automatic control of aircraft," Tsing-nang Shen of Columbia University on "The electrolytic co-deposition of beryllium-magnesium alloys from the fused salts," Paul C. Chang of the University of Cincinnati on "Nature of Fermentation of vegetable tanning materials," Chung-tao Cheng of Berlin University on "Research in Vitamin B₁," Chia-wei Chang of University of California on "The causes of development of soil structure," Tso-lin Ho of Innsbruck University (Germany) on "The application of petrofabrications on orogenesis and economic geology," Ling-ting Chong of University of Dijon (France) on "Ornithological fauna of the southwestern provinces of China," Pei-moo Ku of Massachusetts Institute of Technology, on "Air-cooling of in-line aero-engines," Shiou-chuan Sun of Missouri School of Mines on "Concentration of gold and silver ores," Chuk-Ching Ma of Columbia University on "Pure tungsten from Chinese wolframite," Ching-yuan Li of Columbia University on "Economic geology and geomorphology," Ki-chin Hsu of University of Minnesota on "Tungsten, tin, bismuth, molybdenum deposits in the Nanling region and their relation to the orogenic history and igneous activities in Southern China," Tit Wong of Kansas State College on "Manufacture of veterinary biologicals in the control and treatment of animal diseases in China," Yun-pei Sun of University of Minnesota on "Preparation of arsenical insecticides from Chinese 'Hsinshih,' realgar and orpiment," Sidney Hsiao of the U.S. Bureau of Fisheries and Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution on "The relation of environmental factors to flounder migration and to survival of larvae of commercial fish," Ping-yang Liu of Harvard University on "Further studies on typhus rickettsia with special references to its cultivation and vaccine production," and Chi-tang Woo of Iowa State

College on "The secondary micro-organisms in hog cholera and other micro-organisms which produce diseases similar to hog cholera."

In addition, research grants were given to Chia-jui Shen of Southwest Associated University for a study of the brachyuran crustacea of China and the larval development of the Chinese crabs, Libin T. Cheng of the Medical College of the National Central University for a dietary survey of Chinese high school students, Kuo-hao Lin of the National Medical College of Shanghai for a study on the general methods for the synthesis of alpha-amino acids, Liang Li of the same institution for a study on Glycolysis in shed blood, Siang Wu of the Medical College of National Central University for a survey of the growth rate and haematological elements of Chinese, Kuang Wu of Henry Lester Institute of Medical Research, Shanghai, for a study of the biological control of schistosomiasis in China, Chang-shan Lin of Yenching University for experimental studies of mole crickets and H. Liu of the Science Society of China, Shanghai, for a study on the ethnography of the Li tribes of Hainan Island.

The work of the Committee on Editing and Translation also came under the direct enterprises category of the Foundation. During the year 1939-40, its work consisted chiefly in continuing the translations already in progress while a great deal of attention was paid to the reading and correction of manuscripts on hand. Twelve books were translated and the manuscripts of five books were revised. Books published included: *The Elements of Non-Euclidean Plane Geometry* and *Trigonometry*, *Industrial Evolution*, *History of American Political Theories*, *History of Contemporary Europe*, *Twelfth Night* and *Medea*.

Soil survey which, in previous years, was entrusted to the National Geological Survey, has been conducted under the direct supervision of the Foundation. Surveys made during the year 1939-40 comprised: (1) Detailed soil survey of Kaiyuan district, Yunnan; (2) Reconnaissance soil survey of Lei-Ma-Ngo-Ping border district, Szechwan; (3) Survey of the area comprising Fushan, Fuchi and Fungtsi; (4) Detailed soil survey of Laochang area, Wei-yuan, Szechwan; (5) Reconnaissance soil survey of the northeastern district of Kweichow; (6) Reconnaissance soil survey of Kunyang district, Yunnan.

Under experimental work the following were carried on: (1) Routine analytical work; (2) Field experiments of the soil station; (3) A correlation study of the characteristics of different soil series; (4) A new method for determining soil plasticity and stickiness; (5) A study of the soil physical properties; (6) Trials of rock phosphate as a phosphatic fertilizer; (7) An experiment on the fixation of phosphate in red earths and yellow earths; (8) Variations of the yield of wheat as affected by the time of applying phosphatic fertilizer.

On the Foundation's joint enterprises list are the National Library of Peiping and the Fan Memorial Institute of Biology. During the year 1939-40, the library received as gifts 1,101 volumes of books and 4,652 volumes of periodicals and pamphlets. It acquired through purchase 551 volumes of books and 157 periodicals in 756 volumes. It was frequented by 262,041 readers who made use of 312,309 volumes, averaging 724 readers and 863 volumes per day. The reference section, besides answering oral inquiries, prepared, on its own initiative, "Bibliography on the Foreign Relations of China," "Bibliography on Post-war Reconstruction in Europe" and a number of bibliographies on other topics.

Outstanding among the activities of the Fan Memorial Institute of Biology was the Yunnan botanical expedition organized by the institute and partly financed by the Royal Horticultural Society, England and the Arnold Arboretum of Harvard University, U.S.A. At first, the party was divided into three groups, exploring the mountainous regions of Chungtung, Mengtze, and southwestern Yunnan, respectively. Late in the spring of 1940, the party was redivided into two groups: one group working at Mengtze and Ping-pien and the other group in southeastern parts of Yunnan and places bordering French Indo-China and Kwangsi province.

They obtained during the year over 14,500 numbers of herbarium specimens, 1,000 numbers of seeds and large quantities of algae, fungi, mosses, etc. The Yunnan party also collected for the zoological division over 10,000 specimens of insects.

Research work of the Institute covered a variety of topics. Results of such studies by staff members, published in the Institute's bulletin and other scientific periodicals during the year include the following: Enumeration of

Primula Collected from Northwestern Yunnan, A Study of the Seeds of the Genus Primula with Reference to the Criterion Section, The Studies of Chinese Ferns, Notes on a New Grex of the Section Osproleon of the Genus Orobanch in China, Notes on the Fagaceae of Yunnan, Notes on Five New and Several Other Known Species of Ilex of China, A Catalogue of Birds in the Department of Biology, Chung Kuo College, Peiping, Freshwater Algae from Yunnan Expedition 1935-37, Addition to the Freshwater Algae of Yunnan, The Heonries of Tai-Miao Park, Studies on the Chinese Jackdaw, Variability in the Body Weight of the Brambling, Age and Growth in Some Food Fishes, On the Occurrence of the Yellow-bellied Tit from Western Hills, Peiping, Contributions to the Knowledge of Eastern Asiatic Orchidaceae, A Review of Chinese Gobies, Studies on Chinese Glossogobius, A Review of the Smooth Catfishes, List of Amphibians in the Fan Memorial Institute of Biology, Leguminosae Sinicae II, Karyokinetic Study on Assulus Chinese Bunge, Systematical Studies on Chinese Coriadinse with Particular Reference to the Genitalia of both Sexes.

Subsidized institutions include universities and colleges, research institutes and educational and cultural organizations. Grants made to universities and colleges in the year 1939-40 included \$7,000 to the College of Agriculture and Forestry of the University of Nanking for investigations in plant pathology; \$8,000 to the Botanical Institute of Sun Yat-sen University for investigations of special products of the Southwest, such as tung oil and castor oil of Szechwan and the star anise tree of Kwangsi NC \$50,000 and US \$15,000 to National Yunnan University for the development of mining and metallurgical engineering; NC \$35,900 and US \$8,000 to the College of Medicine of National Central University for books, equipment and special expenses; NC \$8,000 and US \$4,000 to the College of Medicine of West China Union University for animal house and books; NC \$8,700 and US \$1,000 to the United Hospital of the Associated Universities in Chengtu for equipment and special expenses; \$10,000 to National Shanghai Medical College for public health work in Yunnan province; NC \$100,000 and US \$8,000 to National Kweiyang Medical College for equipment and construction; \$7,500 to the College of Medicine of St. John's University for

purchase of necessary equipment and supplies; \$10,000 to Hsiang Ya (Yale-in-China) Medical College for more housing and laboratory facilities; \$15,000 to Boone Library School for maintenance; \$5,000 to Lingnan University for purchase of laboratory equipment and supplies and \$10,000 to Fujen (Catholic) University of Peiping for science equipment.

Grants made to research institutes include \$50,000 to the Biological laboratory of the Science Society of China, \$30,000 to the Academia Sinica for experimenting on the manufacture of chemical glass and \$15,000 for the manufacture of physical apparatus, \$60,000 to the Research Institute of Social Sciences

of Academia Sinica, \$96,000 to the National Geological Survey, and \$10,000 to the Golden Sea Research Institute of Chemical Industry for research in industrial chemistry.

Among educational and cultural organizations benefited by the American Indemnity Funds, the Society for Research in Chinese Architecture received a grant of \$13,000; Chinese Medical Association, \$5,000; Kweichow Provincial Institute of Science, \$60,000; and China Institute in America, US \$6,000 for maintenance and another US \$19,000 for training automotive engineers.

Grants made by the Foundation for the years 1939-40, 1940-41 and 1941-42 are shown in the accompanying tables:

STATEMENT SHOWING APPROPRIATIONS EFFECTIVE FOR FISCAL YEAR 1939-40 AND PAYMENTS
ACTUALLY MADE THEREON DURING FISCAL YEAR 1939-40

APPROPRIATIONS PASSED BY BOARD OF TRUSTEES

Recipient	Appropriation	Payment	Amount Reserved
I—DIRECT ENTERPRISES			
1. National Geological Survey (soil survey)	NC \$50,000.00	NC \$46,200.00	NC \$3,800.00
2. Committee on Editing and Translation	28,800.00	28,800.00	
3. Scientific Research Professorships— In Chinese Dollars	37,000.00	37,000.00	
In US Dollars	US \$900.00	US \$900.00	
4. Scientific Research Fellowships and Prizes and Committee on Examination— In Chinese Dollars (amount awarded—NC \$11,000.00)	NC \$10,000.00	NC \$10,946.06	53.94
In US Dollars (amount awarded—US \$17,600.00)	US \$20,000.00	US \$14,000.00	US \$600.00
5. China Institute in America (training in America of Chinese students for motor transportation and motor roads)	15,000.00	12,041.36	2,958.64
	NC \$125,800.00	NC \$122,946.06	NC \$3,853.94
	US \$35,900.00	US \$26,941.36	US \$3,558.64
II—JOINT ENTERPRISES			
1. National Library of Peiping— For maintenance	NC \$135,000.00	NC \$135,000.00	
For purchase of Chinese books	5,000.00	5,000.00	
For purchase of Foreign books (appropriated US \$ but paid in NC \$ @ 6.25— US \$8,000.00)	50,000.00	50,000.00	
2. Fan Memorial Institute of Biology— For Institute itself	80,000.00	57,912.26*	
For Lushan Botanical Garden and Arboretum	10,000.00	10,000.00	
	NC \$280,000.00	NC \$257,912.26	

Recipient	Appropriation	Payment	Amount Reserved
III—OTHER INSTITUTIONS.			
1. National Geological Survey (field work)	NC\$96,000.00	NC\$88,000.00	NC\$8,000.00
2. Biological Laboratory, Science Society of China	60,000.00	46,200.00	8,800.00
3. Boone Library School	15,000.00	13,750.00	1,250.00
4. College of Medicine, National Central University— Appropriated in NC\$ Appropriated in US\$ but paid in NC\$ @ 6.25 (US \$8,000.00)	NC\$35,900.00 60,000.00		
5. United Hospital of the Associated Universities in Chengtu— Appropriated in NC\$ Appropriated in US\$ but paid in NC\$ @ 6.25 (US \$1,000.00)	NC\$ 8,700.00 6,250.00	78,100.00	7,800.00
6. University of Nanking— Appropriated in NC\$ Appropriated in US\$ but paid in NC\$ @ 6.25 (US \$1,000.00)	NC\$ 7,000.00 6,250.00	13,200.00	1,750.00
7. West China Union University— Appropriated in NC\$ Appropriated in US\$ but paid in NC\$ @ 6.25 (US \$4,000.00)	NC\$ 8,000.00 25,000.00	12,100.00	1,150.00
8. Golden Sea Research Institute of Chemical Industries			2,750.00
9. National Kwei yang Medical College— Appropriated in NC\$ Appropriated in US\$ but paid in NC\$ @ 6.25 (US \$8,000.00)	NC\$100,000.00 60,000.00	30,250.00 8,800.00	1,200.00
10. Science Laboratory of Kweichow Province	150,000.00	125,000.00	25,000.00
11. Institute of Social Sciences, Academia Sinica	60,000.00	50,000.00	10,000.00
12. Society for Research in Chinese Architecture	60,000.00	60,000.00	
13. National Yunnan University— Appropriated in NC\$ Appropriated in US\$ but paid in NC\$ @ 6.25 (US \$15,000.00)	13,000.00 143,750.00	13,000.00 130,900.00	
14. Academia Sinica— For chemical glass experimental factory For making physical instruments	30,000.00 15,000.00	30,000.00 15,000.00	
15. Botanical Institute, National Sun Yat-sen University	8,000.00	8,000.00	
16. Yenching University	15,000.00	15,000.00	
17. Fudan University of Peiping	10,000.00	10,000.00	
18. Chinese Medical Association	5,000.00	5,000.00	
19. Medical School, St. John's University	7,500.00	7,500.00	
20. China Institute in America	US \$6,000.00	US \$6,000.00	
21. Emergency Committee for Far Eastern Students in America	5,000.00	5,000.00	
	NC\$835,350.00 US \$11,000.00	NC\$759,800.00 US \$11,000.00	NC\$75,550.00 US \$...
Total	NC\$1,241,150.00 US \$46,900.00	NC\$1,140,638.32 US \$37,941.36	NC\$79,403.94 US \$3,558.64

* Less NC\$22,087.74 paid out of income of the Endowment Fund of Fan Memorial Institute of Biology

APPROPRIATIONS PASSED BY EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

Recipient	Appropriation	Payment	Amount Reserved
1. Ministry of Education	NC \$30,000.00		NC \$30,000.00
2. C. Z. Waung, Accountant of Director's Office of the Foundation	7,212.00	NC \$7,212.00	
3. National Kweiyang Medical College	8,200.00	8,200.00	
4. Hsiangya Medical College	10,000.00	5,000.00	5,000.00
5. National Shanghai Medical College	10,000.00	10,000.00	
6. S. M. Wang, Assistant Secretary of Director's Office of the Foundation	3,500.00	3,500.00	
7. Fan Memorial Institute of Biology	3,000.00	3,000.00	
8. Huachung College	5,000.00	5,000.00	
9. Lingnan University	5,000.00	5,000.00	
10. C. F. Wu, Yenching University	2,000.00	2,000.00	3.16
11. China Foundation Staff Welfare Fund Account	30.68	27.52	
12. China Foundation Staff Welfare Fund Account	US \$248.35	US \$106.79	US \$141.56
13. China Institute in America (training in America of Chinese students for motor transportation and motor roads)	4,000.00	2,000.00	1,041.36
14. Fan-Hung, Dun Fwu-tang and Liu Hung-wan @ US \$100.00 each	300.00	300.00	
Total	NC \$89,942.68 US \$4,648.35	NC \$48,939.52 US \$2,406.79	NC \$35,003.16 US \$1,182.32

LIST OF GRANTS FOR 1940-41

	NC \$	US \$
Professorships	48,600	900
Fellowships	22,000	19,160
Research Institute of Social Sciences, Academia Sinica	60,000	
Committee on Editing and Translation	29,600	
Soil Survey (entrusted to the National Geological Survey)	50,000	
National Library of Peiping	210,000	
Fan Memorial Institute of Biology	128,000	
China Institute in America		6,000
Biological Laboratory, Science Society of China	50,000	
Golden Sea Research Institute of Chemical Industry	10,000	
Lingnan University	10,000	
National Central University College of Medicine	90,000	
National Geological Survey	96,000	
National Yunnan University	144,000	
University of Nanking, plant pathology work	7,000	
West China Union University	40,000	
Boone Library School	22,000	
Chinese Medical Association	5,000	
Society for Research in Chinese Architecture	15,000	
National Szechwan University, chemical engineering work	12,000	
National Peking University	50,000	
National Kweiyang Medical College	80,000	
Fujen University of Peiping	24,000	
Academia Sinica, for glass factory	15,000	
Botanical Institute, National Sun Yat-sen University	10,000	
Training automotive engineers in U.S.A.	...	12,000
Chengtu Union Hospital	20,000	
National Hsiangya Medical College	10,000	
Medical School, St. John's University	7,500	
Kweichow Science Institute	10,000	
TOTAL	<u>1,275,700</u>	<u>38,060</u>

LIST OF GRANTS FOR 1941-42

	NC. \$	US. \$
Professorships	52,200	900
Fellowships ...	25,000	18,000
Research Institute of Social Sciences, Academia Sinica	60,000	
Committee on Editing and Translation	31,800	
Soil Survey (entrusted to the National Geological Survey)	100,000	
National Library of Peiping	225,000	
Fan Memorial Institute of Biology	140,000	
China Institute in America		6,000
Biological Laboratory, Science Society of China	60,000	
Golden Sea Research Institute of Chemical Industry	10,000	
Lingnan University	15,000	
National Central University College of Medicine	90,000	
National Geological Survey	96,000	
National Yunnan University	140,000	
University of Nanking	15,000	
West China Union University	50,000	
Boone Library School	49,000	
Chinese Medical Association	5,000	
Society for Research in Chinese Architecture	20,000	
National Szechwan University, chemical engineering work	10,000	
National Peking University	50,000	
National Kweiyang Medical College	42,000	
Botanical Institute, National Sun Yat-sen University	15,000	
Automotive engineering ...		12,000
Kweichow Science Institute	45,000	
Commission for the Observation of Solar Eclipses	10,000	
National Hsiangya Medical College	20,000	
Medical School, St. John's University	15,000	
National Association of Vocational Education	15,000	
TOTAL ...	<u>1,406,000</u>	<u>36,900</u>

At the second meeting of the Emergency Committee of the Board of Directors held on June 30, 1942, in Chungking, the China Foundation for the Promotion of Culture and Education decided to give more than \$3,000,000 as grants to various cultural and educational institutions. Presided over by Dr. Wong Wen-hao, the meeting was also attended by Mr. Ku Yu-hsiu, Vice-Minister of Education, and Mr. John S. Service, representing United States Ambassador Mr. Clarence E. Gauss.

The major part of the grants were designated for the following purposes:—

Research Professorship (six persons)	\$132,000
Subsidy for scientific research (30 persons)	\$200,000
Soil Survey	\$180,000
Subsidy to the Kunming Office of the National Library of Peiping	\$120,000
Subsidy to the Fan Memorial Research Institute of Biology	\$200,000
Subsidy for reprinting British and American magazines on technical subjects	\$100,000
Subsidy to the Institute of Social Sciences of the Academia Sinica	\$100,000
Subsidy to the Medical College of the National Central University	\$120,000
Subsidy to the Metallurgical Department of the National Yunnan University	\$200,000
Subsidy to the National Geological Survey	\$174,000

Smaller sums were to be extended to 15 other institutions, including the Dental School of the West China Union University, the School of Agriculture of University of Nanking, the Boone Library School, the Medical College of Cheeloo University, the Hsiangya (Yale-in-China) Medical College, and the Botanical Research Institute of the Chinese Science Society.

Subsidies were also to be given to academical publications to enable them to continue despite the increasing cost of printing. Organizations receiving such appropriations are:—

Institute of History and Philology of the Academia Sinica	\$50,000
Institute of Geology of the Academia Sinica	\$30,000

Department of Geology of the National Peking University ...	\$40,000
National Geological Society	\$30,000

SINO-BRITISH COOPERATION FOR PROMOTION OF EDUCATION

A total of \$18,000,000 in round figures out of British Indemnity remissions was spent for the advancement of education and culture in China during the seven-year period ending in 1941, according to a report recently released by the Board of Trustees for the Administration of the British Indemnity Fund. The amount was derived from interest, receipts from loans made by the Board to productive enterprises.

The remission of the British portion of the Boxer Indemnity dates back to December, 1922, when the British Government declared that all future payments of the Indemnity to Great Britain would be returned to China to be used for purposes beneficial to both countries. From then, instalments paid by the Chinese Government were deposited in the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, London. There was an election of a new Parliament, and nothing further was done until 1925 when Parliament passed the China Indemnity Act and appointed an Advisory Committee consisting of eleven members, three of whom were Chinese, Dr. Hu Shih, Dr. V. K. Ting (deceased) and Dr. C. C. Wang, whose principal task was to study how the money might best be utilized.

The committee sent a delegation to China to investigate conditions and actual needs. The result of the investigation was submitted in a report to the British Foreign Office, and among the recommendations was one calling for the establishment of an organization for the administration of the funds. This led to the establishment in April, 1931, of the Board of Trustees for the Administration of the British Indemnity Fund. This Board is under the direct administration of the Executive Yuan with five British and ten Chinese trustees all appointed by the National Government. Dr. Chu Chia-hua is now the chairman.

In 1930, notes were exchanged between Dr. C. T. Wang, then Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Sir Miles Lampson, then British Minister to China. The notes made two important provisions besides that of the organization for the administration of the funds, namely, that the

entire amount of the funds remitted by the British Government was to form a foundation, from which loans were to be made for construction or rehabilitation of railways and for promotion of other productive enterprises, the interest receipts from such loans to be used for the benefit of educational and cultural enterprises; and that a purchasing commission was to be established, and all foreign materials required under loans from the foundation for railways and other productive enterprises were to be purchased in England through the commission. The Chinese Government Purchasing Commission was duly organized in May, 1931, consisting of six members with the Chinese diplomatic representative in London as chairman ex-officio, another Chinese member representing the Ministry of Communications and four British members recommended by the British Foreign Office to the Board for appointment by the National Government.

The total amount of indemnity funds remitted by the British Government is £11,180,000 in round figures, of which about £4,000,000 represents deposits accumulated at the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation from December, 1922 to April, 1931, and about £7,000,000 represents the indemnity instalments payable by the Chinese Government between April, 1931 and 1945. From the accumulated deposits, £465,000 was donated to the Hongkong University, the Universities' China Committee in London and certain other organizations, in accordance with stipulations made in the exchange of notes; the balance of £3,500,000 was entrusted to the Purchasing Commission to be used for purchase of materials.

As to the monthly instalments payable from April, 1931, totalling about £7,000,000 it was specified that one half was to be paid to the Board and the other half to the Purchasing Commission to supplement the accumulated funds for purchase of materials. Payment of these monthly instalments, however, ended at the end of 1938 when the Ministry of Finance announced, with the approval of the British Government, a moratorium due to the seizure of the customs along the coast by the Japanese.

The total amount of indemnity funds received by the Board from its inception in 1931 to the end of 1938 was £7,369,000 in round figures, almost two-thirds of the amount of the British remission.

Except for a small portion, all the money has been loaned to productive enterprises according to the quotas fixed, namely, two-thirds of the entire indemnity funds loanable to railways and of the remaining one third, 40 per cent, was allotted to the Hwai River Commission, 20 per cent to the Kwangtung Conservancy Commission and 40 per cent divided equally among the Yellow River Commission, basic industries and electric power enterprises. The rate of interest is five per cent per annum on all loans.

According to regulations drawn up by the Board governing the disposal of interest receipts for the benefit of educational and cultural enterprises, the funds are distributed among five classes. Class A is allotted 25 per cent of the annual receipts for the establishment of the Central Library and the Central Museum and conservation of historical and cultural sites and antiquities; Class B is allotted 25 per cent as grants-in-aid for higher education and research organizations with special attention to the four faculties: agriculture, engineering, medicine and pure sciences; Class C is allotted 15 per cent for educational and cultural activities abroad, laying special emphasis on sending scholarship students to England; Class D is allotted one per cent as prizes for technical manuscripts and textbooks for primary, middle and vocational schools; and Class E is allotted 24 per cent for the establishment of model primary and middle schools, industrial and agricultural vocational schools, midwifery schools and rural schools beginning with the border and other relatively backward provinces to extend gradually to other areas.

During recent years, since most of the capital funds so far remitted had been loaned out, the work of the Board consisted principally in collecting interest from the loans and disposing of it among educational and cultural enterprises. Calculated from the amount of capital loaned out, the interest receipts should be six or seven million dollars a year, which under normal conditions could be utilized to make considerable contributions to education and culture. But the greater part of interest cannot be collected on account of the war while prices have risen so that the work for the advancement of education and culture has been retarded.

For the four years prior to the outbreak of war, disposal of interest receipts was

entirely in accordance with the following classification:—

Under Class A over ten grants were made for conservation of cultural and historical sites and antiques. Of the latter, the most important is compilation and photo-engraving of Buddhistic writings found at Tunghuang. This is the least conservation work that can be done, since the greater part of these invaluable writings have become scattered and taken out of the country. Next in importance is the projected construction of the Central Museum and the Central Library, for which \$1,500,000 each was granted for construction of buildings payable over several years when the Board made its disposal of interest receipts. Prior to the evacuation of Nanking, construction had already been started on the Central Museum, and was about to begin on the Central Library, for which a suitable site had been procured. But for the war, both buildings would have long been completed. At the outset the idea had been to first build the Central Museum and the Central Library on an imposing scale at the National Capital, and then to build a museum and a library on a smaller scale at each of the provincial capitals and municipalities. The building of the Chungking Branch of the Central Library was constructed with a small part of the grant for the construction of the Central Library. The budget estimate was only about \$50,000, but the actual cost exceeded the amount owing to the increased cost of building materials. Under normal conditions an amount between \$50,000 and \$100,000 should suffice for the construction of a small museum or library, and a yearly grant of a million and twenty or thirty thousand dollars could build fifteen or sixteen such buildings at the average cost of \$80,000 each. Thus in two or three years, every important metropolis in the country would be provided with a museum and a library. The above project would most probably have been brought to completion had it not been for the war.

Grants made to higher education and research organizations under Class B may be divided into those for construction, for equipment and for professorships. So far, most institutions of higher education, whether national, provincial or private, have been subsidized by the Board, as have also the more important of the research organizations.

The sending of students to England under Class C is considered one of the

most important of the Board's activities. So, the scheme of holding annual scholarship examinations was inaugurated in the third year of the Board's establishment, one year earlier than the actual disposal of interest receipts. The object of this scheme is to train a number of specialists to help strengthen the faculty of institutions of higher learning. Up to the present 148 students have been sent in seven groups to specialize principally in the fields of science, agriculture, engineering and medicine. A hundred odd have already returned with excellent records of scholarship, and most of them have joined the faculties of the various universities, in accordance with the Board's expectations. The Eighth Annual Scholarship Examinations scheduled for 1940 were suspended when the European War assumed extensive proportions. As soon as conditions improve and permit sending of students to England again, the Board will continue to follow the original scheme.

Under Class D concerning textbooks, prizes were offered for textbooks for mass education, primary school singing and history, junior middle school history and geography, etc., but the manuscripts submitted were small in number and their content not especially remarkable. The chief difficulty seems to lie in the nature of the subject, and to produce a good song-book for the primary school pupils is especially no mean task.

Class E comprises a comparatively large number of enterprises. Recently the greater portion of grants under this class was used for special education in the five provinces: Hunan, Hupeh, Anhwei, Kiangsi and Fukien, owing to the urgent need for such work existing in these areas. At the same time, however, other projects under this class, such as training obstetricians, vocational education of agriculture and industries, primary school education in the interior, etc., were by no means neglected. For industrial vocational education the Board cooperated with the Ministry of Education and Nanking municipal government in establishing the Central Vocational School of Technology, assuming expenses for equipment. As for agricultural vocational education, two schools in Hunan were given grants. For the training of obstetricians, the Board passed grants from year to year to midwifery schools in fourteen provinces. Unfortunately, a few of the schools could not make use of the grants on

account of the war, and subsequently the money was diverted to other purposes. Most of the subsidy for primary and middle school education was given to the northwestern provinces, especially Kansu. Likewise, the several grants made to the Ministry of Education in aid of free education were allotted to that province in particular, in view of the fact that Kansu occupies a commanding position in the Northwest and offers a good working center.

Since the outbreak of the war, despite the difficulties caused by the diminished interest receipts, all activities of the Board have been maintained as far as possible and interest receipts disposed in accordance with the standards set for apportionment modified to suit the wartime requirements. These activities may be divided into the following categories:

First, the Board has contributed to conservation of cultural antiques in two ways: rescue of antiques and compilation and photo-engraving of Han manuscripts. The Han manuscripts found in Chuyen and Buddhist engravings in Tunghuang are among the nation's most valued discoveries. In the past the Northwest Science Expedition was prevented by various circumstances to complete the work of compilation. After the Lukouchiao incident of July 7, 1937, the manuscripts had been first shipped to Shanghai from Peiping and then to Hongkong, and were in danger of mutilation or loss during the considerable time spent since their disinternment in moving about over thousands of kilometers. Hence the work of compilation and photo-engraving could not be delayed any longer. The work was completed in the winter of 1941 when the results were published.

Following the outbreak of the war, books of both private and public libraries in the occupied areas have mostly become scattered, and not a few have been acquired by foreign collectors. Unless something was done in time, it would be necessary for future students of Chinese classics to go abroad for references. The Board, therefore, has made an arrangement with the Central Library jointly to undertake the purchase of old books.

Second, the Board started a scheme for subsidizing individual scientific workers. At the beginning of the war, there was unemployment among educational circles throughout the country. Professors of the universities in North China were faced with the problem of

subsistence when the institutions were closed, and many scientific workers of various organizations were released for reasons of financial retrenchment. Fresh graduates of universities were unable to find positions under such conditions. From the standpoint of education and technology, all these constituted an extremely grave problem. The Board tackled the problem in three ways: (1) Professorships were established in the universities in the interior to provide living expenses for teachers of North China, and at the same time to assist these universities in strengthening their faculties, (2) Subsidies were granted to unemployed scientific workers of various organizations, (3) Junior Research Fellowships were placed in various universities and research organizations for the benefit of recent college graduates who were interested in scientific research. All the three schemes are being continued, involving about thirty professors, over one hundred scientific workers and seventy junior research fellows.

Although this scheme was adopted to meet the exigencies of the war, plans had been laid long before, and it will be continued even after the war, for the aim is to give those who can accomplish, or who may be expected to accomplish, something in scientific research, subsidies for long terms or even for life, so that they may devote themselves to the pursuit of knowledge and the development of science in the country.

Third, since the war the Board has inaugurated several enterprises under its direct administration. At Tsunyi was established the China Institute of Sericulture and at Peipei near Chungking the China Institute of Geography. An institute of sericultural research had been established by the Chekiang provincial Government but was brought to a close by the war. As Szechwan and Kweichow provinces have been an important silk-producing area in the west, the Board decided to utilize the time when the war was in progress to make a scientific study of sericulture in West China as a basis for its future development. The Institute of Geography had been planned for by the Academia Sinica but lack of funds had delayed its establishment. The Board, being always interested in promoting the study of geography and geodesy, finally established the China Institute of Geography, and further intends to make separate institutes of Geodesy and Oceanography, which are

for the present incorporated as departments of the Institute of Geography. Other enterprises are the Kansu Science Education Institute at Lanchow, Hohsi Middle School at Suchow, Kansu, Huangchuan Middle School at Sining, Chinghai, and Chienkiang Middle School at Anshun, Kweichow. Two other schools are now under preparation—one to be in Paan, Sikang, and the other in Nanchiao, Yunnan. Though the above enterprises were handicapped by the limited interest receipts of the recent years, the Board has exerted its utmost to carry out all the plans previously adopted regardless of difficulties, especially as the Government is actively promoting construction of the West, the Northwest and the Southwest. In 1939, the Board sent out the Szechwan-Sikang Science Expedition which made a scientific survey of western and northern parts of Szechwan and the eastern and central parts of Sikang.

INTERNATIONAL CULTURAL SERVICE

In the field of cultural exchange between China and the West, considerable contributions have been made by the International Cultural Service, a recently-established organization in charge of a committee of Chinese scholars and administrators in Chungking appointed by the Ministry of Education. Outstanding among its achievements has been the program of bringing in publications from the United States and England on microfilm. The following announcement about this program was recently made by Dr. T. L. Yuan, Director of the National Library of Peiping and Executive Secretary of the International Cultural Service.

"Since the outbreak of the Pacific War, China has been cut off from the intellectual world of the West, and because of their weight, books and magazines from abroad have not been transported into the country. A solution has now been found, however, by the use of microfilm. Some time ago a program for the bringing in of periodicals from the United States on microfilm was initiated by the China Foundation for the Promotion of Education and Culture, and about the same time a program for the production and shipment of such microfilms was inaugurated by the Cultural Relations Division of the Department of State in Washington. These programs have now been combined as a joint enterprise under the direction of the International Cultural Service of China, a committee

of Chinese scholars and administrators in Chungking appointed by the Ministry of Education.

"The use of microfilm to solve the transportation problem into China has never before been tried on so large a scale. For several years past the possibilities of microfilm have been explored by certain libraries in the United States, and by using non-inflammable safety film of the ordinary moving picture size, librarians found that they could store enormous volumes of old and perhaps unused records and newspaper files in a relatively compact and permanent form, thus saving a great deal of space in over-crowded archives and book-stacks. Microfilm was also found to be most useful in the reading of rare books or manuscripts. A scholar whose library lacked a certain rare volume could write to the library which possessed it, and obtain a microfilm copy for his own use at very little cost, and without making a trip to see the original work. Thus many rare books and inaccessible newspaper files have been copied and stored on microfilm in the leading libraries.

"More recently the outbreak of the war has led to the microfilming of a great number of books in the British Museum, copies on film being taken for safety to the United States, while many of the most treasured Chinese rare books have been copied on microfilm in the Library of Congress, Washington, D.C. Now the war has created a new use for microfilm, and Chinese universities and research workers are beginning to be supplied with publications from the United States and soon, it is hoped, from England. By reducing the weight of the published materials and putting 1,600 pages reading matter on to 100 feet of film which weighs less than one pound, it is now possible to span the gap of ten thousand miles between the Western publisher and the Chinese reader and bring books to China by airplane.

"This new program is a cooperative one in every sense of the word. Microfilms to be sent from the United States are produced at the Library of Congress in Washington under the direction of the Department of State and sent to the American Embassy in Chungking, whence they go to the Chinese committee which is now known as the International Cultural Service of China. Its members, appointed by the Ministry of Education, are as follows:

"Dr. Y. H. Ku, Vice-Minister of Education, Chairman; Dr. H. C. Zen, Director of the China Foundation, Vice-Chairman; Dr. T. L. Yuan, Director of the National Library of Peiping, Executive Secretary; Dr. Yeh Chi-sun, Secretary-general of the Academia Sinica, Treasurer; Dr. T. F. Tsiang, Director of the Political Department of the Executive Yuan; Dr. Han Lih-wu, Secretary-general of the Board of Trustees for the Administration of the British Indemnity Funds; Dr. Chen Ko-chung, Director of the National Bureau of Compilation and Translation; Dr. Wu Tsun-sheng, Director of the Department of Higher Education of the Ministry of Education; Mr. Liu Chi-hung, Director of the Department of Social Education; Dr. Wei Hsueh-jen, Dean, College of Science, University of Nanking; and Mr. Chiang Fu-tung, Director of the National Central Library; Mr. O. E. Clubb, Second Secretary, and Dr. J. K. Fairbank of Harvard University, Special Assistant to the American Ambassador,

who are cooperating with the committee on behalf of the Embassy.

"Under the direction of Dean Wei Hsueh-jen, a simplified and improved type of reading projector has been made locally and will be produced in quantity. Two reading libraries have been opened, and others are planned in Chengtu, Kunming, and other centers. Over 210 items have already been received on microfilm from Washington, D.C.

"The Central Microfilm Library is housed on the third floor, College of Science, University of Nanking, Chiu-ching Middle School. It is open from 2 to 5 p.m. on week days and in the morning by special arrangement. A branch library is being opened at the university center at Sha Ping Pa. Another one will soon be opened at the National Central Library.

"The office of the International Cultural Service of China is situated in room 5, second floor, Chiu-ching Middle School Administration Building."

APPENDIX

TABLE I—PROPERTY LOSSES OF MIDDLE SCHOOLS, PRIMARY SCHOOLS
AND INSTITUTIONS OF SOCIAL EDUCATION IN THE WAR AREAS
(UP TO THE END OF DECEMBER, 1940)

Localities	Losses
Chekiang	\$ 3,972,775
Kiangsi	397,274
Hupei	553,510
Szechwan	106,467
Kwangsi	632,300
Yunnan	91,000
Shansi	1,303,052
Shensi	44,220
Fukien	1,790,300
Kiangsu	43,479,398
Anhwei	9,063,760
Hunan	19,616,015
Kwangtung	6,362,464
Hopei	22,775,264
Shantung	44,146,957
Honan	12,992,782
Chahar	2,447,905
Suiyuan	994,748
Nanking	5,246,915
Shanghai	8,704,882
Peiping	13,128,308
Tientsin	7,164,051
Tsingtao	2,920,469
Weihaiwei	756,022
TOTAL	\$ 208,690,838

TABLE II
RELIEF FOR COLLEGE TEACHERS AND STUDENTS FROM THE WAR AREAS
(UP TO SEPTEMBER, 1942)

A—TEACHERS AND STAFF

(1) *Classified according to Courses*

(2) *Classified according to Work*

Course	Number of Persons	Work Assigned	Number of Persons
Arts (Arts, Law, Commerce, Education)	348	Tentative research work in translation, compilation and supervision	558
Scientific Studies (Pure Science, Engineering, Medicine, Agriculture)	235	Registered college teachers	33
Others	61	In cultural institutions and administrative organizations	
		Local educational assistance and guidance	7
		Social education work	8
		Others	38
Total	644	Total	644

B—STUDENTS

Kind of Activity	Number of Students
Sent to study in existing colleges or as guest students	5,565
Sent to the wartime service training corps	480
Total	6,045

TABLE III
RELIEF FOR STUDENTS STUDYING ABROAD
(Up to September, 1942)

Country	Given Living Allowance	Given Return Passage Fee	Total
Great Britain	38	38	76
Germany	62	147	209
United States	83	118	201
France	15	106	121
Egypt		28	28
Turkey		1	1
Japan		1	1
Italy	2	5	7
Switzerland	5	5	10
Canada		1	1
Belgium	9	10	19
India		1	1
Denmark		1	1
Total	214	462	676

TABLE IV
RELIEF FOR RETURNED STUDENTS
(Up to September, 1942)

Work Assignment	Number of Students
Sent to institutions of higher learning or research	24
Sent to Middle Schools	2
Sent to do compilation work	143
Sent to provincial administrative offices	34
Sent to universities	22
Total	225

TABLE V
RELIEF FOR MIDDLE SCHOOL STUDENTS FROM THE WAR AREAS
(September, 1942)

Category	Number of Students
Students already enrolled in national middle schools	38,290
Students already enlisted in the Sikang Student Camps	60
Students registered by the Third Teachers' Service Corps and sent to study in the various schools	3,218
Students registered by the Chungking Bureau of Guidance for Students from War Zones and sent to study in various schools (not including those sent to the national middle schools and to continuation classes)	789
Students registered and distributed to various schools as guest students by provincial education bureaus	8,796
Students registered in Kunming and sent to various schools	228
Students registered in Hongkong and sent to various schools	389
Total	51,770

TABLE VI
RELIEF FOR TEACHERS AND STAFF OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY
SCHOOLS FROM THE WAR AREAS
 (Up to September, 1942)

Work Assigned	Teachers and Staff of Middle Schools	Teachers and Staff of Primary Schools	Administrative Educational Personnel	Total
In National Middle Schools	1,825			1,825
In Primary and Secondary Teachers' Service Corps*	752	1,550		2,302
In Provincial Schools	3,537	8,336	66	11,939
In other educational institutions	8	228		236
Registered teachers and compilers	86	45		131

* The figures for teachers and staff and the enrolment in the Teachers' Service Corps are of December, 1940.

TABLE VII
RELIEF FOR SOCIAL EDUCATION WORKERS
 (Up to September, 1942)

Distribution	Number
Social Education Workers' Corps	1,028
Circuit Theaters	92
Circuit Carts	5
Experimental Circuit Singing Corps	
Social Workers sent to bureaus of education, provincial and municipal	928
Total	2,053

CHAPTER XI

INDUSTRY AND LABOR

INDUSTRIAL POLICY AND ADMINISTRATION

I. Wartime Industrial Policy.—China's wartime economic reconstruction aims at meeting military needs and improving the people's livelihood. It has been proceeding along four main lines, namely, the development of the interior, the gradual attainment of self-sufficiency in the production of both military and non-military materials, the promotion of economic enterprises, and the introduction of a planned economy in the construction of a permanent economic order.

Based on principles laid down in the *Program of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction*, China's wartime industrial policy provides: (1) the achievement of self-sufficiency in the production of national defense materials in the shortest possible time, (2) the maintenance of factories producing articles of military and daily use, (3) assistance in the removal of such factories in the first stages of hostilities from coastal regions and later from places in or close to the war areas, (4) promotion of the establishment of new factories producing articles of military and daily use, (5) financial and technical assistance to such factories, and (6) prohibition of labor strikes, lockouts, etc.

II. Industrial Administration.—The highest organ in charge of economic affairs in China is the Ministry of Economic Affairs. According to its organic law, the Ministry is responsible for the direction and supervision of the execution of matters pertaining to economic affairs by the authorities in the various strata of local government. It has the power to suspend or countermand any order or disposition of a local government concerning economic affairs if such order or disposition is regarded by the Ministry as contrary to existing laws or regulations, or as having exceeded the powers granted to the local authorities.

Among the departments under the Ministry of Economic Affairs is the department of industry, which is in charge of: (1) matters pertaining to the

planning and control of state-owned industries, (2) matters pertaining to the protection, promotion, direction and supervision of private industries, (3) matters pertaining to the collection, experimentation and examination of manufactured goods, (4) matters pertaining to the granting of patents and licenses, (5) matters pertaining to the testing and promotion of native products, (6) matters pertaining to the registration and examination of factories, (7) matters pertaining to the registration and examination of industrial technicians, (8) matters pertaining to the registration and supervision of industrial or labor organizations, (9) matters pertaining to industrial standardization, (10) matters pertaining to the manufacture, examination and promotion of tools for weights and measures, (11) matters pertaining to industrial investigation, and (12) other matters pertaining to industrial administration.

The National Resources Commission and the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration are the two subsidiary organs of the Ministry of Economic Affairs in charge of state-owned and private industries, respectively. Both organs are now headed by the Minister of Economic Affairs.

The National Resources Commission came into existence in April, 1935, as a result of the reorganization of the National Defense Planning Committee. The National Defense Planning Committee was founded in November, 1932, under the National Military Council. Its function was to investigate the nation's natural resources and to formulate policies pertaining to national defense. After its reorganization, it was renamed the National Resources Commission and put under the National Military Council. It was placed under the Ministry of Economic Affairs when the latter was inaugurated in January, 1938. According to its organic law, the functions of the Commission are:

- (1) To develop, operate and control basic industries;
- (2) To develop, operate and control important mining enterprises;

- (3) To develop, operate and control electrical power enterprises ; and
- (4) To administer other enterprises as designated by the Government.

The National Resources Commission is composed of the following units : (1) department of industry, (2) department of mining enterprises, (3) department of electrical enterprises, (4) technical division, (5) economic research division, and (6) purchasing division. It controls a number of subsidiary organs.

The Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration was reorganized from the Industrial and Mining Readjustment Commission of the National Military Council in March, 1938, shortly after the creation of the Ministry of Economic Affairs. It comprises three departments and a number of other units. The more important ones are its departments of field work and finance. The former is in charge of : (1) the removal of equipment of industrial and mining enterprises, (2) the readjustment of the supply and demand of electric power, (3) the assistance to the development of industrial and mining enterprises, (4) the supervision and co-ordination of co-operation and mutual aid among private industrial and mining enterprises, (5) the recruiting and training of industrial and mining personnel, (6) the planning, examination, inspection, direction and supervision of industrial and mining readjustments, and (7) the settlement of industrial disputes. The finance department is in charge of matters pertaining to capital, loans and investment for industrial and mining development.

The development of state-owned enterprises is limited to the following categories :

- (1) Those enterprises relating to national defense ;
- (2) Those enterprises which require large-scale equipment which private interests are not in a position to undertake ;
- (3) Those enterprises which require wholesale planning and control ;
- (4) Those enterprises which are urgently needed but do not produce a profit or are less remunerative ;
- (5) Those enterprises which supply power and fuel for the development of industries ; and
- (6) Those enterprises specially designated by the Government.

These principles aim at the development of heavy industries and mines which are essential to the prosecution of the war and the industrialization of the country. The Government does not neglect, however, private interests in the course of the economic development of the interior. As a matter of fact, encouragement and assistance are given to private enterprises. Important laws and regulations governing wartime industries include :

- (1) *Regulations Governing the Control of Agricultural, Mining, Industrial and Commercial Enterprises in Time of Emergency*, promulgated in October, 1938.
- (2) *Regulations Governing the Encouragement of and Assistance to Industrial and Mining Enterprises in Time of Emergency*, promulgated in December, 1938, and revised in December, 1941.
- (3) *Law Governing the Encouragement and Promotion of Industries*, promulgated in April, 1934, and revised in June, 1938.
- (4) *Provisional Regulations Governing the Encouragement of and Assistance to Industrial Techniques*, promulgated in September, 1932, and revised in January, 1941.
- (5) *Supplementary Regulations Governing the Encouragement of and Assistance to Industrial Techniques*, promulgated in November, 1940.
- (6) *Regulations Governing the Encouragement of the Inflow of Capital for the Development of Industries*, promulgated in November, 1941.
- (7) *Regulations Governing the Encouragement of and Assistance to Investments from Overseas Chinese for the Development of Economic Enterprises*, promulgated in November, 1938, and revised in May, 1939.
- (8) *Provisional Regulations Governing the Granting of Small Industrial Loans*, promulgated in February, 1939, and revised in September, 1942.

In 1942, the Ministry of Economic Affairs promulgated a set of regulations governing wartime economic administration as a step to meet the changed situation following the outbreak of the

Pacific War in December, 1941. Stipulations relating to industrial development include: (1) increase of production for both military and non-military uses, (2) increase of fuel production, (3) further development of the electric power industry, and (4) control of industrial materials.

III. Provincial Industries.—Various provinces have set up all kinds of factories and promote the establishment of private ones to meet local needs. Fourteen of them have established provincial development corporations to undertake programs of developing provincial enterprises.

Up to August, 1942, 110 factories had been established by provincial governments. Their distribution was as follows: Kweichow 24, Hunan 20, Sikang 2, Kiangsi 20, Chekiang 6, Kwangtung 11, Shensi 6, Fukien 6, Honan 1, Shansi 11, Kansu 3. More are being set up.

The Ministry of Economic Affairs constantly directs and supervises the development of provincial enterprises. It has promulgated a set of regulations governing the direction and supervision of provincial industrial and mining development. These regulations stipulate:

1. Principles:

- (a) Important industrial and mining enterprises relating to national defense should be undertaken by the Central Government.
- (b) Private interests should not be infringed upon in undertaking provincial enterprises.
- (c) Emphasis should be given to inter-provincial trade.

2. The enterprises are confined to:

- (a) Processing, marketing and supply of local products,
- (b) Commodities relating to the people's livelihood, and
- (c) Goods for inter-provincial trade.

3. Provincial enterprises are prohibited from engaging in:

- (a) Monopolies without special permission from the Central Government,
- (b) Purchases without a mandate from the Central Government of those commodities which the Central Government has been purchasing,
- (c) Price and commodity control, and
- (d) Retail business.

4. The following activities are also prohibited:

- (a) Lowering the prices for purchasing commodities in such a way as to affect the producers' legitimate interests,
- (b) Raising the selling prices so as to affect the local market,
- (c) Intervening or hindering legitimate business of other business enterprises, and
- (d) Other illegal activities.

5. Provincial enterprises should be entirely independent. The management of these enterprises should be separated from the ordinary administrative work of the provincial governments. Private capital may be solicited.

STATE-OWNED INDUSTRIES

The development of state-owned industries is placed in the hands of the National Resources Commission, which controlled 98 industrial plants in 1942.

China's heavy industry program was mapped out in 1936, with the southwestern provinces as the base for industrial development. Planned action began in July, 1936, when a 3-year plan was adopted for the establishment of mining and manufacturing enterprises in the three central provinces of Hupeh, Hunan and Kiangsi. These establishments were either under construction or still in a preparatory stage when the Sino-Japanese war broke out in 1937. The central provinces soon felt the menace of war, and the construction work there had to be either suspended or removed to Szechwan, Kwangsi and Yunnan. New enterprises had also to be set up in the interior. The National Resources Commission was confronted with insurmountable difficulties in the removal of these plants into the interior and in the construction of new ones. The situation was afterwards aggravated in consequence of the Japanese blockade of the seacoast. All imported machinery and materials had to come into China through French Indo-China, later through Burma, and now only by aerial transportation from India to Kunming. Means of transportation of such supplies as machines, tools and building materials, and skilled labor were comparatively deficient in the western provinces. In spite of all these difficulties and handicaps, the Commission has attained substantial success in its program.

The progress made regarding the creation of new enterprises may be seen in the following table:

TABLE 1.—THE DEVELOPMENT OF HEAVY INDUSTRIES IN CHINA (1936-100)

Year	New Factories	Percentage Increase
1936	16	100
1937	42	262
1938	53	331
1939	54	337
1940	55	343
1941	78	487
1942	98	612

The number of industrial plants has been increased six times in six years, while the increase of production has also been remarkable.

Statistics show that the production from January to June, 1942, registered a general increase over the same period in 1941. The 1941 figure was also higher than that of 1940. Production figures in the first half of 1942 cannot be taken as a basis for estimating the production of the whole year, which may be more than double the first half-year's figure.

The following is a review of the main industries undertaken by the National Resources Commission:—

I. Electrical Power.—The development of electrical power industries in the interior aims at: (1) laying the foundation of electrical power industry in the interior, (2) helping in the industrialization of the interior, and (3) developing hydraulic power enterprises.

The National Resources Commission now controls 20 power stations, distributed in important industrial centers in Szechwan, Kweichow, Yunnan, Kwangsi, Sikang, Hunan, Chekiang, Shensi, Kansu and Chinghai. Fourteen of them are already operating. In the southwestern provinces, hydraulic power is abundant and is being thoroughly investigated and developed. A hydraulic power survey has been created to carry on the work of two hydro-electric power projects: one at Lungchiho and the other at Shantuho, both in Szechwan. Other projects are being developed in Yunnan, Kweichow and Szechwan.

The 14 power plants now operating were generating 13,400 kilowatts at the end of 1941. The output was scheduled to be increased by 10,000 kilowatts by the end of 1942.

The following table shows the percentage increase of output of some of the plants:

TABLE 2.—PERCENTAGE INCREASE OF THE OUTPUT OF 13 STATE-OWNED POWER PLANTS (1940-100)

NAME OF PLANT	1941	1942
Lungchiho Hydraulic Power Plant	100	552
Minkiang Power Plant	226	530
Tzeliutsing Power Plant	1,120	2,226
Ipin Power Plant	656	976
Wanh sien Hydraulic Power Plant	102	109
Kunhu Power Plant (Yunnan)	246	247
Kweiyang Power Plant	111	125
West Hunan Power Plant	122	154
Sian Power Plant	90	81
Paoki Branch, Sian Power Plant	265	323
Lanchow Power Plant	144	198
Hanchung Power Plant	155	169
East Chekiang Power Plant	96	83
TOTAL	160	219

A program for the creation of electrical networks has been adopted by the National Resources Commission. Preliminary work has been started in the Kunming, Tzeliutsing and Minkiang areas, and will be extended to eastern Szechwan, western Szechwan and Central Hunan.

The six plants which have not yet begun operation are: Luhsien, Central Hunan, Liuchow, Tienshui and Sichang power plants and the Sikang Hydraulic Power Plant.

II. Metallurgy.—The National Resources Commission controls eight iron and steel factories, namely, the Tze Yu Steel Works, the Iron and Steel Removal and Re-erection Commission, the Wei Yuan Iron Works, the Ling Kiang Iron Foundry, the Yunnan Iron and Steel Works, the Kiangsi Iron Refinery, the Electric Refining Plant, and the Tze Ho Iron Works.

The 100-ton iron blast furnace and the 1.5-ton electric furnace belonging to the Iron and Steel Removal and Re-erection Commission have been operating since November, 1941. Four other blast furnaces will soon begin operation. This Commission is under the joint control of the National Resources Commission and the Ministry of Military affairs. It possesses the essential part of the Hanyang Iron Works, formerly in Hanyang, Hupeh, and now reinstalled in Chungking, weighing about forty thousand tons of machinery and materials.

The Wei Yuan Iron Works was scheduled to be completed by the end of 1942. The Tze Ho Iron Works' 15-ton blast furnace was nearing completion at the end of 1942.

The Tze Yu Steel Foundry and the Ling Kiang Iron Foundry were both scheduled to begin production in 1942, while the Yunnan Iron and Steel Works began operation in the spring of 1943. The construction of the Electric Refining Plant was completed in May, 1943.

Two electrolytic copper refineries are in operation, one in Chungking and one in Kunming. The one in Chungking treats crude metal from northwestern Szechwan and Sikang and produces copper of 99.95 per cent purity mainly for military use. The Yunnan copper refinery treats northern Yunnan copper.

China's metallurgical industry is still young. Large-scale production begins in 1943, particularly of iron and steel. The production of pig iron in 1941 was increased by 45 per cent over 1940, while the production in 1942 was increased by three and a half times as compared with 1941 and seven times as compared with 1940.

III. Machinery.—The most important machine making factory under the control of the National Resources Commission is the Central Machine Works, which was first located in Hunan and later moved to Kunming. It produces turbo-generator sets, boiler plants, gas engines, gas producers, machine tools, textile machines, and engines and parts of vehicles, totalling 120 kinds. Other tools such as gear cutters and tooth wheels produced by this factory are by far the best ever produced in China. It is also engaged in manufacturing various kinds of machines. A branch factory of the Central Machine Works in Ipin, Szechwan, has been operating since November, 1941.

Machine works have been established in Kansu, Kwangtung, and Kiangsi. The one in Lanchow is expected to play an important role in the development of the Northwest.

The increase of machinery production may be seen in the following table:

**TABLE 3.—PERCENTAGE INCREASE
OF MACHINERY PRODUCTION
(1939=100)**

Kinds	1940	1941	1942
Prime movers	2020	2851	3678
Machine tools	205	180	380

IV. Electrical Manufacturing.—Of the electrical manufacturing factories the National Resources Commission has opened, the Central Electrical Manufacturing Works is the most important. It has four different factories, namely,

the wire and cable factory, the vacuum tube and lamp bulb factory, the telephone factory, and the power machinery factory. They are located in Kunming and Kweilin. Branch factories have also been established in Chungking and Lanchow. The products of these factories consist of copper wire, galvanized iron wire, cables, vacuum tubes, lamp bulbs, military and ordinary telephone sets, telephone switchboards, motors, generators, transformers, switch-gears, batteries, and dry cells. A major portion of these products are for the use of the Ministries of Military Affairs and Communications.

The Central Radio Manufacturing Works, located in Kweilin with branch factories in Chungking and Kunming, manufactures radio materials. Since it started operation in 1937, it has been supplying radio transmitting and receiving sets, including hand generators, to the Ministry of Military Affairs, broadcasting station equipment and radiophone sets to the Ministry of Communications and other government organs; and broadcasting receiving sets and amplifiers to the general public.

Another important enterprise is the Central Insulator Works, located at Yuanling, Hunan, with a branch factory at Ipin, Szechwan. It began production in 1938, turning out both high and low voltage insulators. The Ipin branch factory is equipped with up-to-date machinery and has been producing all kinds of goods since October, 1941. One insulator factory is being erected in Kansu to meet the needs of the Northwest.

The production of wires and cables, transformers, radio transmitting and receiving sets, batteries and dry cells has been increasing all the time, while that of other electrical goods fluctuates from time to time due to the lack of raw materials and the insufficient means of transportation.

**TABLE 4.—PERCENTAGE INCREASE
OF PRODUCTION OF ELECTRICAL
APPLIANCE MATERIALS**

(1938=100)				
Kinds of Products	1939	1940	1941	1942
Copper and iron wire	100	545	1427	1025
Lamp bulbs	2952	377	330	887
Vacuum tubes	993	6165	613	2391
Motors	12475	6458	14987	26666
Transformers	1525	1650	2650	6000
Radio transmitting and receiving sets	1394	1576	2053	2140
Broadcasting receiving sets	304	744	2176	2225
Batteries	100	366	1052	1250
Dry cells	208	388	835	466

V. Chemical Industry.—Besides working oil wells in various parts of the country, the National Resources Commission has opened 10 alcohol plants, five in Szechwan, one each in Yunnan, Kweichow, Kansu, Shensi and Sikang. Among them the Tzechung, Neikiang and Luhsien plants are the largest. These plants have an aggregate annual productive capacity of more than 3,000,000 gallons of ethyl-alcohol. The Tzechung Alcohol Works produces absolute alcohol.

Besides, the Commission has set up a vegetable oil cracking plant in Chungking known as the Tung Li Oil Works. In this plant, wood oil is treated for the production of gasoline substitute and Diesel oil. This plant is the first of its kind ever established in China and has now achieved successful results.

Furthermore, the Commission has established a low-temperature coal distillation plant in West Szechwan, where bituminous coal of satisfactory quality is produced in large quantities. This plant produces gasoline substitute, Diesel oil, crude phenol and semi-coke. The gasoline substitute produced there possesses high octane number and is good for aviation.

The Chemical Supplies Plant in Kunming produces soda ash, caustic soda, sodium sulphide, and fire extinguishing chemicals, while the Kiangsi Acid Manufacturing Plant is capable of producing four tons of different kinds of acids daily.

The increase of production of the chemical works operated by the National Resources Commission may be seen in the following table:

TABLE 5.—PERCENTAGE INCREASE OF PRODUCTION OF CHEMICAL INDUSTRIES

<i>Products</i>	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942
Alcohol	100	367	858	1754	2716
Lubricating oil		100	468	608	500
Soda ash			100	422	844

PRIVATE INDUSTRIES

I. Removal of Factories.—The removal of privately-owned factories following the outbreak of the war in 1937 was completed in 1940, when 70 per cent of the 639 refugee factories resumed operation in the interior. Four hundred and forty-eight factories received direct assistance from the Ministry of Economic Affairs. A main portion of them moved into the interior in 1938. More than

116,000 tons of equipment and materials and 12,164 skilled workers were brought to the western provinces.

The removal of factories may be divided into four periods. The first period extended from July, 1937, to January, 1938. The removal during this period was under the direction of a special committee jointly organized by the National Resources Commission, the Ministries of Military Affairs, Finance, and Industry (now Economic Affairs). One third of the equipment belonging to the refugee factories had been moved to Hankow in this period. The second period began after the fall of Nanking in December, 1937, and ended in September, 1938, when the fighting extended to Central China. During this period, Hankow was the nation's military and political center, where one third of the removed factories resumed work to produce urgently needed goods, and the rest continued to trek westward. Many factories originally located in Hankow and its neighboring districts joined the migration. The third period began with the opening of the second stage of the present Sino-Japanese war, extending from October, 1938, to December, 1939. In this period, over three-fourths of the refugees factories had proceeded to Szechwan, Hunan, Kwangsi, and Shensi. The fourth period covers the resumption of work of these factories since 1939. Four main routes were followed by the refugee plants, namely, from Hankow to Szechwan via Ichang, from Hankow to Kwangsi via the Tungting Lake in Hunan, from Hankow to western Hunan via Changteh, and from northern cities to Paoki and other Shensi cities via the Lunghai Railway.

The factories that received assistance from the Ministry of Economic Affairs may be divided into two main categories: (1) factories producing military goods, such as machine shops, chemical plants, metallurgical works, factories making communication and transportation apparatus, and medical plants, and (2) other factories producing daily necessities. Assistance to the first kind of factories included: (1) financial grants for their removal, (2) exemption from taxation, (3) reduction of transportation fees by state-owned transportation and communication organs, (4) granting of priority in using transportation facilities, (5) appropriation of expenses for building new plants, (6) guarantee for securing bank loans, and (7) granting of rewards. For the

second kind of factories, assistance included: (1) exemption from taxation and inspection, (2) extension of transportation facilities, and (3) allotment of land for building new plants.

Statistics concerning the removal of factories may be seen in Tables 6, 7 and 8:

TABLE 6—NUMBER OF FACTORIES REMOVED TO THE INTERIOR

Szechwan	254
Hunan	121
Kwangsi	23
Shensi	27
Other provinces	214
TOTAL	639

TABLE 7.—THE INCREASE AND DISTRIBUTION OF SKILLED WORKERS IN THE REMOVED FACTORIES

KINDS OF WORKERS	1938	1939	1940
Machine making	797	5,588	5,968
Chemical	125	1,376	1,408
Iron and steel	313	860	360
Electrical manufacturing	161	684	744
Textile	135	1,603	1,688
Food	12	549	580
Educational supplies	184	606	635
Other industries	50	270	404
Mining	15	377	377
TOTAL	1,793	11,913	12,164

TABLE 8.—REFUGEE FACTORIES NOW OPERATING IN THE INTERIOR

KINDS OF INDUSTRIES	NO. OF FACTORIES	TONNAGE OF MACHINERY	NO. OF SKILLED WORKERS MIGRATED
Iron and steel	2	37,242	360
Machine making	230	18,587	5,968
Electrical manufacturing	41	5,375	744
Chemical	62	9,756	1,408
Textile	115	32,116	1,688
Food	46	3,213	580
Educational supplies	81	1,665	635
Other industries	54	1,964	404
Mining	8	7,457	377
TOTAL	639	117,375	12,164

The migration of factories from the coastal regions and war areas to the interior may be taken as the prelude to China's wartime industrial mobilization. Before the outbreak of the present hostilities, the majority of modern industries were concentrated in a few coastal cities, such as Shanghai, Canton and Tientsin. The area which is known as Free China today was mainly agricultural, where very few factories were established. There was not a single blast furnace and not a single coal mine which annually produced more than 100,000 tons of coal. Of more than 5,000,000 spindles which China possessed before the war, only 17,000 were in the interior. The migration of factories opened the chapter of the industrialization of the interior, where there are now 2,000 privately-owned factories operating with modern means of production.

II. Government Assistance to and Supervision of Private Industries.—The Ministry of Economic Affairs encourages and assists the establishment of private industrial enterprises as a means to supplement state-owned industries in the process of the industrialization of the country. It gives financial assistance, offers technical advice, and supplies raw materials and technical personnel.

One of the most important regulations for the assistance to private industries is the *Regulations Governing the Encouragement of and Assistance to Industrial and Mining Enterprises in Time of Emergency*, revised and promulgated on December 12, 1941. The points concerning industrial enterprises in these regulations are:

1. The following industries are to be assisted:

(a) Electrical,

- (b) Mechanical,
- (c) Chemical,
- (d) Metallurgical,
- (e) Textile,
- (f) Processing or manufacturing of agricultural products.

2. The assistance may include one or several of the following methods :

- (a) The interest and profit of these industries will be guaranteed by the Government. The rate of such guarantee is five per cent on paid-up capital and six per cent on debentures, to be compensated by the Government if any loss is sustained. The highest rate is 10 per cent. The period is from five to seven years.
- (b) The difference between the production cost of the year and the market price of the products of the year will be the basis for the Government to give financial assistance as provided for in (a).
- (c) Government loans to private industries will be charged a low rate of interest. Assistance will be given in securing bank loans.
- (d) Export and interport duties may be exempt.
- (e) Interport duties on raw materials may be reduced.
- (f) Freight rates charged by state-owned communication enterprises may be reduced.
- (g) Government-owned land may be let to the factories for five years free of charge. From the sixth year on, a low rental may be charged, but it may not exceed 50 per cent of the prevailing rental in the locality where the factory is located.
- (h) The Government assists in purchasing power equipment and other raw materials.
- (i) The Government assists in training or recruiting technical personnel.

- (j) Assistance may be sought from organs in charge of communication regarding the transportation of machinery, raw materials, finished products, and daily necessities for the workers.

3. Factories applying for guarantee of interest and profit and financial assistance are limited to those having a paid-up capital of \$200,000 or more.

4. The Ministry of Economic Affairs may dispatch officials to inspect factories receiving such aid from the Government or station officials in these factories for constant inspection and auditing.

Financial assistance to private factories includes the extension of loans, investment, and assistance in securing bank loans. Three principles are observed: First, loans are chiefly for the increase of production and the development of productive capacity. Second, investments are given to such industries as to promote better production and to function as model factories. Third, loans may be secured from the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks.

Industrial loans were first limited to cover the cost of removal of factories. Later, the sphere was extended to the construction of factories in the interior, the resumption of operation, transportation and marketing, and the construction of air-raid shelters for the machinery. The amount of loans extended by the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration has been increasing from year to year. It was \$20,162,545 in 1941. Chemical, mechanical, and metallurgical industries received the lion's share of the loans. Security loans from the government banks reached \$25,150,000 by the end of 1941, while investments from the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration in the same period amounted to \$10,877,532. Small industrial loans handled by the Ministry of Economic Affairs amounted to \$564,000 by the end of 1941, as seen in Tables 9, 10 and 11.

TABLE 9.—FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE TO INDUSTRIAL AND MINING ENTERPRISES
A.—Classified by Nature of Loans and Investments

	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941
Loans	26,812.50	4,408,026.36	6,604,834.86	14,317,026.93	20,162,545.39
Removal	26,812.50	1,161,764.36	926,367.02	609,386.75	154,131.14
Construction		1,728,087.00	2,567,857.84	6,717,753.32	9,732,440.25
Resumption of Work		158,475.00	43,550.00		
Transportation		38,200.00	1,313,410.00	4,052,235.00	6,593,034.00
Recruiting of Labor			1,540.00	41,540.00	41,540.00
A.R.P. Construction				2,225,000.00	3,641,400.00
Others		1,321,500.00	1,752,110.00	671,110.00	
Investments		176,337.10	3,877,237.85	7,428,194.39	10,877,532.61
Security Loans		4,400,000.00	4,960,000.00	10,210,000.00	25,150,000.00
TOTAL	26,812.50	8,984,363.46	15,442,072.71	31,955,246.39	56,190,078.00

SOURCE :—The Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration

TABLE 10.—FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE TO INDUSTRIAL AND MINING ENTERPRISES

B.—Classified by Industries

INDUSTRIES	Iron and Steel	Coal Mining	Mechanical	Electrical Manufacturing	Chemical	Textile	Food	Educational Supplies	Public Utilities	Others	Total
1937—	3,172.50	6,700.00	6,940.00	10,000.00	26,812.50
1938—
Loans	660,000.00	500,000.00	436,947.66	357,870.00	1,496,916.70	364,792.00	43,800.00	91,200.00	85,000.00	371,500.00	4,408,026.36
Investments	176,337.10	176,337.10
Security	1,000,000.00	...	700,000.00	2,700,000.00	...	4,400,000.00
Loans
1939—
Loans	509,540.00	650,000.00	980,864.00	189,472.10	2,615,016.76	563,152.00	107,800.00	124,480.00	120,000.00	744,110.00	6,604,834.8
Investments	1,600,000.00	17,773.42	1,978,207.30	270,675.13	10,582.00	3,877,237.85
Security	1,000,000.00	...	700,000.00	3,260,000.00	...	4,960,000.00
Loans
1940—
Loans	1,415,450.00	834,000.00	2,814,401.68	336,052.50	5,549,370.75	1,602,542.00	134,000.00	164,050.00	410,000.00	1,057,160.00	14,317,026.93
Investments	1,000,000.00	46,329.89	4,717,520.96	1,487,798.44	61,545.10	...	115,000.00	...	7,428,194.39
Security	1,200,000.00	...	1,250,000.00	300,000.00	2,280,000.00	5,260,000.00	...	10,210,000.00
Loans
1941—
Loans	2,090,000.00	2,640,804.58	3,508,759.81	573,800.00	6,642,000.00	1,180,540.00	822,000.00	194,900.00	1,250,629.00	1,259,110.00	20,162,545.39
Investments	1,000,000.00	...	1,000,000.00	...	6,915,020.97	1,847,511.64	115,000.00	...	10,877,532.61
Security	2,000,000.00	...	1,050,000.00	450,000.00	5,050,000.00	3,600,000.00	...	1,500,000.00	10,000,000.00	1,500,000.00	25,150,000.00
Loans

Source :—The Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration

**TABLE 11.—SMALL INDUSTRIAL LOANS EXTENDED BY THE MINISTRY OF
ECONOMIC AFFAIRS
(1939—1941)**

KINDS OF INDUSTRY	1939		1940		1941	
	No. of Factories	Loans in Dollars	No. of Factories	Loans in Dollars	No. of Factories	Loans in Dollars
Textile	4	40,000	7	98,000	6	162,000
Leather Tanning	2	47,000	3	100,000
Paper Making	2	55,000	2	35,000	3	95,000
Mechanical	5	69,000	6	132,000
Printing	4	26,900	4	36,000	2	20,000
Medical	1	10,000	2	20,000	3	40,000
Alcohol	1	5,000	2	50,000
Soap and Candles	1	30,000	1	30,000
Farm Tools	1	7,000	2	45,000
Others	5	148,000	3	40,000
TOTAL	15	190,900	31	586,000	26	5,64000

SOURCE :—The Ministry of Economic Affairs

The percentage distribution of industrial loans may be seen in the following two tables:

TABLE 12.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF INDUSTRIAL LOANS

Loans for removal and re-establishment of factories	7.8%
Loans for construction and equipment	49.3%
Loans for construction of air-raid precaution establishments	13.5%
Other loans	29.4%

TABLE 13.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF INDUSTRIAL LOANS BY INDUSTRIES

Chemical	21.26%
Electrical power	20.70%
Machinery	19.93%
Metallurgical	19.37%
Textile	14.04%
Food and other industries	4.7%

These figures show the Government's efforts in promoting and assisting in the development of private industries. They also show that in extending financial help, preference was given to: (1) industries manufacturing articles of military use, (2) industries manufacturing daily necessities, and (3) industries that could contribute to the productivity and manufacturing capacity of the interior.

Loans for the construction of air-raid precaution establishments included those for the construction of branch factories and air-raid shelters for machinery. Thirty Chungking factories have built such shelters with financial and technical assistance from the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration.

The Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration invests in various kinds of industries with a view to promoting new industries and improving the existing factories. Such investments aim at: (1) promoting new industries through government effort, (2) assisting in the establishment of such industries that private interests cannot afford to establish independently, (3) establishing such industries as are related to the people's livelihood through government assistance and effort, and (4) erecting important enterprises with the cooperation of other government organs.

The Administration has a wood alcohol distillation plant at Loshan and a model cotton mill at Suining, both being in Szechwan. The former is capitalized at \$1,445,444, producing wood alcohol and acetic acid through low-temperature distillation; the latter promotes the use of the newly-invented Yeh Tsing jennies. Investments were made in many factories, including the China Development Company, the Kien Kuo Paper Mill, the Central China Cement Plant, the Szechwan Oil Cracking Plant, the Kien

Cheng Hydraulic Lime Company, the Kiangsi Cement Works, and the Yun Feng Paper Mill.

For the supply of raw materials and machines, the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration created a Supplies Bureau in 1939. Before the Burma campaign, the Administration purchased a total of 5,800 tons of metals, chemical and electrical materials. It now purchases all kinds of materials from India and other countries, to be sent in by aerial transportation. More than 1,000 factories were benefited in 1941. Of them, 76 per cent were private factories. The Supplies Bureau is also engaged in the purchase and supply of materials within this country. Special attention is directed to the distribution of motors, prime movers, machine tools, and small tools.

The Ministry of Economic Affairs is paying increasing attention to the supply of electric power. Among modern factories in the interior, many have their own power plants. But the majority of the factories have to rely on the public power plants for electricity. The Ministry is therefore adopting steps to enlarge existing power plants and to build new ones. Many plants are sheltered in dugouts or protected by reinforced concrete, while others are divided into several units and put up in different places in order to minimize the danger from air raids.

The supply of skilled workers to private factories is another function undertaken by the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration. Nearly 2,000 skilled workers and technicians had registered with the Administration by June, 1942. Big factories are also training skilled workers under the direction and supervision of the Administration. The first batch of 300 persons completed a course of one year in March, 1942.

III. Number of Factories and Their Production.—Free China has today a total of nearly 2,000 privately-owned factories registered with the Ministry of Economic Affairs. The distribution of these factories may be seen in the following two tables:

TABLE 14.—GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF PRIVATELY-OWNED FACTORIES IN FREE CHINA

(Registered with the Ministry of Economic Affairs up to May 1942).

<i>Province or Municipality</i>	<i>No. of Factories</i>
Chungking	584
Szechwan	352
Kweichow	49
Yunnan	49
Kwangsi	173
Kwangtung	13
Hunan	368
Hupeh	9
Fukien	23
Kiangsi	55
Shensi	170
Kansu	63
Sikang	7
TOTAL	1,915

TABLE 15.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PRIVATELY-OWNED FACTORIES BY INDUSTRIES

Metallurgical	7.10
Machinery	28.55
Electrical appliance	3.15
Chemical	27.24
Textile and clothing	22.72
Food	5.15
Printing	2.85
Others	3.24
TOTAL	100.00

Since March, 1941, the Ministry of Economic Affairs has been conducting a nation-wide registration of private factories. Returns up to December, 1942, indicated that there were nearly 2,000 private factories using mechanical power for production. Details of these factories are, however, not yet available.

An analysis may be based, however, on the 1941 statistics. By the end of 1941, 1,310 private factories had registered with the Ministry of Economic Affairs. They may be classified into eight groups, totalling 37 kinds. This figure already registered a 4-time increase over the pre-war period. Most of these factories were concentrated in the Chungking area, totalling 451. Hunan ranked second and Szechwan (excluding Chungking) third. The reason for the better industrial development of Szechwan and Hunan was that the two provinces have greater communication and transportation facilities. Chemical factories constituted the largest number, 381. Machinery factories came second.

TABLE 16.—NUMBER OF PRIVATE FACTORIES REGISTERED WITH THE MINISTRY OF ECONOMIC AFFAIRS
(1938—1941)

KINDS OF INDUSTRY	Chungking	Hunan	Szechwan	Kwangsi	Shensi	Kansu	Kiangsi	Kweichow	Yunnan	Chekiang	Fukien	Hupeh	Kwangtung	Sikang	Kiangsu	Ningsia	Honan	Anhui	Shansi	Suiyuan	Total
Metallurgical	16	31	26	5	11	3	4	6	3	1	1	1	87
Machinery	210	63	10	62	11	1	3	7	3	...	3	1	377
Electrical Manufacturing	27	3	3	5	2	...	1	...	2	44
CHEMICAL—																					
Acids	7	...	9	...	2	...	1	2	1	1	24
Liquid Fuel	17	10	50	5	5	1	...	4	2	...	3	1	1	96
Pottery	8	15	8	5	4	1	2	4	1	47
Cement	1	1	1	1	2	1	8
Rubber	1	1	1	1	1	1	7
Paper	1	13	8	2	3	1	2	1	35
Leather	29	5	2	4	...	7	1	...	1	1	1	54
Paints and Lacquer	4	1	1	6
Dyeing	2	2	4	1	3	3
Matches	12	4	4	2	3	1	1	28
Medicine	1
Starch	17	...	1	2	...	1	...	2	25
Candles and Soap	4	1	7	1	15
Fats	1	2	3
Cosmetics	1	1
Textile and Clothing	42	74	46	11	30	24	14	6	6	2	3	...	1	273
FOOD, DRINKS AND TOBACCO—																					
Rice Hulling	4	5	4	7	...	1	1	...	3	1	25
Wheat Flour	4	3	2	...	4	1	1	1	2	1	1	...	1	20
Sugar	1	1	1	6
Salt	1
Wine	1
Biscuits and Candies	2	...	2	4
Can	1	4	3	...	2	1	1
Tobacco	2	3
Condiments	3	...	1	14
Tea	1	1	5
Printing and Stationery	17	2	1	13	...	1	2	2	2	2
OTHERS—																					
Water Works	1	3	4
Saw Mills	4	2	10
Tooth Brushes	7	1	8
Packing	1	1
Coal Briquettes	1	1
Hog Bristles	1	...	1	2
Ice	1	1
TOTAL	451	241	204	132	74	47	40	37	30	12	11	6	3	4	4	3	3	2	2	1	1,310

The operation of these factories is under the constant direction and supervision of the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration. Following the outbreak of the Pacific War in December, 1941, special efforts have been made to accelerate steel production and the technical improvement in iron and steel smelting. The Yu Hsin Iron and Steel Works, the China Development Company, the Jen Ho Iron Works, the China Steel Refining Plant, and the Ho Chi Iron and Steel Works have all been using Bessemer converters. The China Development Company's 10-ton open-hearth furnace is also operating.

Free China had 195,000 spindles for cotton spinning by August, 1942, an increase of eight times the total spindles of 1938. The annual paper production in the interior amounted to 65,000 reams in 1942, six times the pre-war figure. The annual production of cement amounted to 300,000 barrels, while that of hydraulic lime approached 20,000 piculs.

The production of private industries may be seen in the following table:

TABLE 17.—INDEX NUMBERS OF THE PRODUCTION OF PRIVATE INDUSTRIES (1940=100)

KINDS OF PRODUCTS	1941	1942
Iron	259	555
Steel	122	146
Prime movers	200	214
Machine tools	127	133
Acids	105	237
Caustic soda	300	324
Bleaching powder	348	458
Alcohol	104	111
Machine-spun cotton yarn	253	261
Wheat flour	139	145

Refined iron, steel, machine tools, hydrochloric acid, bleaching powder, alcohol, hydraulic lime, lamp bulbs and pencils which were not produced in the interior before the outbreak of the war, are now produced in considerable quantities to meet local needs. The production of cotton yarn, wheat flour, soap, matches, machinery, and leather has been greatly increased.

The main difficulties that the private industries encounter at present, like the state-owned enterprises, are: (1) lack of a part of industrial materials, (2) insufficient transportation and communication facilities, and (3) lack of technical personnel.

IV. A Review of Private Industries.—

(1) Metallurgy.—Free China has three factories producing steel and more than 14 factories producing iron. The largest metallurgical works are the Yu Hsin Iron and Steel Works, the China Development Company, the China Steel Plant, and the Jen Ho Iron Works. They use electric, Bessemer, and open-hearth furnaces. The Jen Ho's 1.5-ton Bessemer furnace and the China Development Company's 10-ton Martin furnace were only erected in the summer of 1942.

The largest iron works are the China Development Company, the Jen Ho Iron Works, the Fu Chang Iron Works, the Kien Yu Company, and the Hsin Chi Chu Kiang Iron Works. The China Development Company's 30-ton furnace is the largest furnace built by private factories.

(2) Machinery.—Machinery production by private factories in Free China may be grouped into five main categories, namely, military materials, machine tools, prime movers, industrial machines, and metals of daily use.

Owing to the fact that the construction of most of the arsenals has been completed, private factories are producing less military goods than before. They are, however, still turning out bayonets, gas masks, machine gun parts, and shells,

The production of machine tools, such as lathes, boring, planing and grinding machines has been greatly increased. More than 1,000 lathes of various kinds were produced in 1941. The Hsun Chang Machine Works and the China Automobile Manufacturing Company have done much to improve the technique of machine making. In 1941, a total of 1,422 machine tools were made, excluding small tools.

The Hsun Chang, Hung Shung, and Ming Sung Machine Works also manufacture steam engines. In 1941, a total of 56 steam engines were produced by these factories totalling 6,416 h.p. Other kinds of prime movers produced by Free China factories include gas engines, Diesel engines, boilers, and water turbines. Industrial machines are being produced on a large scale, including cotton and wool spinning and weaving, sewing, paper making, oil cracking, iron and steel refining, rice hulling, printing, and fire fighting machines.

Shipbuilding factories include the Ming Sung Industrial Company and the San Peh Steam Navigation Company. They both build and repair ships. The Hsin Chung Engineering Company manufactures Diesel oil and gas engines for automobiles.

Products for daily use include needles, oil lamps, safes, medical apparatuses, and educational supplies.

At the end of 1941 there were 379 machine factories in Free China producing more than 120 kinds of machinery, parts and supplies.

(3) Electrical Manufacturing.—Electrical manufacturing includes the manufacture of power engines, radio, telegraph and telephone sets, batteries and cells.

There are three factories manufacturing power engines, namely, the Watson Electric Manufacturing Company, the Ta Hua Electric Manufacturing Company, and the Hua Cheng Electric Manufacturing Plant, the first two being in Chungking and the third in Hengyang, Hunan. The China Development

Company, the China Radio Company, and the Tien Shen Manufacturing plant are turning out portable generators. The Hua Cheng and Ta Hua Plants as well as the Shang Chwan Industrial Company are manufacturing motors. Five factories make transformers, and a number of others manufacture electric wires, bulbs, switchboards, and other electrical materials.

The China Machine Works, the Jih Hsin Electric Batteries Works, the Yung Shen Industrial Plant, the Hsin Hua Company, and a number of other plants are turning out batteries and cells.

(4) Chemicals. Chemical products include: (1) acids and alkali, (2) paper, (3) leather, (4) alcohol, (5) oil, fats, and related products, (6) cement, (7) pottery and porcelain, (8) matches, (9) fire bricks, (10) dyes, and (11) miscellaneous chemical products.

Free China had 24 acid and soda manufacturing plants by the end of 1941. Their names and capacity of production are as follows:

TABLE 18.—MONTHLY PRODUCTION OF ACIDS AND SODA IN FREE CHINA

(Unit : Tons)

NAME OF PLANT	Sulphuric Acid	Hydrochloric Acid	Nitric Acid	Caustic Soda	Soda Ash	Sodium Sulphide	Bleaching Powder
Tien Yuan Electrical and Chemical Manufacturing Plant	...	30	...	150	165
Ke Tai Chemical Works	10	...
Yu Lien Chemical Works	40
China Acid Manufacturing Co.	40
Tsaichiachang Acid Manufacturing Cooperative	8	0.5
Ching Hwa Dyeing Works	20	...
Jui Hwa Co.	15
Kwang Yi Chemical Plant	55
Hsin Hwa Chemical Mfg. Plant	3
Yu Chwan Chemical Plant	8	3	0.6
Kien Yeh Chemical Co.	5.5
Yuan Chi Yung Yuan Sulphuric Acid Works	5
Yu Min Soda Works	30
Tung Yi Soda Works	50
Kai Chi Soda Works	30
Kai Yu Soda Works	35
Ta Chung Acid and Soda Co.	8
Ta Li Acid Manufacturing Plant	4	1.5
Kunming Acid Manufacturing Plant	7
Kiangsi Sulphuric Acid Works	7.5
Chekiang Chemical Works	25	7	1.2
Chi Cheng Acid Works	8	3	2
TOTAL	181	45	3.8	150	167	30	165

NOTE.—Except Ta Chung (Kweichow), Ta Li (Yunnan), Kunming, Kiangsi, Chekiang, and Chi Cheng (Shensi), all other factories are in Szechwan. Kiangsi and Chekiang plants are provincial enterprises.

Free China has 14 modern paper mills. Half of them are privately owned. They are producing printing paper, newsprint, wrapping, tobacco and match

paper. There are scores of native paper mills.

The production of the private paper mills may be seen in the following table :

TABLE 19.—PRIVATE PAPER MILLS IN FREE CHINA

NAME OF MILL	Location	Daily Production in Tons
Lung Chang Paper Mill	Szechwan	4
Kien Kuo Paper Co.	Szechwan	3.5
Kia Lo Paper Mill	Szechwan	2
Cheng Chung Paper Mill	Szechwan	1
Chung Yuan Paper Mill	Szechwan	0.5
Tungliang Paper Co.	Szechwan	1
Southwest Paper Mill	Kweichow	1
Yun Feng Paper Mill	Yunnan	1.5
Yi Shen Paper Co.	Shensi	1
TOTAL		15.5

NOTE.—Lung Chang has been reorganized into the Central Paper Mill, now under the control of the Central Trust.

More than a dozen leather tanning factories are turning out both sole and upper leather. The Han Chung Leather Manufacturing Plant is producing leather fit for aviation use. The Government is helping several factories producing

glue for industrial use since such materials cannot be imported.

The production of the existing leather tanning plants at the end of 1942 was as follows :

TABLE 20.—MONTHLY PRODUCTION OF PRIVATE LEATHER TANNING FACTORIES IN FREE CHINA

(Unit : Sheets)

NAME OF PLANT	Location	Sole Leather	Upper Leather
Hua Sheng Chang Chi Leather Mfg. Plant	Szechwan	900	
Han Chung Leather Manufacturing Plant		900	1,700
Chiu Hsin Leather Manufacturing Plant		1,700	300
Kwang Hwa Leather Manufacturing Plant		600	1,500
Ta Cheng Leather Manufacturing Plant		80	600
West China Reconstruction Co.		200	600
Erh Min Leather Manufacturing Plant		150	1,200
Ching Hsin Leather Manufacturing Plant		300	450
Northwest Chemical Leather Manufacturing Plant	Shensi	1,000	1,200
Tung Tsai Leather Manufacturing Plant		300	
Jung Hsin Co. (Sian Leather Plant)		600	
Feng Chi Leather Manufacturing Plant	Kansu	120	350
Kien Hwa Leather Manufacturing Plant		200	150
Others		800	1,000
TOTAL		7,850	9,050

Alcohol manufacturing is a new enterprise in the interior. Free China produces more than 7,000,000 gallons of alcohol a year. Szechwan alone

produces 5,000,000 gallons. A portion can be used as gasoline substitute. Forty-three alcohol distilleries were operating at the end of 1942. They are:

TABLE 21.—PRIVATE ALOCHOL FACTORIES IN FREE CHINA

NAME OF PLANT	Location	Daily Production in Gallons
Shang Chwan Industrial Co.	Szechwan	1,500
Pao Ta Tung Li Alcohol Plant	Shensi	300
Pao Ho Tung Li Alcohol Plant	Shensi	100
Tzechung Li Ho Chemical Works	Shensi	250
Fu Hsin Alcohol Mfg. Co.	Szechwan	1,500
Ta Chang Manufactuirng Plant	Szechwan	400
Chu Chwan Alcohol Plant	Szechwan	200
Sheng Cheng Synthetic Gasoline Plant	Szechwan	350
Ta Cheng Chemical Works	Szechwan	400
Fu Hwa Alcohol Plant	Szechwan	300
Yung Chwan Alcohol Plant	Szechwan	350
Hsing Min Alcohol Plant (Ta Hwa Co.)	Szechwan	1,500
Chung Hsin Alcohol Plant	Szechwan	430
Si Hwa Tung Li Alcohol Plant	Shensi	300
Pao Chi Liquid Fuel Plant	Shensi	50
Kien Kuo Alcohol Plant	Szechwan	200
Chu Feng Industrial Co.	Szechwan	600
Kwangsi Alcohol Plant	Kwangsi	120
Lanchow Pharmaceutical Plant	Kansu	
Jung Hsin Industrial Co.	Kansu	20
First Branch, Yung Chwan Alcohol Plant	Szechwan	350
New China Synthetic Gasoline Plant	Szechwan	500
Kwang Ta Alcohol Plant	Szechwan	400
Central China Alcohol Plant	Szechwan	200
Ta Chi Alcohol Plant	Szechwan	100
King Chwan Alcohol Plant	Szechwan	1,000
Chung Chwan Chemical Works	Szechwan	1,200
Neikiang Chemical Works	Szechwan	120
Fu Jen Alcohol Plant	Szechwan	300
Kwang Lun Alcohol Plant	Szechwan	600
Yao Hwa Alcohol Plant	Szechwan	300
Central Chemical Works	Szechwan	100
Kwangyuan Branch, Ta Hwa Cotton Mill	Szechwan	500
Tzechung Co-operative's Alcohol Plant	Szechwan	800
Lu Ho Alcohol Plant	Shensi	300
New Asia Alcohol Plant	Shensi	300
Tsaichiapo Alcohol Plant (Jung Hsin Co.)	Shensi	1,000
Yimencheng Alcohol Plant	Shensi	300
Ta Hwa Alcohol Plant	Shensi	1,000
Pingliang Hsin Min Alcohol Plant	Kansu	50
Chemical Plant, Jung Hsin Co.	Kansu	120
National Defense Alcohol Plant (1st)	Szechwan	1,000
National Defense Alcohol Plant (2nd)	Szechwan	1,000
TOTAL		19,410

Sugar refining is an allied industry with alcohol distilling. Seven modern

sugar refineries were operating at the end of 1941. Their names and capacities are:

TABLE 22.—DAILY PRODUCTION OF PRIVATE SUGAR REFINERIES

NAME OF PLANT	Location	Production (in Metric tons)
China Sugar Refining Co.	Szechwan	10
Ta Hwa Industrial Co.	Szechwan	4
To Kiang Sugar Co.	Szechwan	4.5
Hwa Yuan Sugar Plant	Szechwan	3
Tzechung Co-operative	Szechwan	15
Kweichow Sugar Plant	Kweichow	0.2
West Hunan Sugar Plant	Hunan	0.15
TOTAL		36.85

About 20 vegetable oil plants are producing gasoline and kerosene substitutes, totalling more than 30,000 gallons a month. About ten more factories

were scheduled to produce gasoline and kerosene substitutes in 1942, with a productive capacity of 50,000 gallons. Diesel oil substitute is also produced.

TABLE 23.—PRIVATE OIL REFINING PLANTS IN FREE CHINA

NAME OF PLANT	MONTHLY PRODUCTION	
	Gasoline & Kerosene Substitutes (Gallons)	Diesel Oil Substitute (Tons)
China Oil Refining Plant	5,000	
Ta Ming Oil Refining Plant	3,000	
Kien Cheng Oil Refining Plant	3,500	
Hsin Yuan Oil Refining Plant	950	
Kien Kuo Oil Refining Plant	900	
Southwest Chemical Plant	24,000	
China Vegetable Oil Plant (Chungking)	300	40
China Vegetable Oil Plant (Kweiyang)	400	30
China Vegetable Oil Plant (Hengyang)	1,000	15
Chung Fu Oil Refining Plant of the China Reconstruction Co.	12,000	90
Hsin Chung Oil Refining Plant	1,500	2.5
Chang Ning Chemical Works	3,600	13
Ta Hwa Oil Refining Plant (Chungking)	3,750	30
Ta Hwa Oil Refining Plant (Pengshui)	1,850	15
Ta Hwa Oil Refining Plant (Yunyang)	1,850	15
Ta Hwa Oil Refining Plant (Shihchu)	1,850	15
Ta Hwa Oil Refining Plant (Wanhhsien)	1,850	15
Ta Hwa Oil Refining Plant (Fengtu)	1,850	15
Ta Hwa Oil Refining Plant (Kwangan)	900	7.5
Tien Yuan Oil Refining Plant	1,850	15
Ta Lu, Chemical Works		10
Yu Kang Jung Chi Oil Refining Plant		15
Mei Ya Company's Oil Refining Plant		25
Ming Sung Industrial Company's Oil Refining Plant		20
Kai Yuan Liquid Fuel Plant		4
TOTAL	71,900	392

Four factories are manufacturing resin sandarach gum. They are :
and turpentine by extracting oil from

TABLE 24.—SANDARACH GUM EXTRACTION FACTORIES IN FREE CHINA

NAME OF PLANT	Monthly Production	
	Resin (Piculs)	Turpentine (Pounds)
Nanchwan Branch, China Vegetable Oil Plant	300	1,500
Cheng Hsin Sandarach Gum Plant	210	900
Kai Kien Resin Plant	600	3,000
San Ho Chemical Works	300	1,500
TOTAL	1,410	6,900

Animal fats, vegetable oil, and caustic soda are the chief materials for the manufacturing of soap in China. Since the interruption of the import of soda from abroad, the Tien Yuan Electrochemical Manufacturing Plant, under government assistance, has been manufacturing liquid caustic soda. Soap factories in Free China turn out 60,000

boxes of soap every month. One of the by-products of the soap industry is glycerine. Two factories are producing six tons of glycerine a month by this method. Several other factories produce glycerine by other methods. Free China produces 100,000 packages (six candles a package) of candles a month. (See Tables 25, 26, and 27.)

TABLE 25.—MONTHLY PRODUCTION OF SOAP FACTORIES

NAME OF FACTORY	Monthly Production in Boxes
Yung Hsin Chemical Works	4,500
Southwest Chemical Plant	5,000
Li Min Soap Factory	4,000
Ta Hwa Soap Factory (Chungking)	3,000
Kai Li Development Co.	1,300
Soap and Candles Co-operative	1,500
Lungmenhao Soap Co-operative	1,000
Hsien Chi Ta Lai Soap Factory	1,000
Ta Hsin Chemical Works	600
Kiang Nan Soap and Candles Factory	900
Han Chang Soap Factory	800
Pai Lin Soap Factory	800
Tien Lun Soap Factory	700
Mei Teh Industrial Co.	600
Ming Sung Industrial Company's Oil Refining Plant	200
Yung Min Soap Manufacturing Plant	300
Pai Li Soap Factory	900
Chang Kiang Soap Factory	500
Mei Lien Soap Factory	200
China Chemical Works	300
Ta Chang Soap Factory	600
Kweichow Chemical Works	1,000
Kuo Min Soap Factory	500
Jung Hsin Industrial Company's Lanchow Pharmaceutical Plant	300
Shensi Development Corporation's Chemical Plant	1,500
Others	28,000
TOTAL	60,000

TABLE 26.—MONTHLY PRODUCTION OF GLYCERINE

NAME OF PLANT	Monthly Production in Tons
Southwest Chemical Works	4
Yung Hsin Chemical Works	2
China Oil Refining Plant	1
Chang Kiang Pharmaceutical Plant	0.1
TOTAL	7.1

TABLE 27.—MONTHLY PRODUCTION OF CANDLES

NAME OF PLANT	Monthly Production in Packages
Kweichow Chemical Works	5,000
Kiang Nan Soap and Candles Factory	6,000
Yi Hsin Industrial Works	7,000
Yi Hwa Domestic Industrial Works	25,000
Southwest Chemical Works	30,000
Yung Min Soap Manufacturing Plant	7,000
Pai Li Factory	7,000
Shensi Development Corporation's Chemical Plant	5,000
Lungmenhao Soap Cooperative	5,000
TOTAL	97,000

There are 11 cement manufacturing plants in Free China. Their names and productive capacity are as follows:

TABLE 28.—DAILY PRODUCTION OF CEMENT

Name of Plant O. C.	Location	Daily Production (Barrels)
Szechwan Cement Plant	Szechwan	900
Central China Cement Plant	Hunan	600
Kunming Cement Plant	Yunnan	100
Kweiyang Cement Plant	Kweichow	50
Kien Hwa Cement Plant	Shensi	5
Kien Cheng Hydraulic Lime Plant	Szechwan	(100 piculs)
Kwangsi Cement Plant	Kwangsi	300
Kiangsi Cement Plant	Kiangsi	100
Kia Hwa Cement Plant	Szechwan	50
Kwangyuan Cement Plant	Szechwan	50
Yunnan Cement Plant	Yunnan	50
TOTAL		2,205*

*Excluding hydraulic lime

More than 10 factories are producing materials for electrical and chemical uses under high temperatures. Most impor-

tant among them are fire bricks. The production of fire bricks may be seen in the following table:

TABLE 29.—MONTHLY PRODUCTION OF FIRE BRICKS

NAME OF PLANT	Location	No. of Fire Bricks
Ta Hsin Fire Brick Plant	Szechwan	30,000
Teh Shen Pottery Plant	Szechwan	25,000
Kwang Ta Porcelain Plant	Szechwan	10,000
Kien Hsin Porcelain Plant	Shensi	40,000
China Pottery Co.	Hunan	40,000
Yung Sheng Porcelain Plant	Szechwan	10,000
Weiyuan Fire Brick Plant	Szechwan	10,000
China Development Co.	Szechwan	20,000
Kweichow Pottery and Porcelain Plant	Kweichow	3,500
Others		10,000
TOTAL		198,500

Of Free China's five modern glass factories, the Jui Hwa Glass Manufacturing Plant is the largest, producing 10,000 pieces of glassware every day. The glass department of the Kien Hwa Electrical Manufacturing Plant makes more than 40,000 electric bulbs a month. Native glass factories are numerous and are distributed throughout the country. There are only four enamelware manufacturing factories in Free China. The largest one is the Cheng Si Enamel-Ware Manufacturing Plant, manufacturing 15,000 medical plates, 18,000 cups and more than 10,000 miscellaneous enamelled goods every month.

There are 74 match manufacturing factories in Free China with an aggregate annual production of 100,000 boxes of matches. The southwestern provinces are self-sufficient in matches, while Szechwan sends about 20,000 boxes a year to the northwestern provinces. The largest match raw material manufacturing factory is the China Match Raw Material Plant, supplying over half of the raw materials needed in the interior. The production of matches may be summarized in the following table:

TABLE 30.—ANNUAL PRODUCTION OF MATCHES IN FREE CHINA

(Unit: Boxes; 1 box=7,200 packages)

PROVINCE	No. of Factories	Annual Production
Szechwan	37	50,000
Sikang	1	1,200
Kweichow	9	5,000
Hunan	2	1,800
Kiangsi	3	10,000
Fukien	1	
Shensi	5	3,300
Kansu	4	2,660
Chinghai	1	
Kwangtung	4	
Anhui	3	
Yunnan	4	14,000
TOTAL	74	87,960

Other chemical plants include rubber, paint, dyeing, and pharmaceutical manufacturing factories. Among them the best known is the Chung Nan Rubber Manufacturing Plant, which has factories in Chungking, Kunming, Kweiyang, and Kwangyuan. Its main work is to remake automobile tires from worn-out ones with a monthly capacity of remaking 2,000 tires.

(5) Textiles.—Free China's textile industry may be classified into four kinds, namely, cotton, wool, silk, and ramie, but the most important is cotton spinning and weaving.

Cotton mills are largely concentrated in Szechwan and Shensi. Of the 16 large factories, only five are in other provinces. Most of the spindles were removed from coastal and war provinces

and reinstalled in the interior. Up to August, 1942, a total of 170,000 spindles had been set up, eight times the pre-war total in the interior. Free China had about 25,000 spindles in June, 1943. About 10 small cotton mills are operating with small spinning and weaving machines. China manufactures most of the looms.

Details of cotton spinning may be seen in the following table:

TABLE 31.—COTTON MILLS IN FREE CHINA

NAME OF MILL	Location	No. of Spindles
Yu Hwa Cotton Mill	Chungking	23,000
Shun Hsin Cotton Mill	Chungking	10,000
Shasi Cotton Mill	Chungking	6,400
Yu Feng Cotton Mill	Chungking	25,000
Yu Feng Cotton Mill	Hochwan, Szechwan	15,000
Shun Hsin Cotton Mill	Paoki	8,000
Ta Hwa Cotton Mill	Sian	20,000
Ta Hwa Cotton Mill	Kwangyuan, Szechwan	5,000
Sienyang Factory	Sienyang, Shensi	5,000
Kwangsi Textile & Mechanical Plant	Kweilin	2,300
Yu Tien Cotton Mill	Kunming	16,700
Jung Hsin Co.	Tsaichiapo, Shensi	1,200
Yunnan Textile Plant	Kunming	5,000
Hunan Cotton Mill	Ankiang	10,000
Chekiang Cotton Mill	Chekiang	5,000
Ministry of Military Affairs Textile Factory	Chungking	10,000
TOTAL		167,600

NOTE: (1) The last four mills are government-owned.

(2) Shasi had 2,200 spindles, Jung Hsin Co. 2,000, and Yu Feng 5,000, scheduled to be installed in 1942.

Eleven factories are engaged in dyeing, handling 130,000 bolts of cloth a month. They are:

TABLE 32.—DYEING FACTORIES IN FREE CHINA

NAME OF PLANT	Location	Monthly Capacity (No. of Bolts Dyed)
Chungking Dyeing Plant	Chungking	16,000
Ho Hsing Dyeing Plant	Chungking	14,000
Tung Hsin Mechanical Dyeing Plant	Chungking	12,000
Yu Teh Dyeing Plant	Chungking	12,000
Yu Hwa Cotton Dyeing & Weaving Plant	Chungking	6,000
Ta Min Dyeing and Weaving Plant	Peipei, Szechwan	15,000
Yi Hwa Dyeing & Weaving Co.	Chengtu	3,000
Chu Hsin Dyeing & Weaving Co.	Yuanling, Hunan	12,000
Cheng Ta Mechanical Dyeing Plant	Yuanling, Hunan	12,000
Li Tai Industrial Works	Sian	12,000
Tung Hwa Dyeing Plant	Sian	16,000
TOTAL		130,000

There are six wool spinning and weaving factories in Free China. The best ones are the China Wool Spinning and Weaving Mill, the Min Chih Spinning and Weaving Mill, and the Chwan Kang Wool Spinning and Weaving Mill.

Two silk factories and two ramie factories are operating.

(6) Food, Drinks and Tobacco.—There are 21 flour mills in the interior, producing 20,000 bags of flour a day. Nine others were scheduled to begin operation in 1942. They are:

TABLE 33.—FLOUR MILLS IN FREE CHINA

NAME OF MILL	Location	Daily Production in Bags
Fo Hsin Flour Mill	Szechwan	400
Fu Hsin Flour Mill	Szechwan	1,800
Fu Min Flour ...	Szechwan	800
Sui Feng Flour Mill	Szechwan	300
Kien Cheng Flour Mill	Szechwan	400
Chao Feng Flour Mill	Szechwan	400
Yun Li Industrial Company's Wanh sien Flour Mill	Szechwan	100
Yun Li Industrial Company's Paisha Flour Mill	Szechwan	200
China Food Industry Company	Szechwan	1,200
Tien Cheng Flour Mill	Szechwan	500
Hochwan Flour Mill	Szechwan	400
Sienfeng Flour Mill	Shensi	5,000
Hwa Feng Flour Mill	Shensi	3,400
Fu Hsin Flour Mill's Paoki Branch	Shensi	2,000
Ta Hsin Flour Mill	Shensi	1,200
Hwo Hs Flour Mill	Shensi	500
San Tai Flour Mill	Shensi	400
Siang Feng Flour Mill	Shensi	400
Ta Hsin Flour Mill	Kweichow	500
Kwangsi Flour Mill	Kwangsi	500
Hsin Hsin Flour Mill	Hunan	150
Lantien Flour Mill	Hunan	200
Kia Nung Flour Mill	Yunnan	500
Jung Hsin Flour Mill	Kansu	500
TOTAL		21,750

Nine factories are producing rolled tobacco in the interior. Szechwan tobacco is widely used, while tobacco paper is

also largely manufactured in Free China. The distribution and production of tobacco factories may be seen in Table 34:

TABLE 34.—ROLLED TOBACCO PRODUCTION IN FREE CHINA

NAME OF FACTORY	Location	Daily Production in Boxes
Nanyang Brothers Tobacco Co.	Szechwan	25
Chu Yi Tobacco Co.	Szechwan	20
Ta Tung Tobacco Co.	Szechwan	1
Kweichow Tobacco Co.	Kweichow	7
Kwangsi Tobacco Co.	Kwangsi	18
Tai Feng Tobacco Co.	Shensi	30
Hwa Hsin Tobacco Co.	Shensi	10
China Hwa Lung Tobacco Co.	Kansu	5
Hwa Sung Tobacco Co.	Kiangsi	3
TOTAL		119

(7) Electrical Power.—The Ministry of Economic Affairs is helping private power plants to expand their capacities. Among those aided are the Chungking Power Plant, the Chengtu Power Plant, and a number of power stations belonging to private factories.

The Ministry's policy in developing electrical power is to create electrical power networks to meet the demand of the scattered industries. The development of industrial areas is the wartime policy of industrial reconstruction, hence the creation of electrical power networks in decentralized localities is needed.

INDUSTRIAL COOPERATIVES

The Chinese Industrial Cooperatives was founded in Hankow in the fall of 1938. Its mission is to assist in economic reconstruction by the production of daily necessities for both military and non-military uses and to establish a sound cooperative basis for small industries to be scattered throughout the country.

To fulfill this mission, the Chinese Industrial Cooperatives have been following a plan calling for the creation of three zones of industrial cooperatives. First, a zone of heavy industry should be created in the interior. Second, a middle zone should be created stretching from Kansu in the Northwest to Fukien in the Southeast in a large arc along the fighting line. Here there is no immediate danger of fighting, but constant enemy air attacks necessitate the decentralization of the cooperatives. Third, a zone of "guerilla" cooperatives should be created in the war and occupied areas. These cooperatives should be small and mobile in order to meet the changing situation.

In accordance with this plan, a "big offensive" was launched late in 1938, and in a period of less than a year, more than 1,000 cooperatives were organized. The first one was established in September, 1938, in Paoki, Shensi. The C.I.C. now controls 1,590 societies with a membership of 22,680. Its status has been fixed as a social organization under the Executive Yuan.

The following review is confined to the organization, growth, financial condition, education and welfare, international interests, and other activities of the C.I.C.

I. Organization.—The highest governing body of the C.I.C. is the Board of Directors, of which the president is Dr. H. H. Kung, Vice-President of the Executive Yuan and concurrently Minister of Finance, who from the very beginning has been the chief sponsor of the movement. To assist the president is a standing committee of three who give much time in advising the staff in regard to policies and plans.

In charge of actual administration is the Central Headquarters, formerly in Hankow and now in Chungking. Under the direction of a secretary-general are departments of field work, finance, and promotion, and a service section. The department of field work is in charge of organization, engineering, and supply and marketing. The department of finance controls accounting, auditing and loans. The department of promotion look after promotion, coordination, education and welfare, and research and statistics. The service section takes care of general correspondence and files, business and personnel registration.

The direction of the cooperatives throughout the nation is placed in the hands of 86 depots in 18 provinces. These depots are divided among seven regions, each with a regional headquarters, namely:

- (1) Northwest: Comprising Shensi, Kansu, Ningsia, Chinghai and Hupeh;
- (2) Chwan-Kang: Comprising Szechwan and Sikang;
- (3) Southwest: Comprising Hunan and Kwangsi;
- (4) Tien-Chien: Comprising Yunnan and Kweichow;
- (5) Southeast: Comprising Kiangsi, Kwangtung and Fukien;
- (6) Tsin-Yu: Comprising Shansi and Honan; and
- (7) Che-Wan: Comprising Chekiang and Anhwei.

The organization of an individual cooperative is democratic. The main points of the revised model constitution of the Chinese Industrial Cooperatives, relating to organization and management, are:

- (1) Membership is open to all qualified workers up to the maximum number justified by the economic condition of the business.

- (2) The minimum number of members in each cooperative is seven.
- (3) Each member has only one vote, irrespective of the number of shares he may hold.
- (4) Interest on share capital is limited.
- (5) Distribution of net earnings is made on the basis of a bonus on wages.
- (6) The liability for loans in ratio to the share capital of each cooperative must not exceed 20 : 1.
- (7) Supreme authority in each cooperative is vested in the Central Meeting which elects a Board of Directors and a Supervisory Committee.
- (8) The Board of Directors has to conduct the business efficiently and cooperatively, subject to principles laid down by the Central Meeting. The Supervisory Committee audits accounts and supervises the work of the Board of Directors. The Central Meeting decides on the division of profits at the end of the year, approves the election of new members, expels members when necessary, and fixes salaries and wage scales. (The Board of Directors may hire a manager, but in the smaller cooperatives usually one of the members, who is on the Board of Directors, serves as manager).
- (9) The net profit at the end of the year, after reduction of a maximum of ten per cent for depreciation and interest on share capital, is divided as follows :
 - 20-30 per cent for reserve funds ;
 - 10 per cent for emergency uses or contribution to the C.I.C.;
 - 10 per cent to the staff as bonus ;
 - 10 per cent for Common Welfare Fund ; and
 - 40-50 per cent to members and workers as bonus.

When seven or more persons wish to organize an industrial cooperative, they draw up a plan and budget, to be submitted to the C.I.C. depot in their locality for study and investigation. Upon approval of the plan, the depot organizes and registers the new society as one of the cooperatives and extends to it all possible financial and technical assistance. The depot may extend loans out of the C.I.C. funds, or it may introduce it to a bank for loans, in which case the guarantee of the depot is usually required. The relationship of the depots to the cooperatives is general supervision, direction and advice.

The cooperatives are encouraged to organize themselves into a federation which handles the supply and marketing for the member cooperatives as well as educational and welfare work with the help of the C.I.C. regional headquarters. Local federations are expected to form regional federations, and from the regional federations a National Federation will be established. The National Federation will then take over the functions now performed by the present C.I.C. Central Headquarters, thus bringing to the full realization the highest ideal of the movement, *i.e.*, the cooperatives will govern themselves through their own federation.

The present policy of the C.I.C. may be summarized as follows :

- (1) Equal attention is being paid to the increase of the number and the improvement of the quality of the cooperatives. A deliberate policy of consolidation has caused the reorganization of many cooperatives and the dissolution of others.
- (2) Structure for marketing is being enlarged and strengthened.
- (3) Rural and war area cooperatives are being developed. Concrete results have been achieved in the Shansi-Honan and Chekiang-Anhwei regions.
- (4) Basic industries are being developed to achieve self-sufficiency and to promote better light industries.
- (5) More loans are being secured from both central and provincial government banks.

- (6) More promotion committees are being organized both at home and abroad to get more assistance.
- (7) The watchword for the development of industrial cooperatives in 1942 was "double the membership and triple the production."

The principles for the organization of new industrial cooperative societies are:

- (1) Investigations must be made regarding the supply of raw materials, labor, capital and production tools as well as communications and transportation facilities before the organization of any new cooperatives.
- (2) Greater efforts should be exerted for the organization of medium and small-size cooperatives of basic industries, such as metallurgical, machinery and chemical industries, as a step to help develop light industries and handicrafts.
- (3) The organization of industrial cooperative unions should be completed to facilitate the transportation, marketing, storage and the purchase of materials. Standardization should be achieved.

For the readjustment of the existing societies, the C.I.C. has adopted the *Regulations Governing the Readjustment of Industrial Cooperatives in Different Localities*. The main points of these regulations are:

- (1) Cooperatives engaged in handicrafts should be scattered and developed in the homes of the members in order to reduce the cost of production. The C.I.C. supplies materials and collects finished products.
- (2) Cooperatives engaged in machine industries should be grouped together in order to achieve better coordination, but they should be located in safe places to avoid unnecessary losses.

- (3) Cooperatives engaged in the production of goods involving seasonal changes should engage themselves in other work during leisure periods.
- (4) Cooperatives engaged in similar work in the same locality should be amalgamated if they are short of capital and are not able to continue production.
- (5) Cooperatives whose organization is not sound and too difficult to reform should be dissolved.
- (6) Cooperatives, after readjustment, should be given adequate financial assistance.
- (7) Different regional headquarters should create structures for marketing as soon as possible, and the different depots should promote and supervise the organization of cooperative unions. Marketing funds needed by cooperative unions will be supplied by the headquarters.

The above-mentioned measures have been put into force since the beginning of 1941, and are the causes for the decrease in the number of cooperatives at the end of 1941 and in the first half of 1942.

II. The Development of the C.I.C.—There were 1,590 industrial cooperatives with a total membership of 22,680 at the end of June, 1942. This registered a decrease of 270 societies and 6,604 members as compared with June, 1941. The figures have been decreasing since June, 1941, due to continued readjustments and reorganization.

Of the 1,590 societies, 433 are in southeastern provinces of Kiangsi, Fukien and Kwangtung, while 325 are scattered in the northwestern provinces of Shensi, Kansu, Ningxia and Chinghai. Szechwan and Sikang have 247, Hunan and Kwangsi 246, and Yunnan and Kweichow 158. There are 118 in the frontline provinces of Shansi and Honan, and 63 in Chekiang and Anhwei.

Most of the cooperatives are engaged in textile work, numbering 584 or 36.7 per cent of the total number of societies. Chemical works rank second. Mining projects and machine shops draw considerable attention of the cooperatives. (See Tables 35, 36 and 37.)

TABLE 35.—THE DEVELOPMENT OF C.I.C. (DECEMBER 1938-JUNE 1942)

YEAR	No. of Societies	No. of Members	SHARE CAPITAL		Loans Outstanding \$	Monthly Production \$
			Subscribed \$	Paid-up \$		
1938 (December)	69	1,149	16,292	10,206		
1939 (June)	724	9,534	163,188	91,842		
1939 (December)	1,284	15,625	416,108	236,122	2,607,302	
1940 (June)	1,612	21,330	714,996	488,214	5,469,862	5,783,450
1940 (December)	1,789	25,682	1,219,347	843,245	6,000,850	9,392,154
1941 (June)	1,867	29,284	1,835,793	1,357,858	12,520,365	14,246,595
1941 (December)	1,737	23,088	2,348,084	1,972,204	13,893,045	14,478,892
1942 (June)	1,590	22,680	5,645,558	4,553,392	15,727,857	24,022,944

Source: The Chinese Industrial Cooperatives

TABLE 36.—CLASSIFICATION OF C.I.C. BY REGIONS (JUNE 1942)

REGION	No. of Societies	No. of Members	SHARE CAPITAL		Loans Outstanding \$	Monthly Production \$
			Subscribed \$	Paid-up \$		
Northwest	325	4,019	1,214,715	728,194	3,618,041	5,774,845
Chwan-Kang	247	4,800	2,194,775	1,921,432	3,152,112	4,411,285
Southcast	433	5,395	715,755	572,963	3,519,715	1,774,616
Southwest	246	3,485	408,868	327,055	2,155,441	9,471,517
Tien-Chien	158	2,497	839,324	785,124	2,082,444	2,027,765
Tsin-Yu	118	1,610	183,748	167,217	616,597	327,052
Che-Wan	63	874	88,373	51,407	583,507	235,864
TOTAL	1,590	22,680	5,645,558	4,553,392	15,727,857	24,022,944

NOTE :—Provinces included in the Regions are as follows :—

Northwest—Shensi, Kansu, Ningsia and Chinghai.

Chwan-Kang—Szechwan and Sikang.

Southeast—Kiangsi, Fukien and Kwangtung.

Southwest—Hunan and Kwangsi.

Tien-Chien—Yunnan and Kweichow.

Tsin-Yu—Shansi, Honan and Hupeh.

Che-Wan—Chekiang and Anhwei.

Source: The Chinese Industrial Cooperatives

TABLE 37.—CLASSIFICATION OF C.I.C. BY INDUSTRIES (JUNE, 1942)

INDUSTRIES	NUMBER OF COOPERATIVES								No. of Mem- bers	Loans Out- standing \$	Monthly Production \$
	Northwest	Chwan-Kang	Southeast	Southwest	Tien-Chien	Tsin-Yu	Che-Wan	TOTAL	Percentage		
Machine and Metal Works	12	7	20	6	4	3	5	57	3.6	1,600,786	1,458,340
Mining	73	8	21	1	...	8	...	111	7.1	196,836	42,883
Textile	101	141	44	142	97	45	14	584	36.7	5,233,985	12,157,056
Tailoring	32	20	35	22	15	23	12	159	10.0	1,209,852	2,768,038
Chemical	40	46	160	31	13	22	10	322	20.2	4,083,906	3,310,663
Foodstuff	15	6	25	5	7	9	3	70	4.4	610,965	1,008,249
Stationery Supplies	7	6	17	1	4	6	2	43	2.7	929,090	901,431
Carpentry and Masonry	22	5	63	8	4	1	3	106	6.7	589,739	453,744
Transportation	2	...	2	3	7	0.4	46,750	15,400
Miscellaneous	21	8	46	27	14	1	14	131	8.2	1,225,948	1,907,140
TOTAL	325	247	433	246	158	118	63	1,590	...	15,727,857	24,022,944
PERCENTAGE	20.4	15.6	27.2	15.5	9.9	7.5	4.0	...	100

Source: The Chinese Industrial Cooperatives

Thirty-three cooperative unions have been organized in the seven regions throughout the country. The distribution of these unions may be seen in Table 38.

**TABLE 38.—DISTRIBUTION OF INDUSTRIAL COOPERATIVE UNIONS
(DECEMBER, 1942)**

REGION	No. of Unions	Location
Northwest	8	Paoki, Tienshui, Lanchow, Nancheng, Ankang, Shuangshihpu, Fengsiang, Lungshien
Chwan-Kang	9	Chungking, Wanhsien, Kwangyuan, Liangshan, Jungchang, Santai, Kiangtsin, Kikiang, Chengtu
Southwest	5	Shaoyang, Supu, Chiyang, Liukiang, Hengyang
Southeast	5	Changting, Hoping, Namyung, Meihsien, Yungan
Tien-Chien	3	(Not reported)
Tsin-Yu	3	Chenping, Laohokow, Lushan
Che-Wan	0	
TOTAL	33	

III. Capital and Loans.—The total capitalization of the C.I.C. was estimated at \$25,000,000 by June, 1942. Of this amount, 35 per cent was supplied by the Government, about 20 per cent from paid-up capital, and the rest mainly by loans from banks. The Executive Yuan has approved the appropriation of \$60,000,000 for the development

of the C.I.C., to be allocated in monthly instalments. Beginning from July, 1942, a sum of \$5,000,000 has been paid each month.

The C.I.C. is receiving loans from both central and local government banks. The following table shows the total loan situation:

**TABLE 39.—LOANS EXTENDED TO THE C. I. C.
(UNIT: DOLLARS)**

NAME OF BANK	Amount of Loans	To Be Used in
Joint Board of the Four Government Banks	5,000,000	All regions
Bank of China	5,200,000	\$2,000,000 in Chwan-Kang Reg., \$1,000,000 each in Northwest, Southwest, and Tien-Chien Regs., \$200,000 in Southeast
Joint Board's Hongkong Office	1,000,000	Southeast
Farmers' Bank of China	500,000	Northwest
Kwangtung Provincial Bank	5,500,000	Southeast
Shensi Provincial Bank	500,000	Northwest
Kansu Provincial Bank	500,000	Northwest
Chungking Municipal Cooperative Bank	1,000,000	Chungking
Kincheng Bank	200,000	Northwest
Hunan Provincial Bank	100,000	Southwest
Chekiang Provincial Bank	400,000	Che-Wan Region
Yunnan Provincial Cooperative Bank	3,000,000	Tien-Chien Region
TOTAL	22,900,000	

IV. Education and Welfare.—Educational and welfare features of the C.I.C. distinguish the industrial cooperatives from ordinary factories. Members of the cooperatives and their families are taught to be self-reliant, self-respecting and efficient workers. The C.I.C. depots sponsor programs of general and co-operative education and give technical training to applicants, especially refugees, preparatory to organizing them into cooperative societies. Youngsters between 12 and 16 are recruited and trained especially as technicians. Primary schools are opened for the children of the cooperative members with a view to training them as cooperators.

Welfare features of the C.I.C. include the establishment of nurseries, hospitals, clinics, schools, consumers' cooperatives,

and recreational centers. A typical industrial cooperative community is composed of, among other things, a recreational hall, a library or reading room, a nursery, one or two primary schools, and a clinic. There are five full-fledged C.I.C. hospitals, and more will be opened.

The highest training organ of the C.I.C. is the Advanced Class for the Training of Industrial Cooperative Personnel, jointly managed by the C.I.C. and the University of Nanking now in Chengtu. Regional headquarters separately train both administrative and technical personnel.

The progress of the educational and welfare program of the C.I.C. may be seen in the following two tables:

TABLE 40.—TRAINING OF C. I. C. PERSONNEL

YEAR	Administrative Personnel	Technical Personnel	Training of Members	TOTAL
1939	485	216	70	771
1940	148	95	1,139	1,382
1941	195	224	734	1,153
1942		140	516	656
TOTAL	828	675	2,459	3,962

Source :—The Chinese Industrial Cooperatives

TABLE 41.—WELFARE PROJECTS OF THE C. I. C.

REGION	Hospitals	Clinics	Nurseries	Consumer's Coops	C. I. C. Hostels	C. I. C. Cafeterias	Clubs	C. I. C. Primary Schools
Central Hdqrs.	...	1	...	1
Northwest	2	5	2	4	3	3	4	5
Southwest	...	2	1	...	1	...	11	3
Southeast	1	3	1	2	1	...	4	1
Chwan-Kang	1	4	1	2	2	4	4	1
Tien-Chien	...	2	...	1	2	...
Tsin-Yu	...	4	1	...	3	4
Che-Wan	1	2	2	...
TOTAL	5	23	5	10	8	7	30	14

Source : The Chinese Industrial Cooperatives

V. Other Activities of the C.I.C.—Other activities of the C.I.C. include transportation and marketing of the finished products, technical improvement, the organization of industrial cooperatives in war areas and in rural districts as well as for wounded soldiers, the manufacture of army blankets, and assistance in the promotion of general welfare enterprises.

Structures for the transportation and marketing of the finished products have been created throughout the C.I.C. regions. The Executive Yuan has appropriated \$5,000,000 for this purpose. The distribution of this fund is as follows: \$1,500,000 for the Central Headquarters, \$900,000 for the Northwest Region, \$850,000 for the Chwan-Kang Region, \$600,000 for the Southeast Region, \$450,000 for the Southwest Region, \$300,000 for the Tien-Chien Region, and \$200,000 each for the Tsin-Yu and Che-Wan Regions. Sales offices have been opened in all regions with general sales headquarters at Chungking.

Constant improvement in the technique of production is the keynote with the C.I.C. It is realized that C.I.C. products must stand on their own merits, especially after the termination of the war, when certain factors now favorable to small industries and decentralized industries during wartime will disappear and when competition will be keen. The Central Headquarters of the C.I.C. maintains an engineering section whose function is to study possible improvements in the technique and methods of production. An experimental laboratory in the Northwest, conducted with the cooperation of the Shensi provincial government, has achieved notable results along the line of chemical and mining industries. The Southeast Technical Research Institute at Kanhsien, Kiangsi, has done much to improve paper-making and tanning. At Chengtu, experiments are being made to improve production and technique in textile. Other examples of C.I.C. technical improvements include charcoal-burning engines in the Southeast and the water-wheels of the Northwest. These improvements are not in the form of spectacular inventions. Rather they are the introduction and adoption of simple techniques and methods which have done a great deal to accelerate and improve production as well as cut down the cost of production under tremendous difficulties.

The Executive Yuan has set aside \$4,000,000 for the organization of industrial cooperatives in war areas. Of the sum, \$490,000 are for the Northwest Region, \$1,630,000 for the Tsin-Yu Region, \$1,340,000 for the Che-Wan Region, and \$40,000 for the Taian Depot in Shantung now temporarily under the Tsin-Yu Regional Headquarters. The Tsin-Yu and Che-Wan regional headquarters are specially charged with the mission of developing war area industrial cooperatives. Other regional headquarters are also developing war area cooperatives to meet the needs in the frontline provinces.

For the development of industrial cooperatives in rural districts, the C.I.C. has adopted a set of regulations, aiming at the coordination between agricultural and industrial enterprises in the interior. The principles for the organization of industrial cooperatives in rural areas, as provided for in these regulations, are:

- (1) To industrialize existing rural handicrafts,
- (2) To improve the processing of rural products and by-products,
- (3) To develop small-scale electric power and heavy industries,
- (4) To increase the farmers' income through the increase of production,
- (5) To utilize local raw materials, and
- (6) To develop household handicrafts and small industries.

For the relief of wounded soldiers and the families of frontline soldiers, the C.I.C. organizes special cooperatives to enable them to earn a living with the cooperation of the Friends of the Wounded Society, the Chinese Red Cross Society, and organs in charge of wounded soldier affairs. One of the best things these societies do for the members, particularly for the wounded soldiers, is to give them a trade together with a sense of security, which often enables the disabled soldiers to get married and settle down. The C.I.C. sees the tremendous significance of these cooperatives, providing employment for a group of men who would otherwise remain idle and useless and pointing to a way in which the millions of Chinese soldiers can be rehabilitated after the conclusion of the war.

TABLE 42.—INDUSTRIAL COOPERATIVES OF WOUNDED SOLDIERS AND FAMILIES OF SOLDIERS

<i>Regions</i>	<i>No. of Societies</i>	<i>No. of Members</i>
Northwest	4	100
Chwan-Kang	3	85
Southeast	23	667
Southwest	19	393
Tien-Chien	2	55
TOTAL	51	1,300

The C.I.C., has manufactured 3,000,000 army blankets for the Ministry of Military Affairs. The Northwest Regional Headquarters supplies the major portion of these blankets, while the Szechwan-Sikang Regional Headquarters is responsible for the rest. The Ministry of Military Affairs takes an active part in directing supervising and the production of the blankets.

VI. International Interest.—One of the distinguished features of the C.I.C. movement is the widespread international interest it has aroused from the very beginning. This interest was crystallized in the formation of promotion committees, first in Hongkong, then in Manila and later in the United States and Great Britain. In the United States, the C.I.C. Promotion Committee is an important participating organization in the United China Relief, Inc., while in Great Britain, plans are being formulated for a campaign to raise funds and capital for the C.I.C. Contributions from both foreign friends and overseas Chinese have produced gratifying results in accelerating the development of the C.I.C. Promotion committees have also been organized within China, such as in Chengtu, Sian, Nancheng, and a number of cities in the Southwest and the Southeast.

CONTROL OF INDUSTRIAL MATERIALS

The control of industrial materials has been enforced over iron and steel, cement, caustic soda, machine tools, and dyes. The Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration is on charge of the control.

The control of machine tools and dyes is limited to the registration of the materials in use or in stock, while that of iron and steel, cement, and caustic soda is wider in sphere. The following is a review of the control of iron and steel, cement, and caustic soda.

I. Iron and Steel.—The control of iron and steel is based on the *Regulations Governing the Control of Iron and Steel*, promulgated by the Ministry of Economic Affairs on January 4, 1940. It was first placed in the hands of the Iron and Steel Control Commission, which was merged with the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration in February, 1942.

Measures for the control of iron and steel are: (1) registration of the production, supply and consumption of iron and steel, (2) suppression of hoarding and speculation and fixing of iron and steel prices, and (3) increase of production.

The Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration started to register stocked iron and steel in Chungking as from May 1, 1942. In two months' time, 583 iron and steel mining enterprises and dealers registered with the Administration. In the first six months of 1942, the amount of iron and steel approved for transportation in 11 interior provinces totalled 21,800.51 metric tons, valued at \$2,028,633,680. Priority rating has been adopted for the purchase of iron and steel. All purchases should be first approved by the Administration and should be accompanied by licenses issued by the Administration.

The control of the production of iron and steel has achieved the following results: steel production increased by two times at the end of 1941 as compared with February 1940, when the control was enforced, and iron by more than two times. National defense enterprises have the priority to purchase all kinds of iron and steel materials. The prices of iron and steel registered very little increases.

II. Cement.—The control of cement was transferred to the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration in January, 1942, when the Cement Control Commission was abolished. Measures for the control of cement are: (1) direction and supervision of the production and consumption of cement, and (2) the fixing of distribution.

As a result of the control, the production of cement was increased to a considerable amount in 1942 in comparison with 1941. The Szechwan Cement Plant produced 55,248 barrels of cement in the first half of 1942, 14,745 barrels more than in the second half of 1941. The Central China Cement Plant

produced 32,303 barrels, about 3,000 barrels more than the second half of 1941, while the Kunming Cement Plant produced 4,000 more. The Kweichow Cement Plant began production in March, 1942, while the Kiangsi, Kwangsi, and Kia Hwa cement factories were all scheduled to begin operation in the fall of 1942. Three other plants are producing more cement and hydraulic lime. Tables 43 and 44 show the production and distribution of cement and hydraulic lime produced by five large cement factories.

TABLE 43.—PRODUCTION AND SALE OF CEMENT AND HYDRAULIC LIME PRODUCED BY FIVE LARGE CEMENT FACTORIES IN THE FIRST SIX MONTHS IN 1942

(Unit: Barrels)

NAME OF PLANT	Pro- duction	Sale
Szechwan Cement Plant	55,248	50,441
Central China Cement Plant	32,303	44,473
Kunming Cement Plant	9,903	9,013
Kweichow Cement Plant	689	685
Kien Cheng Hydraulic Lime	3,813	4,118
TOTAL	101,956	108,730

NOTE:—Central China and Kien Cheng sold more than they produced as shown in this table because a portion sold was produced in 1941.

TABLE 44.—THE DISTRIBUTION OF CEMENT IN FIRST SIX MONTHS OF 1942

(UNIT: BARRELS)

ITEMS	Szechwan Cement Plant		Central China Cement Plant		Kunming Cement Plant		Kweichow Cement Plant		Kien Cheng Hydraulic Lime Plant		Total	
	Amount	Percentage	Amount	Percentage	Amount	Percentage	Amount	Percentage	Amount	Percentage	Amount	Percentage
Military Works	30,080	59.63	1,978	4.45	1,992	22.10	36	5.26	2,784	6.61	36,870	33.8
Communication	4,949	9.81	1,652	30.68	1,005	11.15	364	53.14	20	0.49	19,990	18.28
Hydraulic Engineering	1,670	3.31	305	3.3	10	1.46	63	1.53	2,048	1.78
Industrial Uses	12,278	24.34	1,369	3.09	788	53.12	182	26.57	963	2.37	19,580	18.00
Schools	29	0.06	6	0.01	12	0.13	2	0.29	49	0.4
Banks	324	0.64	5	0.01	317	3.52	63	9.19	100	2.43	809	0.64
Others	1,111	2.21	27,463	61.76	594	6.59	28	4.09	188	4.57	29,384	27.02
TOTAL	50,441	100.00	4,374	100.00	9,013	100.00	685	100.00	4,118	100.00	108,730	100.00

III. Caustic Soda. The control of caustic soda was enforced in November, 1941, and was further tightened after the outbreak of the Pacific War in December, 1941. The principle is to give preference to soap

and candle manufacturing factories, paper mills, and oil refining and dyeing plants. Purchases are to be made only upon the presentation of licenses from the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration.

The distribution of caustic soda under the control of the Administration in the first six months of 1942 was as follows :

TABLE 45.—DISTRIBUTION OF CAUSTIC SODA, JANUARY-JUNE 1942

KINDS OF FACTORY	Amount Allotted in Kilograms
Paper making	113,200
Dyeing	40,880
Soap making	124,910
Oil refining	22,920
Others	37,950
TOTAL	339,860

Soda manufacturers are making every effort to increase the production of liquid caustic soda under the supervision of the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration to meet the increasing demand for caustic soda, which was largely imported before the Pacific War broke out.

LABOR CONDITIONS

I. WARTIME LABOR POLICY AND ADMINISTRATION

The highest guiding principle for wartime labor administration and the formulation of a wartime labor policy is stated in Article XXV of the *Program of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction*, which stipulates that the people should be mobilized through the formation and strengthening of all kinds of people's organizations, including labor organizations.

Based on this principle, the Ministry of Social Affairs has been following a wartime labor policy which includes: (1) strengthening labor union structure, (2) promoting and encouraging social welfare, (3) organizing workers in war and guerilla areas, and (4) bringing about closer cooperation with the international labor movement.

Following the promulgation of a number of separate regulations governing wartime labor administration, the *National General Mobilization Act* was enforced on May 5, 1942. Several articles in the Act are connected with labor administration. Concerning the utilization of manpower during wartime, the Act provides that the Government, whenever necessary, may restrict the number of staff members and workers employed by government organs, public bodies, firms and shops, and private households, and may order

the people to report to government organs concerned on the duties and abilities of people in their service (or in their employment, and may conduct investigations. (Articles XII and XIII.) Article X provides that the Government, in conscripting the people for National General Mobilization affairs, should make appropriate distribution in accordance with their age, sex, physique, education, skill, experience, and their original occupations. Article XI authorizes the Government to effect or readjust the acceptance or resignation of positions, employment and unemployment, and salaries and wages.

Regrading labor itself, the Government, in accordance with Article XIV of the Act, may issue ordinances to prevent or settle labor disputes, and may strictly prohibit lockouts, strikes, go-slow strikes and other acts hampering production.

A labor policy was formulated in October, 1942, at the First National Social Administration Conference, the first of its kind ever held in China. The draft was adopted at the Conference and has been sent to the Supreme National Defense Council for approval and adoption. This draft is the first complete program for the realization of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's labor policy. The full text reads:

A DRAFT OUTLINE OF LABOR POLICY

I. Aims of the Labor Policy.

1. To strengthen labor organizations,
2. To raise the workers' social position,
3. To improve the workers' livelihood,
4. To readjust the distribution of workers,
5. To promote cooperation between workers and employers,
6. To increase production,
7. To meet the needs for national defense, and
8. To strengthen international labor cooperation.

II. Sphere of Application of the Labor Policy.

1. To those who are employed in a fixed profession or enterprise with the exception of those responsible for the direction and supervision of the organization.
2. To those laborers who are engaged in manual work without an employer.

III. Outline of the Labor Policy.

1. Labor organizations.

- (1) Special and ordinary labor organizations shall be separately formed.
- (2) The various kinds of labor organizations may extend their organization from *hsien* or municipal organizations to national unions.
- (3) Both vertical (such as provincial, *hsien*, or municipal) and horizontal (such as organizations of various industries) organizations should be set up.
- (4) The organization of labor unions may include both the employees and workers with the exception of those responsible for the direction and supervision of the organization.
- (5) Employees of firms and shops may organize unions.

2. Workers' rights.

- (1) The workers possess the right of holding meetings and organizing unions.
- (2) The labor unions possess the right of collective bargaining.
- (3) The labor unions possess the right of striking.

Workers in military industries do not possess the right of organizing unions. Special unions of public enterprises do not possess the right of striking and collective bargaining. Special unions of privately-owned public utility and communication enterprises possess the right of collective bargaining but not the right of striking.

3. Labor conditions.

(1) Wages :

- (a) An equal reward for an equal amount of work should be taken as the principle for fixing wages.
- (b) The lowest equitable wage rate shall be fixed by competent authorities with the cost of living in their respective localities at the time of fixing as a basis.

(2) Working hours :

- (a) Eight hours a day and forty-eight hours a week shall be taken as the principle.

- (b) There shall be a rest for twenty-four consecutive hours every week.
- (c) Women and child workers shall not be engaged in night shifts.
- (d) There should be fixed holidays, and wages shall be paid on these days.

(3) Protection of women and child workers :

- (a) Women and child workers shall not be engaged in heavy or dangerous work.
- (b) Leaves and medical assistance shall be granted to women workers during childbirth.
- (c) Chances for apprentices and child workers to receive citizen's or supplementary education shall not be hampered.

(4) Labor efficiency :

- (a) Scientific management shall be adopted.
- (b) Work contests shall be held.
- (c) A standard rate for production shall be fixed.
- (d) Training of laborers and apprentices shall be given.

(5) Distribution of laborers :

- (a) Registration and statistics of laborers shall be made.
- (b) The supply and demand of labor shall be readjusted.
- (c) Vocational guidance shall be given to the workers.

(6) Labor service :

- (a) Voluntary labor service from both sexes shall be enlisted.
- (b) Labor service during leisure time shall be promoted.
- (c) Labor conscription shall be promoted.

(7) Labor insurance :

- (a) Health and accident insurance shall be first instituted.
- (b) Insurance shall be extended to the aged and disabled and to the unemployed.

(8) Labor welfare :

- (a) Health and safety equipment shall be installed for the workers.
- (b) Educational and cultural measures for the workers shall be adopted.
- (c) Protection for women and child workers shall be given.
- (d) Nurseries shall be established.
- (e) Labor cooperative, savings and other welfare measures shall be adopted.
- (f) Recreational and physical education for the workers shall be promoted.
- (g) Legal procedure shall be simplified for workers involved in cases of litigation and fees charged for such cases shall be reduced.
- (h) Organs in charge of state-owned enterprises shall grant subsidies for special labor unions to start labor welfare projects.

(9) Factory and mine inspection :

- (a) The central inspection system shall be adopted for factory and mine inspection.
- (b) The lowest standard for safety and health equipment in factories, mines and other important working places shall be fixed.

(10) Cooperation between workers and employers :

- (a) A standard collective contract shall be written.
- (b) Factory committee system shall be promoted.

(11) International labor cooperation :

- (a) The Three People's Principles shall be publicized among international workers to enable them to understand the spirit of China's national reconstruction.
- (b) China shall participate in meetings convened by the International Labor Office.
- (c) China shall ratify international labor conventions

which fit her national conditions.

- (d) China shall assist in affairs engaged in and promoted by the International Labor Office.

Draft regulations governing the enforcement of the Labor Policy in wartime was also adopted at the First National Social Administration Conference. The full text of these regulations follows :

DRAFT REGULATIONS GOVERNING THE ENFORCEMENT OF THE LABOR POLICY IN TIME OF EMERGENCY

(NOTE : Unless specially provided for in these regulations, provisions in the *Outline of the Labor Policy* shall be applicable.)

I. The strengthening of labor organizations shall be based on the *Law Governing the Organization of Public Bodies in Time of Emergency* and other related laws and regulations.

(1) The basic units of various labor unions shall be strengthened.

(2) All workers shall join labor unions.

(3) Competent authorities shall appoint qualified persons to be secretaries of labor unions.

II. Members of both ordinary and special labor unions may not declare strikes.

III. Labor conditions :

(1) Wages :

(a) The Government shall restrict or investigate the payment of wages.

(b) The Government shall plan and enforce the partial payment in kind so as to stabilize the workers' livelihood.

(2) Working hours :

(a) The Government shall fix the working hours in accordance with the nature of the industries, local conditions, and wartime needs, but the working hours may not be more than 12 hours a day.

(b) A rest of 24 consecutive hours shall be given every two weeks.

(c) With the permission of competent authorities, women workers may be engaged in night shifts.

IV. Provisions in the *National General Mobilization Act* shall be applicable in controlling labor.

V. Varied measures concerning labor insurance may be adopted in accordance with the needs of workers, medical and other facilities.

VI. Labor welfare measures should be first adopted for the increase of workers' efficiency and the improvement of workers' livelihood.

VII. In factory and mine inspection attention should be paid to the health and safety of workers.

VIII. To promote international labor cooperation, workers, with the permission of competent authorities may set up an organization in order to participate in the international labor movement prior to the formation of a national labor union and to make necessary associations with labor organizations in the democratic countries such as Great Britain, the United States, and the U.S.S.R.

The highest administrative organ of social affairs in China, including labor affairs is the Ministry of Social Affairs. Specially created for the mobilization of manpower, as required in the *National General Mobilization Act*, is the Labor Bureau of the Ministry. It administers: (1) matters pertaining to the investigation, registration and statistics of manpower, (2) matters pertaining to requisition and classification of manpower, (3) matters pertaining to the coordination of the restriction and readjustments in relation to the acceptance of positions, dismissal, employment, wages and salaries, (4) matters pertaining to the coordination of the restriction of the various organs and public bodies in employing workers, (5) matters pertaining to the investigation and restriction of the number and ability of the workers employed in private households, (6) matters pertaining to the enactment of plans for and the practice of the mobilization of manpower, (7) matters pertaining to the promotion of labor service, (8) matters pertaining to the control of workers and employers, (9) matters pertaining to the legal protection of the interest of conscripted laborers, (10) matters pertaining to the coordination of organs related to the mobilization of manpower, and (11) other matters pertaining to the mobilization of manpower.

II. LABOR WELFARE

Labor welfare projects adopted by the Ministry of Social Affairs may be grouped into: (1) factory inspection, (2) labor insurance, (3) construction of public facilities for the workers, and (4) miscellaneous measures.

Labor legislation is new in China. The Chinese *Factory Law* was promulgated in 1929 and was revised in 1942. The *Factory Inspection Law* was promulgated in 1931. A number of other regulations were adopted by the former Ministry of Industry regarding factory inspection.

Following the outbreak of the present war in 1937, factory inspection was not practised to a great extent until 1941, when the Ministry of Social Affairs was placed under the Executive Yuan. A number of college graduates were given three months of special training, and beginning in February, 1942, they have been inspecting factories in the Chungking area. During the inspection, special attention is paid to health conditions, safety, accident prevention measures, child labor, and general living conditions of the workers. The inspection will be extended to the entire nation, as more personnel becomes available. Equal attention is being given to the inspection of mines.

Special regulations have been adopted to protect the interests of the workers during air-raids. Their wages are to be paid despite the interruption of work. They will be given special allowances if they sustain material losses.

Social insurance was scheduled to be instituted in 1943, according to a resolution reached at the First National Social Administration Conference. The Ministry of Social Affairs is preparing to create a Central Social Insurance Bureau in 1943 to start health and accident insurance. Insurance for the aged and disabled and for unemployment will be started after the first two kinds of insurance are instituted. Funds will be appropriated by the National Treasury, and personnel will be trained. Social insurance bureaus will be established in provinces and municipalities whenever necessary.

The Ministry of Social Affairs has prepared a draft *Social Insurance Act*, which has been sent to the Legislative Yuan through the Executive Yuan for deliberation. Meanwhile, insurance measures have already been applied to salt workers in Szechwan.

The Ministry of Social Affairs is also directing and supervising factories in undertaking matters regarding labor welfare. In March, 1942, the Ministry ordered the four largest cotton mills in Chungking to set aside a portion of the profits they made in 1941 as funds for the promotion of labor welfare. Through the assistance of the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration a number of welfare projects have been started in these factories. A special commissioner was sent to the Kansu Oil Mining Bureau to direct and supervise welfare work. A special committee has been formed to look after the welfare of the workers in the Yunnan tin mines. Special attention has been directed to the welfare of highway and salt workers.

Instructions have been given to provincial and municipal authorities for the introduction of labor welfare projects, such as the laborers' model villages and schools.

The Ministry has opened several laborers' welfare societies in Chungking to serve as models for provincial and municipal authorities to start labor welfare projects. These labor welfare societies are composed of workers' dormitories, barber shops, laundry houses, recreational centers, schools for workers and their families, reading rooms, wall papers, and other services such as vocational, legal and medical guidance and advice. The Ministry of Social Affairs has ordered provincial and municipal governments to open such societies in their respective localities.

Marking another step in promoting the welfare of employees and workers of industrial and mining enterprises, the National Government promulgated on January 26 a set of regulations governing the appropriation of a welfare fund. These regulations, known as *Regulations Governing Employees' and Workers' Welfare Fund*, contain 14 articles, covering welfare projects to be undertaken by both government-owned and privately-owned industrial and mining as well as other enterprises.

Any enterprise, according to this law, should set aside from one to five per cent of its total capital as an employees' and workers' welfare fund at the time of its inauguration. A sum equal to from two to five per cent of the total amount of salaries and wages plus allowances earned by the employees and workers should be set aside by the employers every month for the promotion of welfare

projects, while one-half of one per cent of the salary or wages plus allowances of each individual employee or worker will be taken. From five to ten per cent will be taken from the yearly profit. From 20 to 40 per cent will be taken from money realized through the sale of scraps.

For the workers who are not hired by any particular employee, labor unions concerned should appropriate 30 per cent from the total membership fee for the welfare fund. Competent government organs may grant subsidies for the promotion of labor welfare.

For the preservation and use of the welfare fund, various enterprises should create committees for the promotion of the welfare of the employees and workers. Such committees should include representatives of the labor unions concerned. Their organic laws are to be drafted by the Ministry of Social Affairs. Welfare funds should not be used for other purposes.

A fine of not more than \$1,000 will be imposed on those who do not appropriate funds for the promotion of the welfare of their employees and workers in accordance with these regulations. A fine of not more than \$500 will be imposed on those who do not report to the Ministry of Social Affairs regarding the disposal of the welfare funds. Any one misusing the funds will be punished according to law.

This set of regulations is the first of its kind adopted since the outbreak of the war in 1937. Prior to the promulgation of this law, the Ministry of Social Affairs had been directing and supervising local administrations, factory and mine authorities, and labor unions in undertaking labor welfare projects. Instructions were given to various factories to start welfare projects with funds appropriated out of profits made.

III. MODEL LABOR UNIONS

The Ministry of Social Affairs has selected 11 districts as centers for the establishment of model labor unions. Special attention is being paid to the organization and training of the members of these unions, welfare projects, and wartime service.

These model labor unions are distributed in Chungking, Chengtu, Wanhien, Neikiang, Loshan, Kweilin, Kukong, Kweiyang, Kunming, Sian, and Hengyang.

The organization of model labor unions has achieved encouraging results. Most of the 64,055 members of the 19 unions have completed training courses. Labor welfare projects include the establishment of 12 clinics, eight vocational guidance institutes, 47 workers' clubs, co-operatives, dramatic clubs, and reading rooms, six schools for the workers and their families, and measures for the settlement of industrial disputes. Workers' service corps have been organized by all the unions, including 23 air-raid service corps. The model unions also help in raising funds for different purposes and in enforcing laws and regulations relating to the stabilization of wages and the mobilization of manpower.

IV. CONTROL OF SKILLED WORKERS

The control of skilled workers is one of the most important steps that the Government has taken in its wartime labor administration. This step was taken due to two reasons: (1) shortage of skilled workers, and (2) labor poaching and turnover as a result of the shortage of skilled labor.

In view of the increasing rate of labor turnover following the outbreak of the war in 1937, the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration in September, 1938, ordered employers not to poach workers from other factories and workers not to change their employment without the consent of the employers and not to resort to sabotage under whatever conditions. To enforce these regulations, factories were advised to submit labor registration cards, with photographs attached, to the Administration. Laborers are forced to go back to their original factories in case they leave without the consent of their employers. In accordance with an order issued by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, the Administration in October, 1939, again ordered factories in all cities not to hire workers already in employment and workers not to leave their original factories. Regulations prohibiting labor poaching are numerous. Among them is one issued by the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration prohibiting the recruiting of workers in industrial centers such as Chungking, Sian, Paoki, Yuanling, Hengyang, Kweilin, Kweiyang, and Kunming. These regulations are applicable not only to private factories but to government enterprises.

Labor turnover was particularly serious in Szechwan in the first few years of the

war. In 1939, member factories of the Association of Factories Moved to Szechwan made an agreement not to poach workers from one another. The agreement stipulates that, if the workers of a certain factory shift to another factory without permission, the former factory may request the latter to send them back and may petition the Association to impose on the violating party a penalty of \$500 for each worker poached if they fail to comply with the request within three days. Upon the receipt of the petition, the Association may request, through the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration, the local government concerned to collect the fines for the Association. As the amount of fine was small, it was not as effective as expected. The practice of labor poaching was still serious. The Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration was forced to regulate wages and other treatment for different kinds of workers, first in textile mills, in order to check such malpractice. In addition, the Administration allowed textile mills to send representatives to visit each other for the purpose of checking whether the workers of one factory have been poached by the other.

In Kwangsi, the checking of labor poaching is handled by the Association of Factories Moved to Kwangsi, which has been authorized by the Kwangsi provincial government to send the violators to the authorities for punishment. The Association of Factories Moved to Shensi has promulgated a set of regulations prohibiting labor poaching with the approval of the Shensi Provincial Government. Registration is required for the employment, transfer and dismissal of laborers.

Labor poaching has been particularly serious in Kunming, where a large number of refugee factories have resumed operation. A committee for the control of skilled labor has been formed, composed of representatives of both government and private factories with the mayor of Kunming as chairman. The Kunming Municipal Government has adopted the *Rules Governing the Registration of Skilled Mechanics* for the special purpose of controlling skilled workers in the machinery industry.

The control of skilled labor was not put on a nationwide basis until April 9, 1942, when the *Regulations Governing the Control of Industrial Skilled Labor in Time of Emergency* was promulgated by the Ministry of Economic

Affairs. At the same time, the Ministry designated the seven industrial centers of Chungking, Kunming, Kweilin, Kweiyang, Sian, Chengtu, and Wanh sien as areas for the immediate enforcement of these regulations. The main points of these regulations are:

1. Skilled workers of the following industries are to be controlled:

- (1) Metallurgical,
- (2) Machinery,
- (3) Electrical manufacturing,
- (4) Chemical,
- (5) Textile,
- (6) Food,
- (7) Printing and stationery supply,
- (8) Other industries as designated by the Ministry of Economic Affairs.

2. The control of skilled labor will be enforced if the skilled workers are engaged under one of the following conditions:

- (1) In industrial enterprises,
- (2) Unemployed,
- (3) Newly coming from war areas,
- (4) Having received special training,
- (5) Operating workshops by themselves.

3. Skilled workers are required to possess certificates issued by the committee for the control of skilled labor of their respective localities after registration. Those who do not possess such certificates are not allowed to work in any factory or to conduct their own business.

4. Employment and recruiting of skilled laborers should first be approved by the local committee.

5. Those violating the provisions of these regulations are subject to punishment,

no matter whether the violators are employers or laborers.

Simultaneously promulgated with the *Regulations Governing the Control of Skilled Labor* was the *Regulations Governing the Organization of Committees for the Control of Skilled Labor in Time of Emergency*. According to these regulations, committees should be placed under *hsien* or municipal governments in *hsien* or municipalities where the control is enforced. *Hsien* magistrates or municipal mayors should be chairmen of these committees, and members of the committees include police commissioners, representatives of the Ministry of Social Affairs, the National Resources Commission, and the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration. These committees control:

1. Matters pertaining to the investigation and registration of skilled workers,
2. Matters pertaining to the distribution of skilled workers,
3. Matters pertaining to the assistance in recruiting skilled workers,
4. Matters pertaining to the suppression of unauthorized shifting of skilled workers, and
5. Other matters pertaining to the control of skilled workers.

Methods for obtaining more skilled workers include: (1) relief and recruitment of skilled workers in the war areas, (2) exemption from military service, and (3) training. A special institute for the training of skilled workers has been established to train all kinds of skilled workers, especially those for national defense industries.

V. WAGES

Wartime changes in wage rates, the real income and real wages of the workers may be seen in the following five tables:

TABLE 46.—WARTIME CHANGES OF THE RATE OF WAGES IN CHUNGKING
(Base Period: January-June, 1937)

YEAR	Index (Jan.-June, 1937=100)		Link Index (Each Preceding Year=100)	
	Industrial Workers	Occupational Workers	Industrial Workers	Occupational Workers
1937	103.7	104.7		
1938	141.9	154.9	136.8	147.9
1939	23.7	360.0	164.7	232.4
1940	346.9	897.1	148.8	349.2
1941	595.1	1962.6	111.6	218.8

SOURCE:—The Ministry of Social Affairs

TABLE 47.—REAL INCOME OF WORKERS IN CHUNGKING

YEAR	INDEX (Jan.-June, 1937=100).		LINK INDEX (Each Preceding Year=100)	
	Industrial Workers	Occupational Workers	Industrial Workers	Occupational Workers
1937	102.9	103.5
1938	179.8	167.4	174.4	161.7
1939	225.9	315.0	125.7	188.3
1940	437.0	718.2	193.5	228.0
1941	1017.6	1650.8	232.9	229.9

Source :—The Ministry of Social Affairs

TABLE 48.—CHANGES OF REAL INCOME OF WORKERS IN CHUNGKING

Period	Length	MONTHLY INCREASE(%)	
		Industrial Workers	Occupational Workers
1st	22 mont s	3.26	4.44
2nd	14 "	6.06	7.72
3rd	17 "	5.93	6.81
4th	8 "	7.10	4.40

Source :—The Ministry of Social Affairs

TABLE 49.—INDEX NUMBERS OF WAGES OF INDUSTRIAL WORKERS IN CHUNGKING

(Weighted Aggregate Average; January-June 1937=100)

YEAR	INDEX			LINK INDEX		
	Wage Rate	Real Income	Real Wage	Wage Rate	Real Income	Real Wage
1937	103.7	102.9	101.5			
1938	141.9	179.8	154.6	136.8	174.7	152.3
1939	233.7	225.9	117.8	164.7	125.7	76.2
1940	246.9	437.0	79.5	148.4	193.5	67.5
1941	595.1	1,017.6	55.3	171.6	232.9	69.5
1942						
January	744.9	1,429.2	53.7	105.3	115.1	116.1
February	802.8	1,367.9	49.6	107.8	95.7	92.4
March	823.7	1,417.1	46.5	102.6	103.6	93.6
April	935.8	1,708.9	49.8	113.6	120.7	107.2
May	981.1	1,893.9	48.2	104.9	110.8	96.9
June	1,061.5	1,997.1	50.6	108.2	105.5	104.9
July	1,070.7	2,055.6	56.6	100.9	102.9	111.9
August	1,093.6	2,389.7	55.3	109.4	116.3	97.8

Source : The Ministry of Social Affairs

TABLE 50.—INDEX NUMBERS OF WAGES OF OCCUPATIONAL WORKERS IN CHUNGKING

(Weighted Aggregate Average; January-June 1937=100)

YEAR	INDEX			LINK INDEX		
	Wage Rate	Real Income	Real Wage	Wage Rate	Real Income	Real Wage
1937	104.7	103.5	101.1			
1938	154.9	167.4	145.0	148.0	151.7	143.4
1939	360.0	315.0	183.0	232.4	188.3	126.2
1940	897.1	718.2	143.9	249.2	228.0	78.6
1941	1,962.6	1,650.8	92.1	218.8	229.9	64.0
1942						
January	2,826.3	2,300.5	91.5	106.1	97.0	83.1
February	2,849.0	2,220.8	86.0	100.8	96.5	94.1
March	2,956.6	2,327.3	81.4	103.8	104.8	94.6
April	3,237.4	2,608.6	80.7	109.5	112.1	99.2
May	3,494.8	2,828.5	86.6	108.0	108.4	94.9
June	3,713.9	2,985.2	81.2	106.3	105.5	105.9
July	3,880.3	3,114.0	86.3	104.5	104.3	106.3
August	4,050.6	3,269.1	84.4	104.4	105.0	97.9

Source: The Ministry of Social Affairs

The differences between the wage rates of industrial and occupational workers in Chungking is great. It was only 1.0 in 1937, but rose to 13.0 in 1938, 126.3 in 1939, 550.2 in 1940, and 1367.5 in 1941. The wage rates of occupational workers are, therefore, three times those of industrial workers. The difference was still increasing in 1942. In July, 1942, it was 2809.6.

The workers' real income is, however, greater than their nominal wages, for during wartime they get all kinds of allowances, such as rice and housing allowances. The real income of occupational workers is still larger than that of industrial workers, but the difference is not so great as the rate of wages. Five years of war may be divided into four periods in reviewing the wage situation. They are: (1) from July, 1937, to April, 1939, before the May bombings of

Chungking in 1939, (2) from May, 1939 to June, 1940, ending with the fall of Ichang, (3) from July, 1940, to December 1941, ending with the outbreak of the Pacific War, and (4) from December, 1941, to the end of 1942. With the only exception of the 4th period, *i.e.*, after the outbreak of the Pacific War, the rate of increase of the real income of professional workers was greater than that of industrial workers. The reason is that factories have begun to pay more to their workers than ever before in view of the expected industrial boom following the interruption of a portion of the imported goods and in consequence of the great profit they made in 1941.

The following facts may summarize the wage situation of both occupational and industrial workers. First, wages did not increase much before April, 1940, as commodity prices rose

only slightly. Second, the increase of wages became rapid after April, 1940, when commodity prices began to soar with unabated speed. The year 1941 clearly demonstrated this. Third, the difference between the wage changes of occupational and industrial workers is chiefly due to the difference of their forms of labor. The change of the wages of occupational workers is greater because they are loosely organized and are not as easily controlled as industrial workers.

The changes of real wages of occupational and industrial workers registered no great differences before 1939. As the increase of real income of occupational workers has been quicker than that of industrial workers since 1941, index numbers of real wages of occupational workers are larger than those of industrial workers. Before March, 1940, index numbers of real wages of industrial workers were above 100. Since April, 1940, they have been declining and have been fluctuating around 50 since 1941, indicating that the standard has dropped by 50 per cent as compared with the prewar period. Index numbers of real wages of occupational workers were still above 100 by September, 1940, but slumped somewhat in 1941. Since January, 1942, they have been fluctuating between 70 and 80.

The Ministry of Social Affairs began to regulate wages in December, 1940. On January 15, 1941, the Executive Yuan promulgated *Regulations Governing the Stabilization of Wages*, to be enforced first in Chungking and extended to other cities. The main points of these regulations are: (1) the formulation of a legal wage scale, (2) living conditions of the workers and the indices of commodity prices to be taken as the basis for the regulation of wages, and (3) restriction of labor turnover.

As this measure was not practical, the Ministry of Social Affairs called a meeting of representatives of government organs and other organizations concerned in Chungking on May 17, 1941, to discuss questions relating to wage stabilization in the wartime capital. It was decided that the Bureau of Social Affairs of Chungking should be responsible for the fixing of wages and that the real wage index numbers of Chungking workers in the period of January-June, 1937, should be taken as the basis for the stabilization of wages. In November, 1941, the Joint Office for the Stabilization of Wages in Chungking was created upon the suggestion of the Bureau of

Social Affairs with members appointed by the municipal government from various organizations concerned. On June 17, 1941, five cities in Szechwan were ordered to start the regulation of wages.

The regulation of wages was extended to the entire nation on January 15, 1943, following the adoption of the *Program for Strengthening Price Control*, prepared by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek and adopted by the People's Political Council in October, 1942, and again by the 10th Plenary Session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee in November, 1942. Wages and transportation charges were to be stabilized simultaneously with commodity prices in accordance with the *Regulations Governing the Enforcement of the Program for Strengthening Price Control*, announced by the Generalissimo in a circular telegram to central and local authorities concerned on December 17, 1942.

The Ministry of Social Affairs on December 19, 1942, sent a circular telegram to provincial and municipal governments in relation to the stabilization of wages. The main points of this telegram are:

- (1) Wages prevailing on November 30, 1942, should be taken as the highest rate for the fixing of wages.
- (2) Areas for the restriction of wages are to be the same with those for price control.
- (3) The restriction of wages are to be extended to the following occupations: salt, cooking oil, textile, machinery, fuel, paper, printing, flour, sugar, barber, knitting, rickshaw and sedan chair, junk transportation, carpentry, masonry, and stone work.
- (4) A committee should be organized in each locality to decide wage rates. It is to be composed of representatives of local Party headquarters, local government, local *Sun Min Chu I* Youth Corps, the chamber of commerce, the labor union, and other related organs. The local competent administrative organs are the final authority in deciding the rates. Such organs are the reconstruction department or the social affairs bureau of the provincial governments, and the *hsien* governments.

- (5) The organization and control of industrial, commercial, labor, and other related public bodies at places where the restriction of wages is enforced should be strengthened.
- (6) The above-mentioned regulations shall replace the *Regulations Governing the Stabilization of Wages*.

VI. LABOR ORGANIZATIONS

China had 4,033 registered labor unions with a total membership of 1,053,656 at the end of 1942. Of them, 3,905 were ordinary unions with 942,243 members, and 122 special unions with 114,414 members. Of the ordinary unions, occupational unions numbered 3,492 while industrial unions numbered only 129. (See Table 51.) China has about 3,000,000 workers. Before the outbreak of the present war, there were 872 registered labor unions with a total membership of 743,764. Most of them were in big cities.

Several sets of regulations have been promulgated for the control of labor unions in wartime. Among them are the *Regulations Governing the Organization of Public Bodies in Time of Emergency*, and the *Provisional Regulations Governing the Control of Labor Union in Time of Emergency*. The *National General Mobilization Act* is applicable whenever provisions in it are involved.

The *Provisional Regulations Governing the Control of Labor Unions in Time of Emergency* were promulgated by the Executive Yuan on August 21, 1941. The main points are :

- (1) The control of labor unions should be first applied to occupational unions and then extended to industrial unions.
- (2) The control covers the following matters :
 - (a) Compulsory participation in the unions by qualified workers,
 - (b) Strengthening of the organization of basic units of the unions,
 - (c) Training of officers and members of the unions,
 - (d) Dispatch of government officials to direct and supervise the work of the unions, and

- (e) Readjustment of the work and personnel of the unions whenever necessary.
- (3) Labor unions should take the following as the center of activities :
 - (a) Assisting the Government in the stabilization of wages,
 - (b) Assisting the Government in the investigation of the workers' cost of living,
 - (c) Directing their respective members in technical improvement and in the increase of production,
 - (d) Promoting labor welfare projects,
 - (e) Initiating wartime services,
 - (f) Assisting the Government in the requisition of labor.
- (4) The Government may subsidize labor unions for the prosecution of work, or order the related entrepreneurs to make appropriations.
- (5) Unions of workers of state-owned, educational, communication, and public utility enterprises are not subject to the control of these regulations.
- (6) Any one violating these regulations is subject to punishment.

Places where the control has already been enforced include 26 municipalities and *hsien* in Szechwan, 17 municipalities and *hsien* in Kwangtung, 14 municipalities and *hsien* in Hunan, five municipalities and *hsien* in Honan, four municipalities and *hsien* in Shensi, two municipalities and *hsien* in Kwangsi, and one each in Kweichow, Yunnan, and Chinghai.

The Ministry of Social Affairs is paying great attention to the training and organization of workers. In Chungking, a Workers' Service Corps was organized in 1940, comprising 31,375 workers from 26 labor unions. An Auxiliary Capital Air Raid Service Corps of 2,500 workers was also organized. Over 10,000 workers helped in transporting foodstuffs to Chungking under the direction of the Ministry. Organization has been completed among salt, railway, and highway workers throughout Free China.

TABLE 51. REGISTERED LABOR UNIONS IN CHINA
(December, 1942)

PROVINCE	GRAND TOTAL		ORDINARY UNIONS							SPECIAL UNIONS					
	Unions	Members	Provincial Unions	Hsien or Municipal Unions	Industrial Unions	Occupational Unions	Unions of Various Kinds or Workers	Others	Total	Members	UNIONS				
											Railway	Highway	Seamen's	Junk	Total
Hunan	733	194,030	...	27	34	640	2	...	703	174,908	30	30	19,122
Fukien	230	49,681	...	12	4	195	211	43,131	18	19	6,550
Szechwan	993	86,163	...	82	39	845	14	...	983	85,517	10	10	646
Chekiang	447	69,274	2	17	5	405	429	54,826	12	12	14,448
Honan	133	36,059	...	8	4	125	132	34,819	1	1	1,240
Kwangsi	125	40,919	...	10	6	101	117	37,074	8	8	3,845
Sikang	82	5,120	...	9	...	73	82	5,120	541
Kweichow	145	11,058	...	7	...	135	1	...	143	10,517	2	2	5,650
Kiangsi	192	27,010	...	20	1	167	1	...	189	21,360	...	1	184
Shensi	65	14,827	...	4	7	53	1	...	65	14,827
Kiangsu	2	14,184	1	1
Anhui	173	41,103	...	11	...	161	172	41,037	1	1	66
Hopei	168	201,284	...	4	1	160	165	199,602	3	3	1,682
Kwangtung	60	30,795	...	1	...	51	...	2	54	22,682	6	6	8,113
Yunnan	95	27,880	...	4	9	77	2	...	92	23,104	3	3	4,776
Kansu	130	11,220	...	9	11	101	7	2	130	11,220
Ninghsia	30	1,635	...	6	...	23	1	...	30	1,635
Chinghai	11	2,239	2	9	11	3,239	2	11,616
Hankow	57	63,398	3	55	51,782	1	1	510
Canton	64	73,179	63	63	72,669
Peiping	8	4,537	2	6	8	4,537
Chungking	64	26,672	3	58	...	1	63	26,672
Directly registered with Central Government	26	35,389	7	7	2,964	6	13	...	19	32,425
GRAND TOTAL	4,033	1,053,656	2	226	129	3,492	31	24	3,905	942,243	6	2	13	122	111,414

Source: The Ministry of Social Affairs

Among the unions registered with the Ministry of Social Affairs is the Chinese Seamen's Union, which has its headquarters in Chungking and 12 branch unions, 154 sub-branch unions, and 437 small units, with a total membership of 37,667. This union is constantly fighting for the better treatment of Chinese seamen, especially those on foreign ships. Another organization is the Chinese Association of Labor, composed of 52 group members and 225 members, totalling more than 350,000 persons. It acts unofficially as the national organization for workers, as the National Labor Union is not yet established. Its chief purpose is to raise the cultural level of Chinese laborers in China and to promote labor welfare.

VII.—CHINA AND THE I.L.O.

China became a member of the International Labor Organization in 1919 after

she had signed the Treaty of Saint-Germain. She participates in all activities of the I.L.O. and sends delegates to all sessions of the International Labor Congress.

The National Government appointed Mr. Li Ping-heng and Dr. Yui Chun-chi, government delegates; Mr. Chu Hsueh-fan, workers' delegate; and Mr. Kinnwei Shaw, employers' delegate, to attend the Special Session of the International Labor Conference held in New York in October, 1941. At the meeting Mr. Chu was elected a member of the Governing Body of the International Labor Office.

The I.L.O. established its China Branch in 1930. It was in Shanghai before the outbreak of the Pacific War in 1941, but is now functioning in Chungking.

CHAPTER XII

MINERAL RESOURCES

The war has necessarily changed the picture of Chinese mining industry as well as increased the knowledge of the nation's mineral deposits. Established mining enterprises in the "occupied" territories have been mostly lost to China at least for the duration of the war. The intensified studies made in the southwestern and northwestern provinces, however, have opened a new chapter hitherto unknown in Chinese mineral exploitation.

MINING LAW

The Chinese *Mining Law* as promulgated on May, 26, 1930, was revised for the third time on July 22, 1938, to meet wartime demands. The high lights of the law are:

1. All mineral resources within the boundary of the Republic of China belong to the state. No prospecting or exploitation of any mineral is allowed except when mining rights are granted by the Government according to law.

2. All citizens of the Republic of China have the rights of mining of minerals except in national mining districts and national reserves.

3. Foreign capital may be admitted in a mining company with approval from the Executive Yuan through the Ministry of Economic Affairs, subject to the following conditions:

- (a) The Chinese capital of the company shall be more than half of the total;
- (b) More than half of the directors of the company shall be Chinese citizens;

- (c) The chairman of the board of directors and the manager of the company shall be Chinese citizens.

The above rulings are applicable to private mining industries as well as to those belonging to the central or local governments.

4. Iron, petroleum, copper, and coal reserves fit for the manufacturing of coke and liquid fuel shall be prospected and exploited by the Government. They may be leased to private enterprises when it is not necessary for the Government to undertake such prospecting and exploitation. The said private enterprises are limited to citizens of the Republic of China. The Government has priority in the purchase of iron ore, petroleum, and copper ore products. Any exportation of the above-mentioned minerals shall receive the sanction of the authorities. The Ministry of Economic Affairs shall determine the standard of coal deposits fit for the manufacture of coke and liquid fuel.

5. Iron, mineral oil, coal deposits fit for the manufacture of coke and liquid fuel, tungsten, manganese, aluminum, antimony, uranium, rhodium, potassium, apatite, molybdenum, tin, mercury, bismuth and other ores specified by the Executive Yuan at the request of the Ministry of Economic Affairs, may, when necessary, be designated as national reserves and private prospecting and exploitation of the said minerals be forbidden.

MINING AREAS

The areas of private mining claims as registered with the Ministry of Economic Affairs in Free China from 1938 to 1941 are tabulated as follows:

TABLE 1.—MINING AREAS

PROVINCE	Coal	Tin	Gold	Iron	Tungsten	Antimony	Lead	Manganese	Mercury	Bismuth	Molybdenum	Cobalt	Arsenic	Phosphorus	Fluorspar	Sulphur	Graphite	Barite	Talc	Asbestos	Mica	Gypsum	Kaolin	Fireclay	Quartz Sand	Total.
Szechwan	628	...	83	34	2	2	...	4	2	4	759	
Kwangtung	21	82	32	...	18	9	5	...	2	1	...	3	...	1	2	1	7	184	
Hunan	50	17	19	14	3	1	5	2	...	1	...	1	...	1	3	3	2	122	
Kwangsi	3	53	21	...	18	2	...	10	2	1	110	
Yunnan	48	3	2	6	2	1	...	1	1	...	11	...	1	76	
Kweichow	34	...	1	3	...	8	6	2	...	54	
Shensi	43	6	1	30	
Kiangsi	21	21	
Honan	15	15	
Chekiang	1	1	10	12	
Ningsia	9	9	
Kansu	5	1	6	
Hupeh	5	5	
Anhwei	2	...	3	5	
Sikang	1	1	2	
Fukien	2	2	
TOTAL	885	155	162	64	39	20	16	13	8	3	1	1	4	1	10	4	6	1	5	1	1	3	22	6	1	1,432

Besides, 288 more claims were registered with the Ministry from January to August in 1942, in addition to 595 small gold claims registered according to the *War-time Gold Mine Claim Regulations*, up to the end of August, 1942. National reserves established between October, 1941, and August, 1942, include four iron reserves in Szechwan, one iron reserve in Yunnan, one iron reserve in Kwangtung, 11 tungsten reserves in

Hunan, one tungsten reserve in Yunnan, one coal reserve in Hunan, one coal reserve in Kweichow, six aluminum reserves in Yunnan, three aluminum reserves in Kweichow, one mineral oil reserve in Kansu, and one manganese reserve in Kweichow, totalling 31 reserves. In the same period, one national coal reserve each in Hunan and Honan and one national iron reserve in Szechwan have been leased to private enterprises for exploitation.

TABLE 2.—PREWAR MINERAL PRODUCTION OF CHINA (TONS)

(Excluding the Northeastern Provinces)

MINERALS	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Coal	18,490,971	18,585,271	20,493,342	14,938,000	15,034,000
Iron ore (Fe 35-60%+)	1,207,181	1,136,405	1,359,582	1,774,468	1,749,802(1)
Pig Iron	154,283	173,274	155,640
Steel	25,000	25,000	50,000
Mineral oil (barrels)	2,251	3,187	2,613	3,000	2,000
Manganese ore (Mn 45%+)	21,501	9,500	1,929
Tungsten ore (WO ₃ 60%+)	2,210	5,698	6,305	7,000	7,000
Molybdenum ore (Mo 45%+)	0.7	1.4	1.5
Gold (ounces)	99,450	94,608	86,926
Silver (ounces)	150,945	200,585	121,504
Copper ore	440	483	471
Zinc ore (Zn 36-42%+)	10,584	10,565	13,299	10,000	10,000
Zinc metal	57	147	136
Tin	7,253	8,358	8,004	9,000	11,000
Mercury	0.5	0.4	0.54
Antimony— Regulus	11,410	11,112	13,615	14,000	13,000
Crude	1,287	1,727	1,807
Oxide	1,408	1,327	914
Bismuth ore (Bi 40%+)	20	45	73
Arsenic ore (As 20-60%+)	1,427	1,159	1,206	1,000	1,000
Pyrite	45,000	43,000	40,000
Kaolin fireclay	791,000	796,650	805,000	1,000,000	1,000,000
Limestone	4,220,000	4,220,000	4,220,000	5,000,000	5,000,000
Rock salt	2,520,000	2,450,000	2,500,000
Gypsum	64,508	64,020	67,720
Alum	11,070	14,870	15,550	15,000	16,000
Saltpeter	5,000	4,950	5,000	5,000	5,000
Soda, natural	16,253	16,314	16,445
Sulphur	3,918	3,781	3,464
Asbestos	250	236	220
Fluorspar	3,510	4,800	5,050	7,000	8,000
Talc	1,680	3,000	3,000
Feldspar	25,077	21,589	22,780
Barite	505	3,092	9,500
Quartz sand	100,000	100,000	100,000

(1) Anhwei and Hupeh production plus those produced from native mines.

TABLE 3.—MINERAL PRODUCTION IN THE SOUTHWEST (TONS)

(Szechwan, Sikang, Yunnan, Kweichow, Kwangsi)

MINERAL	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Coal	1,973,060	2,001,042	2,105,013	2,706,811	3,060,864
Iron ore	85,000	85,000	85,000	100,000	140,000
Manganese ore	30,000	60,000	120,000
Tungsten ore	637	1,316	2,059	1,544	2,000
Gold (ounces)	39,180	40,865	47,329	64,332	69,534
Silver (ounces)	1,200	1,200	1,200	1,200	1,200
Copper ore	345	284	362	352	726
Zinc (pure)	283	264	295	286	240
Lead (pure)	482	467	467	427	480
Tin (pure)	8,745	11,850	12,004	12,532	12,000
Mercury	...	4.9	15.9	18.4	14.3
Antimony ore	6,000	6,000	6,605	7,726	7,000
Antimony, pure	967	2,153	2,045
Arsenic	95	100	80	50	25
Salt	408,300	418,600	404,850	417,900	420,000
Saltpeter	2,300	2,300	2,300	2,300	2,300
Soda	35,000	25,000	25,000	25,000	25,000
Niter	300	300	300	300	332
Sulphur	1,500	1,500	1,500	1,500	1,500
Cement	6,075	28,622	35,923

TABLE 4.—IMPORTANT MINERAL RESERVES IN CHINA AND SOUTHWEST CHINA (TONS)

MINERAL	Southwest China	China	Percentage
Coal: Anthracite	1,101,000,000
Bituminous	7,910,000,000
Lignite	1,411,000,000
Others	106,000,000
TOTAL	10,528,000,000	240,847,000,000	4.3
Iron	70,377,782	1,694,011,160	4.1
Mineral Oil (barrel)	396,802,674	1,273,000,000*	31.2
Tungsten	25,365	1,872,000	1.3
Manganese	3,638,000	20,201,609	18.0
Copper	2,589,965
Tin	52,000
Antimony	630,897	2,671,000	21.2
Phosphorus	14,551,680

* Szechwan and Shensi oil reserves.

COAL

The most reliable of all estimates of probable coal deposits of China is that made by the National Geological Survey of China in 1934 which has since been revised after new findings and further stud-

ies in the southwestern and northwestern provinces. A number of survey parties are still out in the field studying and checking up on the nation's coal deposits, especially in the Northwest. The known figures by province are as follows:

TABLE IV.—COAL RESERVES (MILLION TONS)

PROVINCE	Anthracite	Bituminous	Lignite	Estimate	Total
Anhwei	60	300	360
Chahar	17	487	504
Chekiang	22	78	100
Chinghai	500	500
Fukien	291	105	396
Heilungkiang	6	619	392	...	1,017
Honan	4,455	3,309	7,764
Hopei	981	2,088	2	...	3,071
Hunan	1,043	721	1,764
Hupeh	160	280	440
Jehol	2	573	39	...	614
Kansu	1,500	1,500
Kiangsi	216	776	992
Kiangsu	25	192	217
Kirin	2	986	155	...	1,143
Kwangsi	114	80	...	106	300
Kwangtung	50	371	421
Kweichow	748	622	1,370
Liaoning	187	1,649	1,836
Ningsia	166	322	488
Shansi	36,471	87,985	2,671	...	127,127
Shantung	26	1,613	1,639
Shensi	750	71,200	71,950
Sikang	3	501	27	...	531
Sinkiang	6,000	6,000
Suiyuan	58	396	22	...	476
Szechwan	225	5,761	5,986
Yunnan	11	946	1,384	...	2,341
TOTAL	46,089	181,960	4,692	8,106	240,847

TABLE V.—COAL PRODUCTION IN THE FIVE SOUTHWESTERN PROVINCES (TONS)

PROVINCE	Coal	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Szechwan	Bituminous	1,402,460	1,428,174	1,528,888	2,113,840	2,462,159
	Anthracite	90,000	90,000	90,000	90,000	90,000
	Total	1,492,460	1,518,174	1,618,888	2,203,840	2,552,159
Yunnan	Bituminous	102,800	102,800	103,193	108,500	111,800
	Anthracite	15,000	15,000	15,000	15,000	15,000
	Lignite	42,500	42,500	42,960	45,200	45,200
	Total	160,300	160,300	161,153	168,700	172,000
Kwangsi	Bituminous	18,300	20,068	19,800	21,800	16,800
	Anthracite	17,000	17,000	17,672	17,821	18,000
	Lignite	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
	Total	36,300	38,068	38,472	40,621	35,800
Sikang	Bituminous	6,000	6,500	6,500	6,500	6,500
	Anthracite	18,000	18,000	20,000	20,000	20,000
	Total	24,000	24,500	26,500	26,500	26,500
Kweichow	Bituminous	220,000	220,000	220,000	223,200	230,455
	Anthracite	40,000	40,000	40,000	43,950	43,950
	Total	260,000	260,000	260,000	267,150	274,405
TOTAL	Bituminous	1,749,560	1,777,542	1,878,381	2,473,840	2,827,714
	Anthracite	180,000	180,000	182,672	186,771	186,950
	Lignite	43,500	43,500	43,960	46,200	46,200
GRAND TOTAL		1,973,060	2,001,042	2,105,013	2,706,811	3,060,864

The figure is 1,940,000,000 tons more than the 1934 report. The actual coal deposits in China are probably even greater.

The most noteworthy increase in coal production is seen in the output of coal mines exploited by the Government. There are at present 23 Government coal mines. The National Resources Commission of the Ministry of Economic Affairs alone operates altogether 19 coal mines scattered in Szechwan, Yunnan, Hunan, Kweichow, Kansu, Shensi, Sikang, Kwangsi, Kwangtung and Kiangsi. Two of the coal mines in Szechwan, one in Yunnan and one in Kweichow, are

producing either metallurgical coke or semi-coke for industrial and household uses. The increase in percentage can be seen from the following table:

TABLE VI.—PRODUCTION INCREASE OF GOVERNMENT COAL MINES (1937—100%)

Year	Percentage
1937	100
1938	5,449
1939	3,704
1940	6,366
1941	10,412
1942	16,888

There is also a steady increase in the production of private coal mines in Free China as seen from the following:

TABLE VII. PRODUCTION INCREASE OF PRIVATE COAL MINES IN FREE CHINA (1940—100%).

Year	Percentage	Tons
1940	100	4,010,000 tons
1941	113	4,650,500 "
1942	123	4,933,000 "

Annual coal consumption in the five southwestern provinces amounts to 3,058,600 tons, distributed as follows:

TABLE VIII.—COAL CONSUMPTION IN THE SOUTHWEST (TONS)

Province	Industrial Use	Metalurgical Use	Communication Use	Household Use	Total ¹
Szechwan	1,200,000	30,000	180,000	1,140,000	2,550,000
Yunnan	..	8,200	21,300	142,000	171,500
Kwangsi	..	13,000	..	22,000	35,000
Kweichow	..	1,600	..	274,000	275,600
Sikang	16,000	1,000	..	9,500	26,500
Total	1,216,000	53,800	201,300	1,587,500	3,058,600
Percentage	39.7	1.7	6.6	51.9	100

PETROLEUM

Oil fields chiefly exist in Kansu, Shensi, Sinkiang, and Szechwan. Findings are also reported from Chekiang, Kweichow, and Sikang where more intensified survey is necessary to determine their economic value. Oil shale occurs in Kwangtung, Shensi, Szechwan, Kwangsi, Shansi, Chahar, Jehol, and Liaoning.

Oil reserve in China is an unknown factor, as extensive studies are still being carried on in the leading oil fields. The United States Geological Survey estimated that the Chinese oil reserve was 1,375,000,000 barrels, excluding the Fushun (Liaoning) shale-oil which was estimated by the American institution at 1,899,000,000 barrels. Thus, the national total was put at 3,274,000,000 barrels. The National Geological Survey of China estimated in 1934 that China Proper had a known reserve of 2,227,000,000 barrels, including 1,375,000,000 barrels in Shensi and Szechwan and 852,000,000 barrels from Shensi oil-shale. Besides, there were also 2,110,000,000 barrels of mineral oil in the four northeastern provinces including 2,109,000,000 barrels

from the Fushun oil-shale and less than a million barrels in Manchouli. Thus, the national total was 4,337,000,000 barrels. The estimates of both American and Chinese geological surveys, however, were conservative as the important Kansu and Sinkiang reserves were not included in their calculations. According to recent findings, rich oil fields exist on both sides of the Tien Shan Range in northern Sinkiang and the Chilienshan Range in the Kansu Corridor. It is estimated that the oil field in western Kansu is sufficient for several hundred years of large scale exploitation. And there are several such reserves along the Chilienshan Range in Kansu.

In southwest China, Szechwan is the most hopeful possible oil field. From Chungking in the east to Loshan and Kienwei in the west, Jen Shou and Tahsien in the north to Tzeliutsing in the south, oil fields are found in a number of places. Such wide distribution indicates the richness of Szechwan oil reserves. The estimated reserves of the known oil-producing territories amount to at least 396,802,672 barrels, according to the National Geological Survey of China. The figure is considered conservative. More intensified studies are necessary to determine the value of these fields and to make possible new findings. The survey places the Szechwan and Shensi oil reserves at 1,273,000,000 barrels at present.

Three of China's oil fields are producing in a scientific way. The northern Shensi field yields oil through wells dug at Yen Chang and Yungping. The Yen Chang well, first dug in 1907, is still producing oil to supply local needs. It used to yield 2,000 cattles of oil a day at a depth of 100 meters. The Yungping well produced more than 5,000 cattles a day at 70 meters. The output of both wells, however, has been reduced since the war began.

Oil fields in Kansu were geologically surveyed in 1934-1937. Prospecting work was started by the National Resources Commission in 1938 and drilling work began in 1939. It has now been proved that the oil field is very rich and capable of large-scale production. The wells already sunk are 14 in number and all are producing, three of them yielding great quantities at considerable pressure. At present, two refineries have been established, one with three sets of shell stills to produce straight distillates, is situated in the field while the other with a semi-cracking unit is situated some distance east of

the field. Both refineries are now producing gasoline together with some amount of kerosene and Diesel oil. In order to save the big loss in topping crude resulting from the straight distillation units, a 1,500-barrel refinery, complete with distillation, thermal cracking and polymerization plants and capable of producing 64% gasoline, has been ordered from the United States. A greater part of the equipment had been shipped from America when the Pacific War broke out, but on account of the unfavorable turn of the situation in Burma, a portion of the machinery was lost at Bhamo and Wanting.

Pending the arrival of new machinery ordered from America, native made equipment is still used producing a lesser percentage of gasoline. The total production is, however, increasing, and it becomes necessary to sink more wells for which new equipment is needed.

The increase of Kansu oil production is as follows:

TABLE IX.—INCREASE OF KANSU OIL PRODUCTION (1940—1900)

	1940	1941	1942
Crude Oil	100	876	7,408
Gasoline	100	286	2,425
Kerosene	100	332	1,616

Sinkiang has a modern plant by the side of the Tianshan Range. Szechwan produces about 92,000 catties of crude oil a year from natural wells. Prospecting has been going on at different localities to determine the Szechwan oil reserves.

Besides, the National Resources Commission has set up a low-temperature coal distillation plant in West Szechwan, where bituminous coal of satisfactory quality occurs in large quantities. This plant is now producing gasoline substitute, Diesel oil, crude phenol and semi-coke. The gasoline substitute produced there possesses high octane number and is good for aviation although the amount of production at present is comparatively small.

IRON

China has an estimated known iron ore reserve of 1,694,013,120 tons. Old figures may be revised as new findings are expected of survey parties now studying iron reserves in the southwestern and

northwestern provinces. The distribution of the known iron reserves is as follows:

TABLE X.—IRON ORE RESERVES IN CHINA (TONS)

LOCALITY		Tonnage
Chahar Hopei	Hsuanhua	91,645,000
	Lwanhsien	32,424,000
	Yih sien	1,500,000
	Tsinghsing	7,755,000
	Kaiping-Lwanhsien	150,000
Shantung	Funing-Lingyu	350,000
	Chinglincheng	13,700,000
	Feih sien	640,000
Honan	Hungshan	740,000
	Sinyang	2,000,000
Suiyuan Shensi Kansu Kiangsu	Kuyang	700,000
	Peiyungshan,	88,000,000
	Likuoyi	3,000,000
	Fenghuangshan	4,437,000
Anhwei	Tungkwanshan	4,921,000
	Chihwanshan	4,000,000
	Tangtu	6,298,000
	Changlungshan	4,645,000
Chekiang	Changhsin	5,130,001
	Chienteh	2,024,000
	Tayeh	19,861,870
Hupei	Hsiangpishan	6,738,007
	Linghsiang	5,018,500
	Ocheng	10,000,000
	Itu	4,000,000
Kiangsi	Chengmenshan	6,300,000
	Lienhua	1,260,000
	Pinghsiang	3,898,000
	Tungtengshan	580,000
Hunan	Yuanling	1,050,000
	Anhua	4,180,000
	Sikwanshan	3,600,000
	Chaling	3,900,000
	Ninghsiang	8,300,000
	Yuh sien	14,000,000
Szechwan	Chikiang	3,242,000
	Fowling	1,506,400
	Weiyuan	2,500,000
	Hungyah	2,340,500
	Yimen	2,890,250
Yunnan	Oshan	4,000,000
	Luku	7,800,000
Sikang	Hweili	4,000,000
	Taofu	1,619,100
	Yungching	882,000
	Hanyuan	645,000
Kweichow	Weining	5,800,000
	Suicheng	23,152,532
	Huaan-Changping	13,180,000
Fukien	Anchi-Pangtien	7,800,000
	Anchi-Chengchi	1,462,000
Kwangtung	Yunfu	10,000,000
	Tzeching	5,000,000
	Lienkiang-Liangtang	8,000,000
Northeastern Provinces		1,221,486,000
TOTAL		1,694,011,160

Production of pig iron in Free China is rapidly increasing as a result of government encouragement. Furnaces under the direct control of the Government produced in 1942 three and a half times the total output in 1941, whereas the 1941 output was 45 per cent more than that in 1940. For private-owned furnaces, the production of pig iron increased from 100 per cent in 1940

to 259 per cent in 1941 and 555 per cent in 1942.

Rapid increase is also seen in the production of steel in Free China. The production of steel by government-owned steel works in the first half of 1942 was three times the entire 1941 output. Steel production by private-owned furnaces was 100 in 1940, 122 in 1941, and 146 in 1942.

One of the most important promoters in China's iron and steel industries is the National Resources Commission which before the outbreak of the present Sino-Japanese War planned to establish an iron and steel plant in Hsiangtan, Hunan. The construction work of the plant was in progress when the war broke out. It was then suspended. As an emergency measure, the essential parts of the Hanyang Iron Works in Hanyang, Hupeh, weighing about forty thousand tons of machinery and materials, were removed to Szechwan and re-installed in Chungking. It is now

producing pig iron, iron castings and steel, all for the use of arsenals.

In order to increase the production of iron, three blast furnaces have been set up in Szechwan in addition to one each in the provinces of Yunnan, Kwangtung, Kwangsi and Kiangsi. For the production of steel, the Commission has set up two steel making plants, one in Chungking and the other in Kunming. The Chungking plant started production at the end of 1942.

In addition, the Commission has under construction a special iron smelting plant producing pure iron by the direct treatment of ore. The product, known as "sponge iron," may be remelted and converted into high grade steel to meet the requirements of war industries.

TUNGSTEN

Most of China's known tungsten reserves are found in Kiangsi. Out of the known national total of 1,872,000 tons, southern Kiangsi has 1,013,001. The distribution of tungsten reserves in China is as follows:

TABLE XI.—ESTIMATED TUNGSTEN ORE RESERVES IN CHINA (TONS)

LOCALITY		Tonnage
Kiangsi	Kanh sien, Shihjenkeng-Liulangheng	60,875
	Kanh sien, Pichiasan-Hahushan	3,695
	Suichuan, Liangpichou	2,730
	Nanking, Tzeshuwou-Changpang	21,410
	Nankang, Chingshantze-Sinti	113,141
	Tayu, Shialung	3,027
	Taya, Sihushan	228,000
	Tayu, Ilochung	11,760
	Tayu, Chiulunglou	12,920
	Tayu, Hungshuichia	37,800
	Ta., Shiaotungkeng	22,575
	Tayu, Senlungkou	81,900
	Tayu, Tangping	53,000
	Tayu, Piaotang	5,584
	Anyuan, Pengkushan	109,692
	Huichang, Paioutze	14,891
	Lungnan, Weimeishan	210,000
	Chiennan, Tachishan	20,000
Kiangsi Total		1,013,001
Hunan	Juncheng, Paiyunshan	7,000
	Kweitung, Chingtungshan	2,500
	Chaling, Tengpushan	7,200
	Tzeshin, Yaokangshan	3,700
	Linwu, Naitzeling	1,000
Hunan Total		21,400
Kwangtung	Wongyuan, Suitung	126,000
	Lochang, Tiehtington	22,855
Kwangtung Total		148,855
Kwangsi	Kunghsien	14,555
	Nantang, Huilochun	5,240
	Sintu, Takweishan	2,831
	Tenghsien, Taipingchwang	2,525
	Hweichi, Fangchishan	218
Kwangsi Total		25,369
Others		663,375
TOTAL		1,872,000

There are tungsten reserves in Yunnan, Hopei, Chekiang, and other provinces which need more intensive study. Thus, the country has more than the estimated 1,872,000 tons of tungsten ore reserve.

Tungsten ore is controlled by the National Resources Commission and exported to Allied nations after careful dressing. At present, three tungsten

mines are being operated in Kiangsi by the Commission with modern equipment and modern methods of mining. In Kiangsi, Hunan and Kwangsi, ore dressing units improve the quality of tungsten ore.

Production of tungsten ore in the five southwestern provinces may be seen from the following table:

TABLE XII.—TUNGSTEN ORE PRODUCTION IN SOUTHWEST CHINA (TONS)

LOCALITY		1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Kwangsi	Kungcheng, Limu-Kwanying	206	698	965	365	...
	Kungcheng, Chiupo-Chiahui	31	8	14	12	...
	Pingyang, Kaotien-Kunlun	200	200	200	200	...
	Nantang, etc.	...	160	200	320	...
Yunnan		200	250	690	650	...
TOTAL		637	1,316	2,069	1,547	...

MANGANESE

Manganese ore is found mainly in Szechwan, Hupeh, Chekiang, Kansu, Hunan, Kiangsi, Kwangsi, and Kwangtung. Other findings are also reported. The known manganese ore reserves are as follows:

TABLE XIII.—ESTIMATED MANGANESE ORE RESERVES IN CHINA (TONS)

LOCALITY		Tonnage	Kind of Ore		Content
Kiangsi	Loping, Tatiehshanfeng	670,903	Psilomelane, Pyrolusite	...	51.44%
	Loping, Tatiehshanfeng	342,459	Psilomelane (sand), Pyrolusite	...	20.30%
	Loping, Shiaotiehshanfeng	114,429	Pyrolusite	...	43.96%
	Loping, Shiaotiehshanfeng	72,994	„ (sand)	...	20%
Hunan	Hsiangtang, Shangwutu	1,300,000	„	...	30.53%
Kwangsi	Wuhsuan, Sanlinsu	1,638,000	Psilomelane	...	42-50.6%
	Kweiping, Mukweimapi	2,000,000	„	...	49.44%
Kwangtung	Chinh sien, Kungtungling	8,000,000	Pyrolusite	...	20-52%
	Chinh sien, Tiaoyukung	4,000,000	„	...	20-50%
Kweichow	Sanho	62,824			
Others		2,000,000			
TOTAL		20,201,609			

Most of China's manganese ore production is for export. Besides that produced in Kiangsi, Hunan, and Kwangtung, manganese produced in the southwest area may be seen from the following table:

TABLE XIV.—MANGANESE ORE PRODUCED IN SOUTHWEST CHINA (TONS)

LOCALITY		1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Kwangsi, Wuhsuan, Sanlinsu		20,000	20,000	20,000
	Kweiping, Mukwei	10,000	40,000	100,000
TOTAL		30,000	60,000	120,000

GOLD AND SILVER

Gold mines of China are widely distributed. The leading production centers are in Heilungkiang, Kirin, Liaoning, Mongolia, Sinkiang, Hopei, Kansu, Chinghai, and the Szechwan-Sikang district. Most of the mines are exploited by native miners with crude tools and primitive methods. Very few of the mines are worked with modern machinery.

The Ministry of Economic Affairs has a Gold Mining Administration. The work of this administration is mainly to prospect possible reserves for future exploitation. It also reclaims some 6,500 ounces of gold each year.

Estimated gold production figures in the five southwestern provinces are as follows:

TABLE XV.—ESTIMATED GOLD PRODUCTION IN SOUTHWEST CHINA (OUNCES)

LOCALITY		1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Sikang	Yenyuan	600	843	900	1,000	1,000
	Changhua	2,000	2,000	2,000	2,500	3,000
	Yuko	1,000	3,000
	Serpa	1,500	1,500
	Kangting	740	850	655	700	700
	Taining	90	25	105	500	850
	Taofu	535	...	12	1,000	1,200
	Mienning	100	100	100	100	100
	Lihua	5,000	5,000	5,000	5,000	5,000
	Luho	100	...	23	360	100
	Yakiang	20	50	100	300	200
	Kangtze	130	300	500
	Tehken	25	...	170	200	200
	Yenpien	10	10	10	10	19
Szechwan	Tienchuen	500	500	500	500	500
	Sikang Gold Mining Bureau	1,464
	Kuohua Co.	3,000	3,000	3,000	2,000	2,500
	Min River	500	500	500	800	1,000
	Chialing River	2,000	4,000	10,000	14,000	15,000
	Tungbo	600	600	600	800	1,000
	Chingshakiang	4,000	4,000	4,000	4,000	4,500
	Fow River	10,000	10,000	10,000	15,000	15,000
	Sungpang	152	500
	Shanglin	3,350	3,377	3,514	3,600	3,600
	Pingkwei Mining Bureau	100
	Yu River	4,000	4,000	4,000	4,000	4,000
	Tienchu-Chingping	3,000	1,000
	Fanchingshan	10	10	10	10	10
Yunnan		2,000	2,000	2,000	2,000	2,000
	TOTAL	39,180	40,865	47,329	64,332	69,534

A small amount of silver is produced in China as a by-product of lead smelting. The nation produced 119,595 ounces of silver in 1930, 105,000 ounces in 1931, 150,945 ounces in 1932, 200,585 ounces

in 1933, and 121,504 ounces in 1934. In southwest China, Huitze (Yunnan) produces about 700 ounces of silver a year, whereas Lutien (Yunnan) produces from 500 to 1,000 ounces a year.

COPPER

Copper deposits are found in most of the Chinese provinces, with main reserves in Yunnan, Kweichow, Szechwan, and

Sikang. Findings are also reported in Hupeh and Shansi. Copper reserves in the five southwestern provinces are as follows:

TABLE XVI.—ESTIMATED COPPER RESERVES IN SOUTHWEST CHINA (TONS)

PROVINCE	LOCALITY	Estimated pure Copper Content	Possible pure Copper Content
Szechwan	Penghsien	23,524	85,270
Yunnan	Yungsheng	6,370	...
	Yimen ...	5,300	80,000
Sikang	Hweili, Luchang	186,621	...
	Hweili, Tungan	600,000	...
	Yuehchun, Haitang	2,200	...
	Yuehchun, Shoyotsao	71,400	...
	Yungching	3,250	...
	Tienchuan	1,300	...
Kweichow	Weining	1,690,000	2,500,000
	TOTAL	2,589,965	...

Production centers of copper are Yunnan, Szechwan, and Sikang. The southwestern provinces produce a total of several hundred tons of copper

a year. The need for copper, however, well exceeds the ten thousand mark. The production figures are as follows:

TABLE XVII.—COPPER PRODUCTION IN SOUTHWEST CHINA (TONS)

PROVINCE	COMPANY OR LOCALITY	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Yunnan	Huitze, Tungchwan Co.	245	169	202	89	...
	Huitze, Tienpen Mining Bureau	300
	Yungsheng, Milichang	94	94	150	250	260
	Yimen, Yingtai Co.	6	6	6	6	6
Szechwan	Penghsien, Penghsien Copper Mining Bureau	40
Sikang	Hweili, Luchang-Tungan	...	15	4	4	...
	Yuehchun, Haitang	3	...
	Szechwan-Sikang Copper Control Bureau	100
	TOTAL	345	284	362	352	706

As to the refining of copper, two electrolytic copper refineries are now in operation, one in Chungking and one in Kunming. The one in Chungking treats crude metal from northwest

Szechwan and Sikang, and refines it to a produce of 99.95% purity mainly for military use, while the other in Kunming treats crude copper chiefly from north Yunnan.

LEAD AND ZINC

In China, lead and zinc deposits are usually found together. The leading lead and zinc producing center is Suikoushan in Changning, Hunan. They are also produced in Yunnan, Sikang, Szechwan, Kwangsi, and Kweichow, the last three provinces in smaller amounts.

The Tienpaoshan zinc reserve at Hweili in Sikang amounts to 1,680,000 tons. The Suikoushan area produced in 1934 a total of 6,460 tons of lead, 4,778 tons of lump zinc ore, and 8,068 tons of dust zinc ore. The lead and zinc production in the southwestern provinces is as follows:

TABLE XVIII.—LEAD AND ZINC PRODUCTION IN SOUTHWEST CHINA (TONS)

PROVINCE	COMPANY OR LOCALITY	1935		1936		1937		1938		1939	
		Lead	Zinc	Lead	Zinc	Lead	Zinc	Lead	Zinc	Lead	Zinc
Yunnan	Tungchwan Co.	132	33	117	14	117	45	77	46
	Tienpeh Mining Bureau	280	...
	Huitze, Hsintai Co.	200	200	200	200	200	200	200	200	200	200
	Tsanglang	150	...	150	...	150	...	150
Sikang	Hweili, Tienpaoshan	...	50	...	50	...	50	...	40	...	40
TOTAL		482	283	467	264	467	295	427	286	480	240

TIN

The chief tin producing center in China is the Kochiu district in southern Yunnan where cassiterite is obtained both from superficial deposits and rock ores. Tin is also produced at Hohsien, Chungshan, and in other counties in Kwangsi, Kiangsi, Kwangtung, and Hunan.

Designated as an export mineral, tin is controlled by the Government. More than 10,000 tons of tin produced each year by government and private mines is bought by the Government for export.

As the result of research on the part of the National Resources Commission, the Kwangsi mines have produced tin with an average metal content of 99.80%, which is even better than the world standard of 99.75%. In Yunnan, an important center of Chinese tin industry, the Commission has also established some tin smelters, the equipment of which came largely from America. Production of tin in the southwestern provinces is as follows:

TABLE XIX.—TIN PRODUCTION IN SOUTHWEST CHINA (TONS)

Province	Locality	1935	1936	1937	1938
Yunnan	Kochiu	7,527	9,910	8,914	9,000
Kwangsi	Hohsien	1,100	1,345	1,648	1,808
	Chungshan		381	910	1,279
	Fuchwan		28	56	194
	Kungcheng		87	367	117
	Nantang-Hochi	118	99	109	109
	Chuanhsien	25
TOTAL		8,745	11,850	12,004	12,532

Besides, about 600 tons were produced at Tayu in Kiangsi, 92 tons at Kianghua and Linwu in Hunan, and 50 tons at Tinpak in Kwangtung according to a 1934 report.

TABLE XX.—EXPORT OF TIN INGOTS FROM SOUTHWEST CHINA PORTS (TONS)

PORT	1936	1937	1938
Mengtze	9,105	9,466	9,260
Wuchow	1,252	2,293	1,867

MERCURY

Mercury is chiefly produced in Fenghuang and Huanghsien in Hunan, where 20 tons of Chinnabar are produced each year, whereas Tungjen, Pachai, Sunchi, Sanho in Kweichow, Kungchen in Kiangsi, and Yuyang and Siushan in Szechwan also produce mercury in different quantities. Also a government controlled mineral, more than 120 tons of mercury was exported in 1941 and about 200 tons sold abroad in 1942. The mercury mined and smelted on the border of Hunan and Kweichow provinces has on the average reached the purity of 99.98%, which is good enough for the world market.

Production of mercury in the southwestern provinces is as follows:

TABLE XXI.—MERCURY PRODUCTION IN SOUTHWEST CHINA (TONS)

PROVINCE	LOCALITY	1936	1937	1938	1939
Kweichow	Sunchi, Wangshanchang	2.3	6	8	8
	Sunchi, Tatunglah	1.7	2	3	3
	Sunchi, Yehwuping	0.8	6.4	6.1	2.3
	Pachai, Tafahtung	...	0.4	0.4	0.4
	Sanho, Wangchiachai	0.1	0.8	0.6	0.3
Kwangsi	Kungcheng, Siling	...	0.3	0.3	0.3
	TOTAL	4.9	15.9	18.4	14.3

The Fenghuang and Huanghsien mines in Hunan produced 22 tons of mercury in 1931. Rapid progress has been made in mercury production in Kweichow in recent years. Most of the Kweichow mines today produce in one month twice or thrice their annual production two or three years ago.

ANTIMONY

The production of antimony in China is led by Hunan province where the famed Hsikuangshan at Hinhua, is located. Besides, Anhua, Yiyang, Shaoyang, Yuanling, Sinning, Tungan, Hsupu, Yichang, and a number of other localities in Hunan are antimony producers. Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Kweichow, and Yunnan produce antimony in different quantities.

Hunan produced 13,000 tons of regulus antimony, 2,700 tons of crude antimony, and 1,400 tons of antimony oxide in 1936. The production has been kept up in recent years. Antimony is also subject to government control. Thousands of tons are exported each year. As to the smelting of antimony, the National Resources Commission has

succeeded in bringing up its quality to a standard containing more than 99.8% of antimony and less than 0.1% of arsenic, which is much better than the present Chinese antimony regulus. The reserve and production of antimony in the southwestern provinces may be seen from the following tables:

TABLE XXII.—ESTIMATED ANTIMONY RESERVE IN SOUTHWEST CHINA (TONS)

PROVINCE	LOCALITY	Tonnage
Kweichow	Kiangkow, Fangchingshan	400,000
	Tushan, Miaolin	3,000
	Yungkiang, Yumeng	15,000
	Chiatukiang, Hoshaochai,	
	Wufengshan	41,040
	Sanho, Miaolungchang	17,160
	Sanho, Kaotung	2,880
	Sanho, Hsiapai	272
Kwangsi	Pachai, Tsaisha	288
	Hochi-Nantang	51,257
	Yu River	100,000
	TOTAL	630,897

China has a known antimony reserve of 2,671,000 tons.

TABLE XXIII.—ANTIMONY PRODUCTION IN SOUTHWEST CHINA (TONS)

Province	Locality	1935		1936		1937		1938		1939	
		Ore	Pure	Ore	Pure	Ore	Pure	Ore	Pure	Ore	Pure
Kwangsi	Hochi	1,000	..	1,000	..	1,300	} 952	1,500	} 2,000	1,500	} 2,000
	Yu River	5,000	..	5,000	..	5,000		5,000		5,000	
	Pingyang-Wuming	
Yunnan	Pingyi-Kaiyuan-Wenshan	15	..	15	..	15
Kweichow	Sanho-Tukiang	305	..	1,226	138	500	30
TOTAL		6,000	..	6,000	..	6,605	967	7,226	2,153	7,000	2,045

MOLYBDENUM

Molybdenum is produced in small quantity in Chekiang, Fukien, Shantung, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Hunan and, Kiangsi, mostly found together with tungsten and bismuth. A very small amount of molybdenum is also produced at Pingyang and Hohsien in Kwangsi, but the amount is insignificant.

NICKEL

Sikang has two good reserves of nickel. One is at Limaho in Hweili which has nickel ore amounting to 70,000 tons. Another reserve lies at Tungkouchang in Tienchuan where the amount is estimated at 270,000 tons. There is practically no production of nickel in Free China.

ARSENIC

Arsenic oxide is obtained by oxidizing the arseno-pyrite which occurs in association with iron pyrite in southern Honan. Realgar and orpiment are worked in Yunnan and western Hunan. Kwangsi also produces arsenic oxide. In 1935, Linwu, Changning, Chenhsien, etc., in southern Hunan produced 820 tons of arsenic oxide; Fengyi in Yunnan produced 341 tons of realgar and orpiment; Hohsien, Fuchwan, Chungshan, Hochi, and Nantang in Kwangsi produced 15 tons of arsenic oxide. They made a total of 1,206 tons. About 100 tons of ore are still produced each month by the Fengyi mines.

BISMUTH

Bismuth ore is found usually as an accessory mineral with tungsten and

thus worked and mined together with tungsten. The leading producers are Kwangsi, Kiangsi, Kwangtung, and Hunan. A total of 130 tons of bismuth was produced in 1931. The amount decreased to 73 tons in 1934.

BAUXITE

Bauxite is mainly found in Liaoning and Shantung. It was recently discovered in Yunnan and Kansu. The Shantung reserves have a total of 271,000,000 tons of bauxite which can give 68,000,000 tons of aluminum. The Liaoyang and Fuhsien reserves in Liaoning have 110,000,000 tons of reserves with an aluminum content of 40-58 per cent. The Yunnan reserves are still under study. The Kansu reserve is estimated at 351,350,000 tons of bauxite with an aluminum content of 22.57-38.52 per cent.

SALT

Salt is produced in most provinces in China. The coastal provinces produce salt from sea water. Northwestern provinces produce salt from salt lakes. The southwestern provinces get their salt supply from rock salt and salt wells in which the rock salt is melted by underground water. The nation produced 53,686,000 piculs (3,220,000 tons) of salt in 1934, including sea, lake and rock salt. Free China salt production in 1941 amounted to 19,200,000 piculs. Salt production in the southwestern provinces may be seen from the following table:

TABLE XXIV.—SALT PRODUCTION IN SOUTHWEST CHINA (PICULS)

PROVINCE	1935	1936	1937	1938
Szechwan	7,340,000	7,370,000	7,091,000	8,442,000
Yunnan	778,000	935,000	956,000	950,000
Sikang	48,000	47,000	50,000	44,000
TOTAL	8,166,000	8,352,000	8,097,000	9,436,000

GYPSUM

Important gypsum producing centers in China are Yingcheng in Hupeh, Hsiangtan in Hunan, and Pinglu in Shansi. It is also produced in Szechwan, Kweichow, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Yunnan, Shensi, Kansu, Kiangsu, Anhwei, and Sinkiang. In 1934, Yincheng produced 58,000 tons of gypsum, Hsiangtan 7,100 tons, and Pinglu 2,500 tons. Chuhsien in Szechwan produced 1,670 tons of gypsum in 1937, and 1,816 tons in 1938. Lungli in Kweichow produces about 50 tons each year. A small amount of gypsum is also produced in Yishan in Kwangsi.

SALTPETER

Most of China's saltpeter is produced in Hopei, Honan, Shansi, whereas Chinghai has a rich reserve of Chile saltpeter. The nation produced 5,000 tons of saltpeter in 1934, including

1,200 tons in Hopei, 800 tons in Honan, 250 tons in Shansi, 500 tons in Hunan, 500 tons in Kwangtung, 500 tons in Shantung, 500 tons in Kiangsu, 200 tons in Hupeh, and 550 tons from other provinces. In southwest China, saltpeter solution occurs at Pengshan and Meishan in western Szechwan together with underground salt solution. Its production was 4,650,000 piculs in 1938, 19,000,000 piculs in 1939, and 11,100,000 piculs in 1940. The product is used to make soda. The Loshan and Pengshan soda factories produce about 30,000 barrels (120 pounds to one barrel) a year.

PHOSPHORUS

Phosphorus is found in Tunghai in Kiangsu and on Paracel Islands off the Kwangtung coast. It has been discovered recently in Kunming, Sungming, Chengkung, and Chengkiang in Yunnan. Phosphorus content varies from 15.53 to 42 per cent.

TABLE XXV.—PHOSPHORUS MINE RESERVE IN YUNNAN (TONS)

LOCALITY	Tonnage
Kunming, Talungtang	1,470,000-2,350,000
Sungming, Shiaokwangching	405,000-1,098,000
Kunyang, Chungyichun	6,833,250-7,106,250
Chengkung, Chichiaoshan	1,965,180-2,441,180
Chengkiang, Tungshan	1,556,250
TOTAL	12,229,680-14,551,680

SULPHUR

Sulphur is produced from pyrites, which occur in almost every province, either in coal seams or in association with

the sulphide ores of lead and zinc. Estimated sulphur production in China is put at 5,500 tons a year. The reserve of pyrites in the southwestern provinces is as follows:

TABLE XXVI.—PYRITE RESERVE IN SOUTHERN CHINA (TONS)

PROVINCE	LOCALITY	RESERVE	
		Pyrite Ore.	Pure Sulphur.
Szechwan	Penghsien, Tapaoshan	...	90,107-180,214
	Hsinwen, Wuchiakow	158,000	...
	Hsinwen, Haitzetou	107,100	...
	Kiangnan, Meichiaopah	137,000	...
	Kusung, Paihoyeh	52,000	...
	Chihsien	285,000	...
	Chouchiahsiang	50,400	...
	Tungkwangchi	39,600	...
	Loshan, Shawang	120,000	...
	Wuhungchi-Tachun	150,000	...
	Tienchuan	1,415,725	...
Sikang			
	TOTAL	2,415,725	90,107—180,214

The production of sulphur centers at Chihsien and Hochwan in Szechwan. Sikang, Yunnan, Kwangsi also produce some sulphur. The amount produced may be seen from the following table:

TABLE XXVII.—SULPHUR PRODUCTION IN SOUTHWEST CHINA (TONS)

Province	Locality	Tonnage
Szechwan	Hsinwen	12
	Chihsien	367
	Hochwan	400
	Nanchwan	50
	Kiangan	3
	Wushan	150
Sikang	Tienchwan	10
	Hweili	50
Yunnan		170
Kwangsi		(a)
	TOTAL (Estimated)	1,500

ALUM

Alum is produced in the boundary district of Chekiang and Fukien. Pingyang in southern Chekiang produces about 10,000 tons per year and Futing in Fukien about 2,000 tons. Lukiang in Anhwei also produces about 2,000 tons. The deposits in Lukiang and Pingyang total about 250,000,000 tons, containing about 180,000,000 tons of alum. They would give 10,000,000 tons of elementary aluminum. Besides, a new discovery in central Kweichow is estimated at 44,616,000 tons of alum. Its content is about 70 per cent of elementary aluminum.

GRAPHITE

Graphite is found in several provinces, including Hunan, Hopei, Kiangsu, Honan, Shansi, Shantung, Suiyuan. But the production is by no means large. At Hsiashu, a small town between Nanking and Chinkiang, there is a graphite mine which used to produce 1,500 to 2,000 tons a year.

FLUORSPAR

Fluorspar is mainly produced in the province of Chekiang. It is estimated that the total reserve of fluorspar in this province amounts to about 400,000 tons. The ore mined in Chekiang contains from 60 to 90 per cent of calcium fluoride. The yearly output is from 7,000 to 8,000 tons. A small amount is worked in Shantung.

TALC

Talc was mined in Liaoning for a number of years. In 1933 the production was 60,000 tons. Penglai in Shantung also produces talc to the amount of 1,000 tons a year.

CLAY

Clay is chiefly worked for the pottery or porcelain industry. About 150,000 tons of clay are produced in Kiangsi for the porcelain industry there. Hopei produces 200,000 tons, Shantung 80,000 tons, and Kiangsu 60,000 tons a year for pottery making. Szechwan also produces a considerable amount for local consumption. Kweichow, Sikang, and Yunnan also produce clay for pottery making. Fire clay is produced in Szechwan. The province is producing 200,000 firebricks every month.

ASBESTOS

Asbestos occurs in many localities. Liaoning and Hopei produce asbestos in good quantities. Sikang, Kwangsi, and Yunnan also produce asbestos. The Sikang reserve has fibers half a foot long. It is one of the leading reserves in southwest China.

LIMESTONE

Limestone is mined for the making of lime and cement and is produced in all provinces. But the production is rather scattered. Total national production is estimated at 5,000,000 tons. Of the southwestern provinces, Szechwan produces 150,000 tons, Yunnan 50,000 tons, and Kweichow 30,000 tons a year.

PRECIOUS STONES

Southwest China is famous for its production of precious stones. Emeralds, amber, agates, rubies, sapphires are found in Yunnan. Sikang and Sinkiang are famous for jade production.

CHAPTER XIII

MONEY AND BANKING

China's wartime monetary and banking progress is featured by numerous measures taken by the Chinese Government to strengthen her currency for protracted warfare and for postwar reconstruction.

At the apex of China's banking structure today is the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks (the Central Bank of China, the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications, and the Farmers' Bank of China) which controls all important monetary and banking activities under the direction of the Supreme National Defense Council. Its administrative organ is the Ministry of Finance. Since July, 1942, the Central Bank of China has become more than a state bank, exercising the role of a banker's bank. The other three government banks also specialize in their functions in accordance with government policy.

Throughout all these years, the Japanese and puppet authorities have made repeated attempts to undermine China's currency. The forced circulation of Bank of Japan notes and notes issued by other enemy and puppet banks in occupied areas, the creation of the bogus "Federal Reserve Bank of North China", "Central Reserve Bank," and the circulation of the latter's paper money were followed by a Japanese-inspired puppet order in 1942 prohibiting the use of Chinese legal tender in places under enemy penetration. The Chinese Government has adopted counter-measures which have met with gratifying success. As a result, the Chinese national currency still enjoys unflinching confidence both in Free and occupied China.

PREWAR REFORMS

Currency and exchange control in China began in the spring of 1933 when the tael system, with its varying weight and fineness in different localities, was abolished. According to the *Standard Silver Dollar Coinage Law* promulgated in 1933, the yuan was to have a gross weight of 26.6971 grams of silver 880 fine, that is, containing 23.493448 grams of fine silver. Upon the completion of the Central Mint in Shanghai, with its modern facilities for minting and testing, the

issuance of standard currency of uniform weight and fineness was assured.

The transition to the new silver dollar proceeded smoothly. In order further to help stabilize silver, a silver agreement was signed in 1933 by the Chinese Government with the governments of Australia, Canada, India, Mexico, Peru, Spain, and the United States. Unfortunately, the subsequent enforcement by the United States of the Silver Purchase Act, which had as its main objective the artificial raising of the price of silver, upset the hopes of the Chinese Government for a stabilized silver market. By raising the price of silver, the act had the immediate effect of causing a serious drain of silver from China. With the silver reserves essential to the maintenance of a sound currency system being greatly depleted, there was a severe contraction of currency and credit. Faced with the alarming prospect of a continued leak, the Chinese Government ordered on October 14, 1934, the application of an export duty and equalization charge on exports of silver effective the following day.

Such a measure was not regarded as a fundamental solution of the nation's monetary problem. The currency situation after imposition of these restrictions remained unsatisfactory, Exchange continued to rise. This was due to a number of causes. For instance, changes in the foreign value of silver had so long exercised influence on the value in China that this connection could not be readily broken, and rising value abroad tended to increase value in China, even with these restrictive measures enforced. Furthermore, while exportation through legitimate channels of silver was curbed, there was no effective means of preventing smuggling due to the extensive borders of China and the difficulties arising out of the existence of extraterritoriality and foreign concessions.

When the situation appeared to be most critical, the Government undertook a measure which paved the way for fundamental reform of the currency system. This was the reorganization of the Bank of China and the Bank of

Communications. The Government placed \$15,000,000 in the Bank of China, increasing its capital to \$40,000,000 of which the Government held 50 per cent. Also there was an additional government subscription of \$10,000,000 to the Bank of Communications, its capital being thus raised to \$20,000,000, of which 60 per cent was held by the government. This measure was taken principally to enhance coordination between the Central Bank of China and these two banking institutions, and proved to be of great value to the Government later in dealing with various financial and currency problems.

The Government finally ordered on November 3, 1935, a fundamental change of the currency system in line with world developments and with developments within China. The government decree of that date provided for (1) stabilization of exchange at about the level then existing; (2) unification of note-issue and reserves and making notes of the three government banks full legal tender; (3) nationalization of silver; (4) reorganization of the Central Bank as the Central Reserve Bank on a more independent basis; (5) strengthening the commercial banking system; and (6) balancing the national budget within a period of 18 months.

At the same time, negotiations were completed for the sale of 50,000,000 ounces of silver to the United States Treasury at the then prevailing world price for silver, which was about 65 cents an ounce. The silver was shipped in December, 1935, and in January, 1936. On May 18, 1936, an agreement was reached between the Chinese Government, represented by Mr. K. P. Chen, general manager of the Shanghai Commercial and Savings Bank, and the United States Government, represented by the Secretary of Treasury, Mr. Henry Morgenthau, whereby the United States of America was to purchase from the Chinese Government substantial amounts of silver, said later to amount to 50,000,000 ounces. The purchases of these large amounts of silver by America lent great strength to the Chinese currency system, and public acknowledgment of this token of cooperation was made by the Chinese Finance Minister in the official report of the Ministry (1934-1935).

In July, 1937, upon the second visit to Washington of Dr. H. H. Kung, Chinese Minister of Finance, further arrangement was concluded with the

American authorities for Sino-American monetary cooperation. These arrangements provided:

- (1) Sale of Chinese surplus silver to America,
- (2) Purchase of a substantial amount of gold from America by China with a view to augmenting the Chinese Government's gold reserve,
- (3) Increased credit facilities made available to the Central Bank of China for currency stabilization purposes.

EMERGENCY WAR MEASURES

In the forenoon of August 13, 1937, when the hostilities in Shanghai broke out, all Chinese banks closed, intending to re-open after three days. Meanwhile a moratorium order was issued by the Ministry of Finance, protecting the Chinese banks. As a consequence of the moratorium, a new "blocked" dollar or *wei wah* system was created. The Central Bank of China was the only Chinese bank which did not come under the provisions of the moratorium order. The Chinese banks re-opened on August 17, working only on a restricted basis. The *Emergency Banking Regulations* promulgated when the war began limited the amount of cash withdrawals from current bank accounts and deposits. Later the Ministry of Finance ruled that cash orders on banks and native banks might be stamped *wei wah*, to be transferable between banks on a *wei wah* basis—that is to say, they could not be exchanged for legal tender or for foreign currencies. Though originally intended as a bankers' clearing arrangement, the *wei wah* soon came to be accepted as a medium of exchange for commercial transactions. Foreign banks cooperated magnificently with the Chinese banks in this period of exceptional stress.

The *wei wah* system continued throughout 1938 without particular hardships. Market discount rates on *wei wah* ranged from $\frac{1}{2}$ to $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. during the period.

The Central Bank of China announced in July, 1937, that it was prepared to maintain currency levels at its fixed rates of 1s. 2 $\frac{1}{4}$ d and US 29 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents per Chinese dollar. When warfare spread to Shanghai the determination on the part of the authorities to maintain the value of the legal tender dollar was even firmer than ever. From about July 19 to August 13, 1937, the Government banks

were called upon to sell from £7,500,000 to £8,000,000 at the fixed rates. The bulk was for bona fide merchants' requirements, but a part represented flight of capital.

From August 16 onward the situation changed. Owing to the moratorium, a vital source of funds was suddenly cut off. Foreign banks, in order to obtain funds, were forced to sell exchange to the Central Bank at 1s. 2½d. or US 30 1/16 cents per Chinese dollar. The Central Bank obtained roughly about £1,000,000 at these quotations. Until March 13, 1938, the Central Government maintained the dollar at 1s. 2½d., but from that date (which marked the opening of the bogus "Federal Reserve Bank of North China") official rates were only nominally maintained. Meanwhile the open market rates declined to 8 pence per dollar, at which point they were held by the Government through the intermediary of a leading foreign bank.

In July, 1938, announcement was made by the American Secretary of Treasury, Mr. Henry Morgenthau, that the American Treasury's understanding to purchase silver would be extended, and in September of that year he announced its further extension. No official information concerning the actual amount of transactions has been made public, as at the time the agreement was made it was thought advisable to keep this a secret "for fear of speculative activities affecting the world price of gold."

When the Chinese army retired first from the Hopei area, and later from Shanghai and its vicinity, including Nanking, it could not by any chance carry away with it the vast financial structure which China had patiently built up in past years. Legal tender notes continued to circulate in these areas, and the Government saw fit to maintain exchange stability there so long as the demand for exchange was for legitimate purposes and the welfare of the entire nation was not at stake. Unfortunately with the establishment of a bogus government in Peiping, a so-called "Federal Reserve Bank of North China" was organized at the instigation of the Japanese military to issue banknotes in the occupied areas to absorb Chinese legal-tender notes on the market and thus to drive them out of circulation. The puppet notes were not convertible into foreign currency. The Japanese hoped to exchange the Chinese legal tender notes for foreign currency in Shanghai. Thus

it was calculated that the double objective of wrecking Chinese currency in the North and of weakening China's entire reserves could be accomplished at one stroke.

Obviously the only answer to such a threat was close surveillance of transactions in foreign exchange, which the Chinese Government authorized beginning from March 14, 1938. The new measures announced by the Ministry of Finance in this connection were as follows:

- (1) Beginning from March 14 of this year (1938), the sale of foreign exchange shall be handled by the head office of the Central Bank of China at the seat of the Government. However, for the convenience of its clients, the bank may establish an office in Hongkong.
- (2) Banks requiring foreign exchange for legitimate purposes after setting off their receipts against requirements (in foreign exchange) should make application to the head office of the Central Bank of China through its office in Hongkong.
- (3) The Central Bank, after receiving the application, shall immediately consider the same in accordance with the regulations governing the approval of purchases of foreign exchange to the applicant at the official rate. The regulations governing the sale and purchase of foreign exchange shall be fixed separately.

Although after the nationalization of silver in 1935 China's financial structure was immeasurably strengthened and her budget balanced, the strain of hostilities necessitated the adoption of several measures apart from those mentioned. For instance, the Loan and Discount Committees of the Four Government Banks were established in twelve leading cities to facilitate the flow of capital to the hinterland. On April 29, 1938, the Ministry of Finance promulgated regulations for the reform of local finances. On June 1, it was decided that banking institutions in the interior, by holding an adequate amount of cash and security reserves in the Four Government Banks, might apply for certain sums in 1-dollar and subsidiary notes provided the money was to be used for the rehabilitation of rural economy and the encouragement of production.

To promote exports and imports, the Trade Readjustment Commission was instructed to improve the various means of communication so that more and better facilities might be available for the movement of goods. Much was done to perfect the machinery of taxation, the many measures adopted being responsible for the smooth flow of currency, the conservation of the people's economic strength, and the protection of the sources of income.

On June 1, 1938, a conference of Chinese bankers was convened in Hankow under the Ministry of Finance. The conference discussed ways and means of strengthening China's wartime financial structure in general, and of improving local currency conditions in particular. The meeting was attended by more than 80 bankers from all parts of the country.

Prior to the war, due to unsettled conditions in the interior, and to the high interest rates in the rural districts, there had been an exodus of people from the farms to the cities. With the beginning of hostilities the situation was reversed. Dr. H. H. Kung, Minister of Finance, pointed out that "despite the war, the demand for Chinese currency notes in interior provinces has increased and the use of legal tender has spread to even most remote areas. Amounts of remittances have shown considerable increases, especially from threatened areas to Szechwan, Yunnan, Kweichow, Hunan, Kwangsi and Kwangtung, due, of course, to the emigration of a large portion of the population thereto. Noting the development of this situation, this Bankers' Conference has been called to find a means to facilitate development of the rural areas."

The conference also deliberated on other problems of national import. Among the more important decisions were restriction of remittances to areas under the control of the Japanese, and providing facilities for remittances to territory under the control of the Chinese Government. A list of the decisions of the conference follows:

- (1) To encourage export industries and offer facilities for remittances to China from overseas Chinese,
- (2) To continue efforts to collect gold and silver from inland areas,
- (3) To increase the number of local financial organs,

- (4) To encourage frugality and savings,
- (5) To encourage production of daily necessities,
- (6) To increase agricultural loans,
- (7) To continue granting credit loans,
- (8) To train a large financial personnel.

THREE CONFERENCES

The Four Government Banks are charged with assisting the national treasury in financing reconstruction and with developing specialized trades. The commercial banks have aided considerably in promoting the Government's financial and currency policy, in selling government savings certificates and bonds, and in helping to raise relief and aviation funds.

The main interest of the Government is to see that the banks comply with its economic and financial policies. To explain these policies to financial leaders, the Ministry of Finance called two national financial conferences in June, 1938 and March, 1939, respectively. Many resolutions to promote local finance and productive enterprises were adopted at the meetings. It was suggested that provincial banks be given more aid and authority in developing local financial resources and in counteracting enemy economic inroads in occupied and war areas. A system of supervision of certain provincial banks was worked out, and the Ministry was to direct the operation of commercial banks.

The first concrete step was the promulgation, on August 7, 1940, of the *Regulations Governing the Control of Banks During the Period of Emergency*. The regulations require all non-government banks to transfer 20 per cent of their total deposits to the government banks as a reserve fund. All deposits made in banks are to be used only for productive enterprises or joint productive investment. The banks are prohibited from engaging in commercial undertakings, hoarding or in purely pecuniary dealings under any of the assumed names of commerce, trust or service departments.

In June, 1941, the Third National Financial Conference decided that all provincial banks must carry out the financial and monetary policies of the Government. The best way to achieve this, it was decided, would be to reorganize all provincial banks to become

part of the network of the Central Bank of China. The branches and sub-branches of the Central Bank of China, together with the provincial institutions, would make it possible to have at least one modern financial organ in every *hsien* in Free China.

JOINT BOARD

On September 8, 1939, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek was officially appointed by the National Government as the Chairman of the Board of Directors of the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks. Dr. H. H. Kung, Governor of the Central Bank of China, Dr. T. V. Soong, Chairman of the Board of Directors of the Bank of China, and Mr. Chien Yung-min, Chairman of the Board of Directors of the Bank of Communications were named Executive Directors in active control of the Board.

The Joint Board is in Chungking with branch and sub-branch offices in other important cities. The four banks are required to submit to the Minister of Finance a daily balance sheet specifying the amount of bank notes in circulation and the rate of interest prevailing in the money market. Within the first ten days of each month they are required to submit a statement showing actual conditions of the banks and their assets and liabilities at the end of the previous month.

In order to ascertain whether the four banks conduct their affairs in consonance with government policy and instructions, the Minister of Finance appointed inspectors to examine the business conditions at the head and branch offices of the four banks with or without previous notice. (The *Revised Organic Law of the Joint Board*, promulgated on September 1, 1942, gave the Joint Board much broader authority in the direction and supervision of the Four Government Banks, the Central Trust of China and the Postal Remittances and Savings Bank.)

At the same time, the National Government promulgated a series of new regulations for the stabilization of currency and finance. These measures contain the following provisions:

1. Inspection of currency reserves: In addition to gold, silver and foreign exchange, new resources may be used to enhance the reserves for legal tender notes, namely, (1) short-term commercial

paper, (2) warehouse commodity receipts, (3) shares of productive enterprises and (4) National Government bonds. But the amount of these eligible securities cannot exceed 40 per cent of the total amount of note reserves.

The Joint Board shall invite representatives from chambers of commerce, leading banks and native banks in important provinces and municipalities to participate in the periodic examination of national currency reserves. Such public inspection of the reserves held against notes issued shall be conducted once a month. The actual conditions of note reserve, giving in detail the total volume of legal tender notes issued, the total amount of cash and security reserves and the ratio of reserves against notes, shall be publicly announced once a month. As hitherto, the Currency Reserve Board shall remain the official institution responsible for the inspection and announcement of the amount of notes issued and the composition of reserves held by the four banks.

2. Examination of public expenditure and curtailment of unnecessary expenses: Budget estimates of various government offices shall be closely scrutinized and all superfluous military and civil organizations shall be abolished with a view to cutting down government expenditure. But administrative expenses, such as salaries of government employees, will not be reduced.

3. Control of foreign exchange and stabilization of exchange rate: In order to exercise effective control of foreign exchange the sale of foreign currencies shall be strictly examined. Foreign exchange shall also be liberally allotted to legitimate business enterprises as a means to stabilize the exchange rate in the open market.

4. Absorption of idle capital and expansion of financial network: All banking institutions are required to make a serious attempt to attract idle capital by encouraging the virtue of thrift and the habit of saving and by utilizing accumulated funds from savings accounts and savings certificates for investment in productive projects. Modern banking practice and financial network shall be extended to the northwestern and southwestern provinces where at least one bank will be established in each *hsien* so as to facilitate the circulation of national currency and promote productive enterprises.

5. Circulation of bank notes in guerilla districts: The Central Bank of China notes issued in 1926 at Hankow or those bearing the names of other places altered privately, which have been declared null and void, shall be no longer valid for circulation. The Bank of China notes, with the exception of those issued in six localities including Hankow and Hunan, and Bank of Communications notes, with the exception of those issued in Manchuria and Jehol, may be circulated without discrimination. The Farmers' Bank of China notes, regardless of the provinces in which they are issued, shall be valid as usual.

Bank notes issued by the Bank of China and the Bank of Communications in Tientsin, Shantung and Hankow may be accepted as before. However, to prevent Japanese and puppet regimes from transporting them to change for foreign exchange, only drafts payable at their place of issue or at Chungking may be given in return when such notes are presented to and accepted by the banks. These notes may also be re-mitted to the interior for the purchase of native products.

The Joint Board is to finance improvement projects in agriculture, industry, mining and communication systems for the purpose of securing an adequate supply of essential materials and stabilizing commodity prices. In some cases, it is in the form of direct investment and management by the Government, while in others it extends assistance to private enterprises. The Joint Board has paid special attention to the extension of rural loans. One of its most important duties is to spread a financial network all over the country. Other wartime duties include:

- (1) Adjustment of the note issue among the four banks,
- (2) Centralization and utilization of capital funds,
- (3) Inspection of note reserves of the four banks,
- (4) Issuance of subsidiary notes,
- (5) Joint extension of loans and discounts,
- (6) Approval of remittances to and from interior and coastal cities,
- (7) Approval of applications for foreign exchange by importers,
- (8) Joint investment in special wartime productive enterprises,
- (9) Adjustment of material resources in wartime,

- (10) Collection and exchange of gold and silver,
- (11) Promotion of special savings and deposits,
- (12) Directing of other joint activities of the four banks,
- (13) Auditing of budgetary estimates, as well as actual settlement of receipts and disbursements of the four banks.

CONTROL MEASURES

In October, 1939, the Ministry of Finance, in order to eliminate profiteering in dealing with gold bars and gold ornaments, ordered the commercial banks to cease accepting mortgages on or trading in precious metals. Free trading of gold by financial institutions was prohibited, and all previous mortgages on precious metals were to be handed over to the Four Government Banks for settlement. All banks were authorized to act as government agents to collect gold from the public at fixed official rates.

For enforcing better exchange control in Free China, the Chinese Government on November 16, 1941, in collaboration with the British and the United States governments, announced that proceeds realized from exports from China should be delivered to one of several designated banks. Likewise, imports from Chinese ports were ordered to be controlled from points of destination. All transactions through approved accounts were to be based on the rates of 3 $\frac{3}{8}$ pence for the Chinese dollar and of 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ US dollars for every 100 Chinese dollars. Private and commercial banks were prohibited from dealing in foreign exchange unless authorized by the Ministry of Finance through the Chinese Currency Stabilization Board.

On December 9, 1941, the Government took a tighter grip on private banking in the interior by revising the regulations governing the control of banks in the period of emergency, originally promulgated on August 7, 1940. The revised regulations state that, with the exception of *hsien* banks and banks to be operated by overseas capital, no new banks shall be established in the interior except with special approval. All existing banks shall first secure the approval of the Ministry of Finance before opening new branches or sub-branches.

The rules contain explicit instructions to the banks about the granting of credits.

In taking mortgages, the banks cannot deal with those not engaged in trade or those who are not members of trade guilds. The maximum term for a loan should not be over three months and the amount should not exceed five per cent of the total credits granted by the bank in question. When the term expires, the bank shall ask for the redemption of the mortgage in case the security consists of daily necessities. In the case of non-daily necessities, a renewal may be allowed by the bank when the mortgage expires.

The revised rules further prohibit banks from engaging in profiteering and hoarding of any kind. No credit is to be granted without adequate security. Banks cannot sell or buy foreign exchange without special permission from the Ministry of Finance. The Ministry, the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks and the local governments are to conduct periodical inspections of the books of all banks.

Special banking inspection officers were appointed on a national scale while the accounting system of the banks was standardized. Limitations were imposed on the division of bank profits. Any surplus should go into the sinking fund of the bank. The Ministry, on May 1, 1942, prohibited the practice of paying premiums on government bank notes of smaller denominations. Bank notes of all issues and of all denominations issued by the Four Government Banks—now centralized in the Central Bank of China—were to be accepted at par value.

Meanwhile, the practice of paying special premium rates on monthly deposits by Szechwan native banks was to be abolished as from January 1, 1943. The system was deemed incompatible with the Government's wartime financial policy in that it would tend to encourage profiteering and hoarding by the banks entrusted with big deposits. Interest rates on fixed and current deposits have been increased by both government and private banks in the last few years. Starting from July 1, 1942, all banks have increased their interest rates on savings. This helps the Government to absorb surplus capital from the people for constructive purposes.

Early in 1942, the Four Government Banks ordered the suspension of their branches in the Japanese-occupied cities of Shanghai, Tientsin, Canton (Kowloon) and Kulangsu (Amoy). The Peiping and Hankow branches were suspended

following the Japanese occupation of those cities in 1937 and 1938.

FUNCTIONAL SPECIALIZATION

The government banks have assumed a new role since July 1, 1942, when they were called upon to perform functional specialization. Under the new ruling, the right to issue bank notes is centralized in the Central Bank of China. The Bank of China is to deal exclusively in foreign exchange and in the promotion of foreign trade. It is also authorized to finance all productive enterprises having a bearing on foreign trade. The Bank of Communications is entrusted with fostering China's industrial and economic reconstruction projects. The Farmers' Bank of China will have the exclusive right of extending farm loans and of developing rural finance. The Postal Remittances and Savings Bank is to be mainly a savings bank under the new arrangement. The capital of the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications and the Farmers' Bank of China has been increased to \$60,000,000 each by a government decree.

Prior to the outbreak of the war, private banking institutions had found themselves too weak to compete with foreign banks. The development of a modern banking system thus became one of the most significant phases of China's struggle for economic autonomy.

In 1928, when the National Government was established at Nanking, the Central Bank of China was established as the government bank. At the same time the Bank of China was reorganized into an international exchange bank, while the mission of developing industries was entrusted to the Bank of Communications. The reorganization was necessary because the new National Government was anxious to unify the national currency system and to strengthen the national banking structure. Both the Bank of China and the Bank of Communications were government banks. The intention of the National Government was "to utilize temporarily the combined strength of these three banks to perform the functions of a central bank until the Central Bank becomes strong enough to bear the entire responsibility." In 1935, another special chartered bank was founded through the amalgamation of the Honan-Hupeh-Anhwei-Kiangsi Four-Province Farmers' Banks into the Farmers' Bank of China, for the specific purpose of assisting the rehabilitation of rural economy.

In the years immediately preceding the outbreak of the war in July, 1937, development of the Chinese banking system showed unmistakable signs of increasing government participation in and supervision over the special chartered banks as well as commercial banks. During the first two months of 1935, when the economic situation in China was most critical as a result of the world economic depression, wholesale financial collapse was avoided by the action of the National Government in effecting timely measures of relief with the cooperation of banks, especially the government banks. By June, 1937, a plan for the reorganization of the Central Bank into a Central Reserve Bank had already been adopted. The execution of the plan, however, was disrupted by the outbreak of the war a month later.

Although the Government controls banking operations in interior China, it has, however, not hampered their development. Of the 164 banks in prewar China, 90 were located in Kiangsu and Chekiang provinces. Shanghai alone housed 48 or roughly one-third of the total. Experts estimate losses to Chinese banking as a result of the war along the China coast (not including Hongkong) at \$60,000,000. In 1938, cash on hand in Chinese banks was given at \$114,322,000, while savings deposits totalled \$302,873,000. Total credits outstanding at the end of 1938 were \$157,160,000. These 164 banks had an aggregate paid-up capital of \$400,000,000 and a sinking fund of \$78,720,000. Their total savings deposits amounted to \$3,780,000,000. Of the totals, 40 per cent of the paid-up capital, 20 per cent of the sinking fund and 50 per cent of the savings deposits belonged to the Central Bank of China, the Bank of China and the Bank of Communications.

THE CENTRAL BANK OF CHINA

The Central Bank of China was first founded at Canton in 1924. The bank helped to finance the Northern Expedition. Afterwards it was given the legal status of a state institution through a new charter granted in October, 1928. The bank was officially inaugurated in Shanghai in November, 1928, with a capital of \$20,000,000. On account of its rapid business expansion the capital was augmented to \$100,000,000 in May, 1934.

Following the currency reform of November, 1935, the position of the

Central Bank became even more important as a "bankers' bank." In January, 1936, through the revision of the seventh article of the bank's charter, the amount of private shares was increased from 40 per cent to 60 per cent, providing an opportunity for commercial banking houses, modern or native, provincial and municipal governments, as well as private individuals to become shareholders. The purpose of such a change was to make the bank more of an independent financial institution and a bank of banks. The essential features of the Central Reserve Bank proposed in 1937 may be summarized as follows:

- (a) To centralize the power of bank note issue;
- (b) To hold the legal reserves of member banks;
- (c) To facilitate the circulation of capital through the establishment of a re-discount committee;
- (d) To provide private shares for provincial and municipal governments, banking houses and private individuals; and
- (e) To establish local advisory committees in important cities and towns to gather information on monetary matters.

The Central Bank has successfully weathered the violent storms of war. The bank's head office was first moved to Nanking, then to Hankow, and since August, 1938, it has been in Chungking.

The introduction of the new public treasury system in January, 1940, further strengthened the position of the Central Bank as the chief agent of the National Government in dealing with public funds, functioning like a savings bank for all government institutions.

Four characteristics mark the operations of the bank during wartime, according to a report of the Central Bank's Banking Department. First, the Central Bank leads the work of the Joint Loan and Discount Committee of the Four Banks, more than one-third of the total loans extended by the committee being contributed by the Central Bank. In cooperation with the three other government banks, it finances the storage of food supplies, activities relating to price stabilization, and new enterprises

of economic reconstruction. During 1939, the bank was especially active in extending loans to needy industrialists and agriculturists at low rates of interest. Second, various measures have been taken by the bank to regulate and facilitate domestic exchange, encouraging idle capital from the coast to flow into the interior. Furthermore, banking facilities were made available to the fighting forces at the front, to facilitate the distribution of military payrolls and other economic activities of the war. Third, the bank accelerated the work of collecting gold and silver for the National Government. Finally, the bank directs the wartime control of foreign exchange.

Centralization of the right to issue bank notes, expansion of the public treasury system and inauguration of a clearing system among banks constituted the main activities of the Central Bank of China in 1942.

After July 1, 1942, when the Government promulgated regulations governing the centralization of note-issue, only the Central Bank of China can issue bank notes in the country. Bank notes issued by the other three government banks before that date continue to circulate, while those printed but not yet issued by July 1, 1942, were to be handed over to the Central Bank. The three banks were also required to turn over their note reserves to the Central Bank. Similar arrangements were made with provincial banks. In addition to its printing plants in Chungking, Kunming, Kweilin and Paoki, fourteen other transit centers were established to help supply bank notes throughout China.

The loss to the Central Bank of China as a result of the Pacific War is only moderate, because of the efficient way in which the staffs of its Hongkong and Shanghai branches met the situation. Most of the staff members of these two branches have since safely arrived in Chungking and Kunming to resume their work. Bank notes printed abroad have been re-routed to the interior. Hence, no shortage of bank notes has been experienced in these trying months.

In 1942, the Central Bank also successfully played the role of agent for the National Treasury. Besides accepting receipts and making payments on behalf of the National Treasury, the

bank handles government bonds, contributions and public property for the Government.

Beginning from the latter half of 1942, the bank relegated the ordinary business of granting loans to industrial and mining enterprises, communication projects and public utilities to other government and private banks. However, the Central Bank continues to undertake re-discount and re-mortgage activities.

An important activity of the bank in 1942 was the centralization of reserves guaranteeing savings deposits in provincial and private banks. According to the regulations governing the control of banks in the period of emergency promulgated in August, 1940, all banks are required to deposit a certain percentage of their savings deposits in government banks. In order to simplify the procedure, the Ministry of Finance in June, 1942, ordered that such reserves be deposited only in the Central Bank. In places where the Central Bank maintains no branch offices, it may authorize other government banks to accept the reserves, which must be turned over to the Central Bank for safekeeping.

Another achievement of the Central Bank in 1942 was to facilitate domestic remittances. Before the Pacific War broke out, the bank, in order to prevent money from flowing out of Free China, imposed restrictions on remitting money to port cities. Such restrictions were removed early in 1942 as the outbreak of the Pacific War has shifted China's foreign exchange market from Hongkong and Shanghai to the interior, thereby decreasing the danger of her legal tender being drained away. The Central Bank adjusts the domestic remittance fees from time to time and prohibits private banks from making exorbitant black market charges.

THE BANK OF CHINA

The Bank of China is a successor to the Ta Ching Bank of the Manchu dynasty. Following the establishment of the Republic of China in 1912, the Ta Ching Bank was reorganized into the Bank of China.

The new bank established its head office in Peiping and was also granted the special privilege of issuing notes and of acting as fiscal agent of the National Treasury.

The regulations of the bank were revised in 1917, stipulating that besides government capital, shares to the amount of \$10,000,000 should be open to private subscription. In 1921 not only were the private shares increased, but government capital was gradually converted into private shares, the paid-up capital amounting to a total of over \$19,000,000. The head office of the bank was moved to Shanghai in 1927, devoting itself to the financing of China's foreign trade. Government capital to the amount of \$5,000,000 was added which, together with the private shares, made a total of \$25,000,000. In March, 1935, the Ministry of Finance effected a further revision of the regulations of the bank by increasing the Government's share in its capital from \$5,000,000 to \$20,000,000, which increased the total capitalization to \$40,000,000, equally divided between the Government and private subscribers. In July, 1942, the capital was further increased to \$60,000,000. The number of directors was increased from 15 to 21, while the number of supervisors was augmented from five to seven. Dr. T. V. Soong was appointed chairman of the board of directors of the bank. In accordance with the *Savings Bank Law*, the bank established in June, 1935, a savings department, with a separate capital of \$5,000,000.

As a result of the monetary reform of November, 1935, which provided regulations for making the notes of the Central Bank of China, the Bank of China and the Bank of Communications sole legal tender, the note issue of the bank increased by leaps and bounds, indicating the important position the bank occupies in the financial structure of China. The Bank of China, along with the Central Bank of China and the Bank of Communications, had also been charged with the duty of stabilizing foreign exchange and regulating the money market before the order for functional specialization was put into effect on July 1, 1942.

THE BANK OF COMMUNICATIONS

The Manchu regime established the Bank of Communications in 1907 on a partnership basis. The total capitalization was fixed at 10,000,000 Kuping taels, only half of which was to be paid up at first. Besides handling general banking transactions, the Bank of Communications was authorized to act as an agent for the collection of government revenue

from railways, telegraphs, posts and navigation. It was also given the right of note issue. The head office of the bank was established in Peiping. In 1914 the President of the Republic of China promulgated regulations providing that, in addition to general banking business, the Bank of Communications should be given the right to keep in custody special funds of the National Treasury, to act as an agent for the flotation of Government bonds, and to issue bank notes.

In 1928, the National Government promulgated revised regulations designating the bank as an industrial bank to finance all kinds of industries. The business franchise was fixed at 30 years. In 1930, savings and trust departments were established, each operating under separate accounts.

In April, 1935, the Ministry of Finance again revised the regulations concerning the bank and increased the government capital. The total capitalization, fixed at \$20,000,000, was divided into 200,000 shares, of which government capital was represented by 120,000 shares and private capital by 80,000 shares. The monetary reform of November 3, 1935, made the notes of the Bank of Communications, together with those of the Central Bank of China and the Bank of China, sole legal tender and jointly charged these three banks with the nationalization of silver, redemption of notes of other commercial and provincial banks, and stabilization of foreign exchange.

After the war broke out in 1937, the bank's head office was first moved to Hankow and then to Chungking. It participates in the work of the Joint Loan and Discount Committee as well as the Joint Board of Four Government Banks, assisting the National Government in every way to stabilize currency and develop the vast interior.

The most important part the Bank of Communications has played and is playing is the financing of railway construction in wartime. According to a recent report, the bank has thus far helped to finance the building of seven railways and highways in China. These lines, including the Hunan-Kwangsi, Szechwan-Kweichow, Canton-Hankow, Szechwan-Hunan, and Kweichow-Kwangsi railways, and the Yunnan-Burma road and another highway in

Kwangsi province, have either been completed or are under construction. In several cases, loans were granted jointly with other government banks. The loan extended to the Canton-Hankow railway was to expedite the rescue work on the line due to repeated Japanese bombings.

The bank has either directly invested in or extended credits to economic enterprises in the Southwest and Northwest. At least 30 big units including the China Industrial Corporation, the Kweichow Development Corporation, the Szechwan Silk Corporation, the Chungking Electric Company, the Chungking Waterworks, the Ming Sung Industrial Company, the Szechwan Cement Works, the West China Industrial Corporation and several cotton mills have been given aid by the bank. In addition to these large industrial concerns, the bank gives smaller loans to small productive undertakings.

The various heavy industries run by the National Resources Commission of the Ministry of Economic Affairs are operated largely with money from the bank. With the functional specialization from July 1, 1942, the financing of these industries is undertaken entirely by the Bank of Communications. The capital of the bank has been increased to \$60,000,000.

In the last few years, the bank has also extended many loans to rural communities with other government banks. Rural financing, since July last, has been turned over to the Farmers' Bank of China in accordance with the Government's plan. Other activities of the bank include assisting the Government in revitalizing rural economy, in promoting the sales of government bonds and in encouraging savings among the people. Special savings schemes designed to increase industrial and mining production have been instituted. The bank at present maintains 106 branches and sub-branches in fourteen interior provinces of China.

THE FARMERS' BANK OF CHINA

The Farmers' Bank of China is entrusted with the special task of assisting rural reconstruction. In June, 1935, its capital was augmented to \$10,000,000, and since January, 1936, its bank notes have been made acceptable as legal tender by government order.

The Farmers' Bank of China has been an energetic leader in rural reconstruction, including the promotion of agriculture and handicrafts. In order to alleviate the hardships of rural economic life and to meet the urgent needs of stringent peasants and laborers, loans at low interest rates were granted to pawnshops all over the country. In extending loans to needy farmers, the bank usually has to organize cooperatives for the rural population first. The Farmers' Bank of China is solely charged with the work of granting rural credits following the decision made by the Central Government that the Four Government Banks should specialize in their undertakings. It has been extending the largest amount of rural loans during the last three years.

The capital of the Farmers' Bank was increased to \$20,000,000 in the autumn of 1941 and was again raised to \$60,000,000 in the fall of 1942. It has Dr. H. H. Kung as chairman of the board of directors and Y. C. Koo, acting vice-minister of finance, as general manager. Scattered throughout Free China are 180 branches and sub-branches which are assisted by 350 *hsien* and municipality cooperative banks. Its business scope extends to twenty provinces in Free China and war areas which include 1,015 *hsien* and municipalities. At the end of 1942, the bank had a staff of more than 5,000.

With the enforcement of functional specialization of the government banks since July 1, 1942, the Farmers' Bank has been entrusted solely with rural financing activities, while the right of issuing notes was transferred to the Central Bank of China. Some of the more important types of rural credits extended by the bank include production credit, marketing credit, insecticide, farm credit for extension work, credit for rural industries, irrigation credit, credit for the war zone, credit for colonization, and credit for recaptured districts.

The bank also assists the Government in carrying out its land policy. Efforts are made to help the peasants to possess their own farms and to foster the development of independent farming through the extension of loans. The bank further undertakes to issue land bonds. The total amount to be issued in 1943 is set at \$100,000,000. Other activities of the bank to promote welfare of the rural populace are farmers' and laborers' welfare savings.

THE POSTAL REMITTANCES AND SAVINGS BANK

Although a postal savings bank had been in operation since 1919, the Directorate-General of Postal Remittances and Savings Bank was not inaugurated until 1939. The Postal Remittances and Savings Banks commenced to exercise full control of postal remittances and savings on July 1, 1930. Up to 1937, postal deposits totalled a little over \$60,000,000. The amount dropped to \$40,000,000 after the hostilities extended to Shanghai in August, 1937. Through promotion in the interior provinces, the total was increased to \$73,000,000 at the end of 1939, including \$2,000,000 worth of thrift savings certificates. The savings part underwent wider expansion in 1940 when different types of savings accounts were instituted. The total savings at the end of that year exceeded \$100,000,000 and were boosted to more than \$240,000,000 at the conclusion of 1941. A further increase of more than \$80,000,000 was recorded in the first six months of 1942, thereby bringing the total to \$330,000,000 in June, 1942.

The bank's sale of thrift savings certificates also registered new highs in these years. Subtracting the amount of certificates redeemed after expiration, the balance at the end of 1940 was \$34,000,000. It was increased to \$120,000,000 at the end of 1941 and to \$130,000,000 in June, 1942.

Postal remittances in China began more than forty years ago. In the early years of inauguration, the service was restricted to big commercial ports only, with the yearly average amounting to five to six million dollars. International postal remittances were started in 1919 and overseas remittances in 1938. In 1939, total remittances handled by the Postal Remittances and Savings Bank amounted to \$340,000,000. This figure was increased to \$600,000,000 in 1940 and to \$1,000,000,000 in 1941. More than \$600,000,000 was remitted through the bank in the first six months of 1942. The Postal Remittances and Savings Bank has 17,000 offices or agents in China for handling remittances.

Overseas remittances handled by the bank totalled \$50,000,000 in 1939, \$120,000,000 in 1940 and \$170,000,000 in 1941. Since the outbreak of the Pacific War, remittance activities in the South Seas islands have been suspended. The bank acted as agent for the New York

office of the Bank of China in handling \$12,000,000 in remittances in the first six months of 1942.

The bank began writing life insurance policies in Shanghai, Nanking and Hankow in 1935. The maximum amount of the policy was limited to \$500. Although the service was later extended to all postal districts, little development was witnessed because of the small size of the policy. The amount of each policy was increased to \$5,000 in 1942 and 60,000 policies had been written by the end of June, 1942.

PROVINCIAL BANKS

In 1942, China had 24 provincial banks with an aggregate capital of \$34,000,000, constituting a major link in the country's financial system. Since the war broke out in 1937, some of these banks have moved their head offices and branches to safer places, while others have closed down 103 branch offices due to continued hostilities. Seriously affected were the Kiangsu Bank, the Farmers' Bank of Kiangsu, the Min Sen Bank of Shantung, the Shansi Provincial Bank and the Hopei Provincial Bank.

The provincial banks are carrying on, however, more industriously than ever, with the assistance of the Ministry of Finance. Up to late 1942, 587 new branches of these banks had been opened to meet the increasing war needs. The Szechwan Provincial Bank has set up branch offices in nearly every *hsien* in the province. The Kiangsu Bank has re-established itself with help from the Ministry of Finance, while the Kwangtung Provincial Bank, after having removed to the northern part of the province from Canton, has been handling even more business than in prewar days.

The Sikang, Kweichow and Kansu provincial banks were not established until after the outbreak of the war. Three local banks have been amalgamated with other banks, namely, the Farmers' Bank of Kwangsi with the Kwangsi Provincial Bank, and the Kwangtung Silk Bank and the Kwangtung Industrial Bank with the Kwangtung Provincial Bank. Local banks are yet to be established in Mongolia, Tibet and other provinces. Of the provincial banks, those in Kwangtung, Hunan and Szechwan provinces are the largest, while those in Szechwan and Chekiang have opened more branch offices.

The Szechwan Provincial Bank was reorganized from the former Szechwan

Local Bank in 1935 when most of the native banks and financial agencies collapsed as a result of thorough inspection and strict registration on the part of the Government. In 1940, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek ordered further reorganization by increasing the bank's capital to \$20,000,000, of which \$9,000,000 came as an appropriation from the Ministry of Finance. The capital has now been increased to \$40,000,000. Since 1938, the Provincial Bank of Szechwan has been acting as the treasury of the provincial government. It has 92 branches, a few of them being outside the province.

Aside from ordinary banking business the Szechwan Provincial Bank's main wartime task is to extend industrial and rural loans and to assist the Government in its economic development measures, such as the purchase of foodstuffs, tung oil, bristles and silk for export.

The Szechwan Cooperative Bank is responsible for the development of the province's cooperative enterprises. Szechwan now has 24,191 cooperatives with a membership of 1,503,157 persons. Outstanding agricultural loans extended by the Provincial Cooperative Bank and national financial agencies totalled \$122,009,946 at the end of June, 1942.

Features of the provincial banks different from ordinary banks include emphasis on the development of provincial agriculture, mining and industry, exploitation of special provincial products, promotion of local public enterprises, issuance of subsidiary notes for local circulation, and the readjustment of local finance.

Loans are given to provincial governments, business, industrial and mining organizations and farmers, to help reconstruction and to rehabilitate areas where fighting had taken place. The Hunan Provincial Bank, for instance, is paying greatest attention to the construction of storehouses for the accumulation of more foodstuffs, the granting of mortgages and small loans to industrial and business concerns, the making of long-term industrial and mining loans and the stimulating of the production of more tea, tung oil, and salt. The Chekiang Provincial Bank has set up more than 100 special offices for extending rural credits alone.

In Suiyuan the local bank has helped a great deal in revitalizing the textile industry following the disruption of the

Peiping-Suiyuan railway, which formerly carried to Tientsin Suiyuan's cotton and wool supplies. The Chekiang Provincial Bank has an enterprise department to handle its investments.

These provincial financial institutions are essential for carrying out many special wartime measures, such as the sale of war bonds, the rescue of materials from war areas and the purchase of gold and silver from the people. The Hupeh Provincial Bank, with the cooperation of the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks, has been buying almost all the gold produced in the Han river valley. The Suiyuan Provincial Bank bought more than 400,000 catties of wool for the provincial government in 1941.

Following the conclusion of the Third National Financial Conference in June, 1941, provincial banks became agents of the National Treasury in their respective provinces, as the nation's finance has been demarcated into two main systems of central and *hsien* finances with the province attached to the central system. Before the conference, provincial banks acted as provincial treasuries.

For local circulation, provincial banks are allowed to issue notes in small denominations. Places close to the front use more provincial notes in order to keep national notes from falling into enemy hands. The Honan Agricultural and Industrial Bank, for instance, has issued over \$7,000,000 worth of one-dollar and smaller notes and is issuing more. The Hunan Provincial Bank has received instructions from the Ministry of Finance to issue \$40,000,000 worth of provincial notes.

Provincial banks are supervising and directing *hsien* and other local banks, which are being organized in many Free China provinces. Szechwan has now 25 *hsien* banks. Kwangtung, Shensi and Honan have established some and are establishing more. Other provinces are following suit.

Hsien BANKS

An important but yet little developed phase of China's banking is the *hsien* banks. While a uniform development was still lacking at the end of 1942, *hsien* banks are destined to play a greater role in the future in consonance with

the Government's New *Hsien* System and the independence of local finance.

The pioneers of modern *hsien* banks in China were the pawnshops and cash shops that prevailed in the Manchu dynasty. These shops were commissioned by subordinate Imperial authorities to receive cash deposits from the people and to lend money to the needy. They also assisted in the custody of public funds. The first *hsien* banks were established in 1915. Because of the lack of an organized development and shortage of trained personnel, many *hsien* banks were forced to liquidate, while others failed in the intermitting years up to the outbreak of the war. Up to the first half of 1937, *hsien* banks known to be in operation numbered 28, of which 13 were in Chekiang province.

The Government's efforts to readjust finance and to foster farm cooperative enterprises during the war have helped to develop *hsien* banks. The law governing the establishment of *hsien* banks was promulgated by the National Government on January 20, 1940. A month later, the Ministry of Finance ordered the provincial governments to assist the *hsien* governments in spreading the program. On December 6, 1940, the Ministry further announced a model *hsien* bank constitution for the reference of *hsien* governments. Since the promulgation of the *Hsien Bank Law*, Szechwan, Honan and Shensi have made the biggest development in *hsien* banking.

At the end of May, 1942, *hsien* banks registered with the Ministry of Finance numbered 28. In addition, 51 *hsien* banks were operating without previous registration with the Ministry. Eighty others were being established. Of the total, 65 (including the ones being established) were in Szechwan, 40 in Shensi and 19 in Honan.

INSURANCE

Insurance in China has great possibilities because of the vast reconstruction program after the war. More rigid state control and supervision of insurance will probably be enforced as time goes on.

The Chinese Government established a life insurance promotion committee in June, 1941. Its aim is to help relieve the burden of the people's livelihood and to absorb surplus money from the public. Many government offices have written group insurance for their staff, while a commercial bank is offering life insurance facilities to the workers.

Soon after the war started, the Chinese Government began the writing of war insurance on transportation risks. At that time, the Government tried fervently to remove the industrial establishments from the coast to the safer interior. It was one of the most effective ways to encourage production and to promote reconstruction in the rear. The Ministry of Finance was ordered to write insurance against all land transportation risks. The Ministry, in turn, entrusted this important task to the Central Trust, a subsidiary organ with a capital of \$20,000,000. This government step immediately won popularity among all producers and shipping concerns. During the five years since the inception of the system late in 1937, although payments on losses were equal to the premiums collected, the service on the whole has worked out successfully.

Since November, 1939, the Central Trust has also been writing land war insurance which also includes air-raid risks for all investors and producers in Free China. The scope of land war insurance embraces: (1) stored commodities (limited to agricultural, industrial and mining products and goods having a value in foreign trade), (2) productive instruments and raw materials (limited to those in the possession of the underwritten factories), (3) building materials (limited to those in warehouses or in the possession of the contractors and engineers during construction).

In May, 1942, the Central Trust reduced its land war insurance rates by 25 per cent. The new premium rate is 30 cents for \$100. The period of the policy has also been extended, with further reductions for three-month, six-month and one-year policies. In June, 1941, the Central Trust was given another \$10,000,000 to write life insurance, and the maximum amount allowed for each policy was raised from \$5,000 to \$10,000. The Central Trust has also started production insurance, while risks on animals have been written by the Farmers' Bank of China.

Insurance is a comparatively new business in China. The modern insurance system was introduced only after China had opened its doors to foreign trade in the middle of the 19th century. British companies, both in life and property insurance, were the pioneers in this field. By June, 1937, the number of property insurance companies in

China totalled 181, of which 156 were foreign companies. Of the 19 life insurance firms, 10 represented foreign interests. Life insurance had a very belated development in China. It was started hardly 40 years ago. The aggregate amount of life insurance of all 19 companies up to 1937 came to \$200,000,000, about one-third of which was with the Chinese companies. Before the war started, insurance funds were mainly invested in real estate and in stocks and bonds. During the war, the money is invested largely in business, in extending credits and in transportation projects. There were two sets of laws governing insurance, the *Insurance Law* and the *Insurance Business Law*, at the outbreak of the war in July, 1937.

The *Insurance Law* was first enacted and promulgated in December, 1929, and was revised in January, 1937.

The *Insurance Business Law* was enacted in June, 1935. It has important bearing on both Chinese and foreign insurance companies operating in China, as may be seen from the following salient points of the Law:

(1) *State Supervision.* Article 3 requires an insurance company to register with the Ministry of Industry (now Ministry of Economic Affairs) and to deposit with the Government an amount equivalent to 15 per cent of its paid-up capital. Requirements in connection with the submission of annual business reports, the application and investment of funds, the auditing of accounts and the establishment of a supervisory organ are provided in the Law.

(2) *Limitation of Sino-Foreign Joint Enterprises.* Insurance firms of Sino-foreign capital are allowed to undertake property insurance only. The shareholders of a life-insurance company must be all Chinese, and mutual benefit societies organized for mutual protection must be composed entirely of Chinese members. The main purpose of these stipulations is to place the control over the reserves of these classes of insurance companies, which are necessarily large, in the hands of Chinese nationals.

(3) *Companies in Foreign Countries.* Insurance companies organized with Chinese capital but registered in foreign countries or in territories under foreign control, are not to be regarded as Chinese concerns.

(4) *Insurance Only.* Insurance companies are not allowed to undertake any other kinds of business.

(5) *Limitations on Foreign Insurance Firms.* Article 20 reads: "A foreign insurance company shall confine its operations to the commercial treaty ports. It may not commission Chinese nationals to act as its agents in the interior of

the country to engage in or introduce insurance operations."

(6) *Capital Deposits.* Chinese insurance companies at the time of establishment and foreign firms at the time of establishing branch offices or of appointing insurance agents within the territory of China are required to make a deposit with the National Treasury to the equivalent of 15 per cent of their paid-up capital or capital fund in the case of foreign concerns. In case the paid-up capital or capital fund exceeds \$500,000, an additional deposit equivalent to 5 per cent of the surplus amount is to be made up to the maximum deposit of \$200,000.

(7) *Form of Organization.* The form of organization of an insurance concern is confined to only two types, namely, stock company or mutual benefit society. An insurance company must have a capital of not less than \$200,000.

The *Simple Life Insurance Law* or *Industrial Insurance Law*, which was patterned after the industrial insurance legislation of Japan, was promulgated in May, 1935. The chief characteristics of this form of life insurance may be enumerated as follows:

(1) It is operated by the State. The Postal Remittances and Savings Bank of the Ministry of Communications is entrusted with its management.

(2) As the name implies, industrial insurance is a form of life insurance especially designed to meet the requirements of the wage-earning population. The amount carried by each policy must therefore be necessarily low. The maximum policy is \$500.

(3) Applicants are not required to undergo a medical examination.

(4) The investment of funds received from premiums is regulated by the Law.

The Law provides the payment of only the total premium collected from the insured in the event of death before the policy has been in force one year, one half of the insurance being paid if death occurs during the second year and the full amount being paid if it occurs after two years from the date of the contract.

According to the *Regulations Governing Industrial Insurance* adopted by the Postal Remittances and Savings Bank, the premiums are payable monthly and are to be collected monthly by the bank's agents who call on the insured.

A 5 per cent discount on premium is allowed to a group insurance policy by which fifteen persons or more are insured.

Stipulations in Stamp Tax on Insurance

(1) Premium Receipts:

	<i>Stamp Tax</i>	
Each receipt amounting to over \$	3	1 cent
" " " " " \$	10	2 "
" " " " " \$	100	3 "

(2) Insurance Policies: 2 cents for every \$1,000 covered by a policy. Policies under \$1,000 are exempt from this tax.

FOREIGN EXCHANGE CONTROL

During the war the Government has enforced the policy of absorbing foreign exchange resulting from exports, encouraging overseas remittances, and restricting the supply of foreign exchange and has concluded a number of currency loans. On March 14, 1938, the Chinese Government, in answer to the establishment of the "Federal Reserve Bank of North China" in Peiping at the instigation of the Japanese military, announced measures for exercising close surveillance on transactions in foreign exchange. The sale of foreign exchange was centralized in the Central Bank of China. In October, 1939, the Government promulgated measures to strengthen the currency, including the increase of the currency reserve, the restriction of the amount of notes and the absorption of idle capital.

Since the war began, there has been a capital flight on the one hand and the enemy's attempt to absorb the Chinese foreign exchange fund on the other. At the very outset, the Government devoted major attention to restricting the sale of foreign exchange for the payment of imports.

The Foreign Trade Commission was formed to promote exports, increase the foreign exchange fund and manage foreign exchange resulting from exports. In March, 1939, the Government adopted the foreign exchange stabilization fund system in Hongkong and Shanghai to maintain the credit of *fapi* (legal tender) because of the persistent Japanese and puppet efforts to absorb the foreign exchange fund. The Government took two counter-measures: the Bank of China and the Bank of Communications were instructed to announce the foreign exchange quotations in Chungking instead of in Hongkong in order to get away from the pernicious influence of the Shanghai and Hongkong black markets, and the import of non-essentials and luxuries was banned. The Foreign Exchange Committee of the Ministry was given the sole power to examine the applications of government offices and merchants for foreign exchange.

In the spring of 1941, the Chinese Government secured US\$50,000,000 from the United States and £10,000,000

(including the original £5,000,000 stabilization fund) from Great Britain to help stabilize China's currency and increase her foreign exchange reserve. These amounts, added by another US\$20,000,000 from the Chinese Government banks, made a grand total of US\$110,000,000 as currency stabilization fund for China. The Stabilization Board of China with a member each from the United States and Great Britain and three Chinese members was formed to control the fund. In July, 1941, following the announcement of the freezing of Chinese and Japanese assets by the American and British governments, the Chinese Government made strenuous efforts to control the black exchange market in Shanghai. A month later, the official exchange rate was changed to US $5\frac{1}{2}$ and 3 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. Application for foreign exchange for commercial purposes according to the official rates had to be first approved by the Board. In September, 1941, regulations restricting registered and specially-authorized banks in Free China in the selling and buying of foreign exchange were promulgated. These regulations were similar to those applied in Shanghai. Beginning from October, 1941, commercial concerns could no longer apply for the official rates of exchange, but new rates were established for such purposes. All foreign exchange transactions of importers and exporters were to be calculated on the basis of the new rates. Following the sale of gold dollar thrift savings certificates on January 1, 1942, the rates were revised to US \$5 for NC \$100.

In order to relieve the heavy work of the Stabilization Board of China, the Chinese Government in October, 1941, established the Commission for the Control of Foreign Assets to be directly under the Executive Yuan. The commission takes care of all matters pertaining to the administration of foreign exchange for exporters, the collection of gold and silver, the absorption of foreign currencies from overseas Chinese, the examination of applications for foreign exchange by government organizations and national industries, the apportioning of loans for different purposes and the granting of permission to individuals for the use of assets affected by the freezing order. The Stabilization Board handles all matters relating to the application for the purchase of foreign exchange by importers or individuals.

RURAL LOANS

From January to June, 1942, the Bank of China, the Farmers' Bank of China, the Bank of Communications, and the Central Trust extended a total of \$277,267,000 of agricultural loans in 17 provinces, according to a report made by the rural finance department of the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks. Total loans outstanding at the end of June, 1942, amounted to \$567,832,000.

Szechwan received the lion's share of the total loans extended in this period. The amount reached \$79,801,000 at the end of June, 1942, 28.8 per cent of the total. Hunan came second and Kwangsi third.

Loans for the increase of agricultural production took the major part of the credits. This category covers a wide sphere, such as the purchase of seeds, agricultural tools, the increase of agricultural by-products, and other miscellaneous expenses. Irrigation as a single item took 13.4 per cent of the total. The Joint Board of the Four Government Banks, in collaboration with the National Water Conservancy Commission, has mapped out a 5-year irrigation loan program to be enforced in 1942-1946. The Joint Board's policy in granting agricultural loans from 1942 on is to lay special emphasis on irrigation. The Joint Board is extending financial assistance, while the National Conservancy Commission is taking care of the engineering work. Irrigation loans approved for 1942 amount to \$97,376,302, of which \$77,876,302 was appropriated by the Joint Board, while the rest were granted by the provincial governments.

The rural finance department of the Joint Board is the coordinating organ for the administration of rural credits in China. The Farmers' Bank of China is responsible for granting 45 per cent of the loans. In 1941, it loaned out \$259,561,000, more than 50 per cent of the total. The Bank of China extended 25 per cent, and the Bank of Communications and the Central Trust 15 per cent each.

Since August, 1942, the Farmers' Bank of China has been solely responsible for the extension of rural loans. The Bank of China, the Bank of Communications, and the Central Trust concluded their dealings in rural credits at that time, and handed over such affairs to the Farmers' Bank in accordance with instructions from the Joint Board.

Aiming at increasing agricultural production, more loans will be extended for the development of irrigation in conformity with the guiding principles laid down by the Joint Board for the extension of rural loans in 1943. In extending loans, preference is given to those cooperatives and other farmers' unions which are soundly organized. Rural savings is simultaneously promoted, while rural cooperative banks are being strengthened by enlarging the membership and increasing the capital. Special attention is directed to the extension of rural loans to the war areas and border regions.

From January to August, 1942, rural loans extended by government financial agencies totalled \$358,189,000. Total loans outstanding at the end of last August amounted to \$584,904,000.

SAVINGS DEPOSITS

The rapid banking development and the increase in note-issue have also been responsible for the spectacular growth in the savings deposits in government and private banks. While statistics for savings in private banks are not available, the total deposits in the Four Government Banks increased from \$1,027,105,713 to \$1,558,221,376 between October, 1941 and June, 1942.

Of the \$1,558,221,376, \$31,287,800 represented the purchase of gold dollar savings certificates by the people at the rate of NC\$20 to US \$1.00. These gold savings certificates, issued in April, 1942, are backed by a portion of the US \$500,000,000 loan to China.

Ordinary savings accounts occupied \$845,582,380.71 of the total. The government banks which are included in the statistics are the Central Trust, the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications, the Farmers' Bank of China and the Postal Remittances and Savings Bank.

Thrift savings accounts constituted \$32,664,461 of the total. Purchase of thrift savings certificates by the people amounted to \$648,686,734 up to June, 1942. The goal of the national sales promotion campaign for 1942 is \$3,000,000,000. The purpose of issuing these thrift savings certificates was stated by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek in a nationwide message on September 6, 1940, when he said, in part: "This fund will be devoted to a variety of reconstruction projects, such as extracting mineral resources, expanding light and heavy industries, coordinating

production and sales, developing agriculture and forestry, promoting irrigation and water conservancy, facilitating communication and transportation, etc. All these economic enterprises are closely related to national resistance and reconstruction. The National Government will be glad to consider the constructive suggestions of depositors on the method of supervision regarding the custody and utilization of the fund."

CUSTOMS GOLD UNIT

In consequence of the heavy depreciation in the value of silver, the National Government decided, early in 1930, to enforce the collection of Customs duties in a new gold unit.

Dr. T. V. Soong, then Minister of Finance, on January 15, 1930, issued an order to the Maritime Customs Administration to the following effect:

"Commencing with February 1, 1930, Customs duties in imports from abroad will be collected on a gold basis. Other Customs dues and charges, however, will continue to be collected as heretofore.

"In converting specific rates to a gold basis, the approximate average rate of exchange for the last quarter of 1929 will be used from February 1, to March 15, 1930. On and after March 16, 1930, the approximate average rate of exchange for the month of January, 1929, will be used.

"On and after February 1, 1930, the Haikwan tael will be discontinued as the unit of calculation of duties on imports from abroad. Instead, a new gold unit will be used. This unit will be equal to 60.1866 centigrams of pure gold and will, therefore, be equivalent to gold dollar 0.40 or 19.7265 pence sterling, or 0.8025 gold yen. From February 1, to March 15, 1930, inclusive, specific duties on imports from abroad now expressed in Haikwan taels will be converted into the new unit on the basis of Haikwan tael one equals 1.50 of the new unit; and beginning with March 16, 1930, on the basis of Haikwan tael one equals 1.75 of the new unit.

"As heretofore, dollars, taels and other currencies will be received in payment of duties. The rates at which such currencies will be accepted in payment of duties expressed in the new unit will be officially announced from time to time. At least three days' public notice will be given in the

even of change in rates. While for obvious reasons no attempt will be made to follow daily exchange fluctuations, these rates will closely approximate market rates between the respective local currency and gold-standard currencies."

Effective from April 1, 1942, the Ministry of Finance instructed the Central Bank of China to put into circulation all the C.G.U. notes issued since the end of 1931. The amounts issued during the 11-year period ending December, 1941, are as follows:

<i>Date</i>	<i>Amount in C.G.U.</i>
End of 1931	250,000.00
End of 1932	425,000.00
End of 1933	416,715.40
End of 1934	373,324.70
End of 1935	373,324.70
End of 1936	409,630.70
End of 1937	409,630.70
End of 1938	609,017.00
End of 1939	447,983.00
End of 1940	340,955.60
End of 1941	340,955.60

The relation between the C.G.U. and the legal tender is calculated by comparing the exchange rate between C.G.U. and the U.S. dollar with that between the U.S. dollar and the legal tender. The present gold content of 88.8671 centigrams in the C.G.U. marks an increase over the content in 1931 which was quoted at 60.1866 centigrams and which was, therefore, equivalent to US dollar 0.40 on the basis that the pure gold content of the American dollar was then quoted at 150.463 centigrams. The C.G.U. at present is at par with the U.S. dollar, whose gold content is also 88.8671 centigrams.

C.G.U. notes issued in May, 1931 were of the five denominations of \$10, \$5, \$1, \$0.20 and \$0.10.

The application of the C.G.U. assumed a wider range in 1932 when it was first used as the basis for the calculation of the value of import trade. A further extension occurred on September 9, 1934, when the Ministry of Finance ordered the Shanghai Gold Stock Exchange to base all their quotations on the C.G.U. rather than on foreign exchange.

APPENDIX

SUMMARY REGULATIONS GOVERNING
WARTIME NATIONAL FINANCIAL
STRUCTURE

*(Promulgated by the National Government
on September 8, 1939)*

Article I. The Four Government Banks, namely, the Central Bank of China, the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications, and the Farmers' Bank of China, shall be authorized to form a Joint Board to conduct all kinds of banking business relative to the wartime financial policy of the National Government. The said Board shall be organized along the following lines:—

- (a) The Joint Board shall have a Board of Directors to be composed of the Governor and Deputy Governor of the Central Bank of China, the Chairman of the Board of Directors and the General Manager of the Bank of China, the Chairman of the Board of Directors and the General Manager of the Bank of Communications, the Chairman of the Board of Directors and the General Manager of the Farmers' Bank of China and a special representative of the Ministry of Finance.
- (b) The Board of Directors of the Joint Board shall have a Chairman and three Executive Directors, to be officially appointed by the National Government. The Chairman shall have general charge of all banking affairs, while the Executive Directors shall assist the Chairman in handling such affairs.
- (c) The Joint Board shall have a Secretary-General to be appointed by the Chairman.
- (d) The Ministry of Finance shall authorize the Chairman of the Board of Directors of the Joint Board to take the necessary steps on its behalf and on behalf of the Four Government Banks to cope with financial conditions in wartime.
- (e) The organic law and other regulations of the Joint Board shall be formulated by the Board of Directors and submitted to the Ministry of Finance for official approval.

Article II. The Four Government Banks shall continue to perform separately their respective functions and develop their banking business as specifically provided in their respective banking charters.

Article III. In case any one of the Four Government Banks has not yet moved its head office to the seat of the National Government,

the Board of Directors of the Joint Board shall be responsible for effecting such removal by fixing a date in the nearest future.

Article IV. The Joint Board and the head offices of the Four Government Banks shall be required to submit to the Ministry of Finance for official examination a daily report on receipts and disbursements, amount of note issue and interest rate in the money market as well as a monthly statement of assets and liabilities as at the end of the previous month before the tenth day of each month.

Article V. The Joint Board and the head offices of the Four Government Banks may from time to time submit to the Ministry of Finance confidential reports and proposals relating to important questions of wartime currency and finance.

But as regards those measures already approved by the Ministry of Finance for execution, the Joint Board and the head offices of the Four Government Banks shall carry out such measures in strict accordance with the instructions of the Ministry of Finance without delay.

In doing so, they shall be required to appoint a special official to supervise the work at various sub-offices. An outline of procedure and a blank form of report shall be prepared for this purpose. Monthly reports on the work undertaken in different districts shall be prepared and submitted to the Ministry of Finance through the Joint Board and the head offices of the Four Government Banks.

Article VI. The Board of Directors of the Joint Board shall have from ten to twenty inspectors. They shall be sent to the head and branch offices of the Four Government Banks to ascertain whether any banking office disobeys or delays the execution of the National Government's policies, and whether or not the banks conduct their affairs in full conformity with the wartime requirements. The inspectors shall submit to the Ministry of Finance from time to time confidential reports on the results of their inspection, so that reward may be granted the deserving banks and proper penalties may be meted out to the delinquent ones.

Article VII. The present Summary Regulations shall come into force upon the approval of the Supreme National Defence Council.

REVISED ORGANIC LAW OF THE JOINT
BOARD OF FOUR GOVERNMENT BANKS

*Promulgated by the Ministry of Finance on
September 1, 1942)*

Article I. In order to carry out the wartime financial and economic policies of the National Government, the Central Bank of China, the

Bank of China, the Bank of Communications and the Farmers' Bank of China shall form a joint administration office, to be known, for the sake of convenience, as the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks. The Joint Board will take charge of the supervision and direction of the activities and business affairs of the Central Bank of China, the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications and the Farmers' Bank of China.

Article II. The activities and business affairs of the Central Trust of China and the Postal Remittances and Savings Bank shall also come under the supervision and direction of the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks.

Article III. The duties of the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks shall be as follows :—

- (1) Planning and distribution of the financial network.
- (2) Training, examination and readjustment of the personnel of the government banks.
- (3) Auditing of the expenditures and budgetary estimates of the government banks.
- (4) Adjustment of the note-issue and inspection of note reserves of the government banks.
- (5) Directing and auditing of savings deposits.
- (6) Auditing and inspection of loans extension.
- (7) Auditing and inspection of rural credits extension.
- (8) Approval of applications for foreign exchange by importers.
- (9) Assisting the Ministry of Finance in the administration of matters relating to finance.
- (10) Other matters relating to the financial policy in wartime.

Article IV. The Joint Board of the Four Government Banks shall have a Board of Directors composed of the Governor and the Deputy-Governor of the Central Bank of China, the Chairman and the General Manager of the Bank of China, the Chairman and the General Manager of the Bank of Communications, the Chairman and the General Manager of the Farmers' Bank of China as well as the ministers of finance, economic affairs, communications and food.

Article V. The Board of Directors of the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks shall have a Chairman and a Deputy Chairman. The Chairman shall have full charge of all affairs and the Deputy Chairman shall assist the Chairman in the discharge of his official duties.

Article VI. The Ministry of Finance shall authorize the Chairman and the Deputy Chairman of the Board of Directors of the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks to administer the activities and business affairs of the Central Bank of China, the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications and the Farmers' Bank of China as well as the Central Trust of China and the Postal Remittances and Savings Bank. Whenever necessary the Chairman and the Deputy Chairman may take over the activities and business affairs of the government banks.

Article VII. The Joint Board of the Four Government Banks shall organize a Wartime Finance and Economy Committee for formulating policies. Members of the committee shall be selected by the Chairman and Deputy Chairman from senior staff members of government banks or from other experts.

Article VIII. The Wartime Finance and Economy Committee shall have the following sub-committees for the examination of related matters ; Note-Issue, Savings, Loans and Discounts, Rural Finance, Exchange and Special Investment.

Article IX. The Wartime Finance and Economy Committee and its sub-committees shall each have a director and a deputy director and a certain number of members. They shall be appointed by the Chairman and Deputy Chairman of the Board of Directors of the Joint Board. The Secretariat of the Joint Board may invite interested persons to attend meetings of sub-committees.

Article X. The Joint Board of the Four Government Banks shall have a Secretariat in charge of daily office work under the direction of the Chairman and Deputy Chairman. The Secretariat shall have the following sections ; Correspondence, Auditing, Statistics, Note-Issue, Savings, Loans, Rural Credits and Exchange.

Article XI. The Secretariat shall have a Secretary-General and an Assistant Secretary-General to be appointed by the Chairman and Deputy Chairman. Every section will have a section chief to be appointed by the Chairman and Deputy Chairman upon the recommendation of the Secretary-General.

Article XII. The Secretariat shall have from two to four secretaries and a certain number of technical experts, supervisors and auditors to be appointed by the Chairman and Deputy Chairman upon the recommendation of the Secretary-General.

Article XIII. The sections of the Secretariat may have sub-sections under them to handle different work. The staff of sub-sections shall be employed by the Secretary-General.

Article XIV. Whenever necessary, the Secretary-General may petition the Chairman

and Deputy Chairman of the Joint Board to borrow the services of staff members of government banks. The salaries of borrowed staff members shall be paid by the government banks concerned.

Article XV. Whenever necessary, the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks may establish branch offices or sub-offices in other localities. The organization of branch offices and sub-offices shall be governed by separate regulations.

Article XVI. If other laws and regulations are contradictory to this Revised Organic Law of the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks, the provisions in this Revised Organic Law shall prevail.

Article XVII. The Revised Organic Law shall be approved by the Ministry of Finance and shall be enforced after submitting the same to the Supreme National Defense Council for reference.

THE *Hsien* BANK LAW

(Promulgated by the National Government
on January 20, 1940)

Article I. *Hsien* banks shall be established according to law by *hsien* governments with public funds of the *hsien*, districts and towns and voluntary subscriptions of the people.

(This provision shall apply to municipal banks of ordinary municipalities and other similar administrative districts.)

Article II. *Hsien* banks shall be business organizations of limited liability. They shall be established on the petition of competent local authorities and is subject to the Ministry of Finance for registration. *Hsien* banks shall regulate local finance, participate in economic reconstruction and help expand cooperative enterprises.

Article III. A *hsien* bank shall regard the *hsien* with its districts and towns as the area of its business operations. Two or more *hsien* or one *hsien* and its surrounding *hsien*, district and town may be grouped into one area of banking activities, if warranted by special local conditions.

Article IV. A *hsien* bank may establish branch banks, sub-branches and bank offices within its business area. But such a step shall be reported to the Ministry of Finance through the competent local authorities for record keeping.

Article V. A *hsien* bank shall be allowed to conduct banking business for 30 years. At the end of this period, the banks may apply for an extension through the petition of competent local authorities subject to the approval of the Ministry of Finance.

Article VI. A *hsien* bank shall have a total capital of not less than \$50,000. At least 50 per cent of the capital shall be represented by private shares.

Article VII. The private shares of a *hsien* bank shall be solicited from persons living within the *hsien*. In case of inadequacy, persons living outside the area of banking operations may be approached as prospective shareholders.

Article VIII. All persons of legal age and cooperative societies located within the area of banking operations shall be eligible as private shareholders of a *hsien* bank.

Article IX. A *hsien* bank shall be allowed to open for business when more than 50 per cent of its capital has been collected and when through the petition of the *hsien* chamber of commerce, including the following particulars, the Ministry of Finance has approved its registration and issued a business licence :—

- (1) A list of names and birthplaces of bank shareholders,
- (2) A list of the amount of capital both paid and unpaid by the shareholders,
- (3) A list of names and birthplaces of bank employees,
- (4) The amount of license fee paid.

Any unpaid bank capital shall be fully paid within 5 years from the date of registration. The payment of such capital shall be reported to the Ministry of Finance for record keeping.

Article X. A *hsien* bank shall engage in the following activities :

- (1) Receive deposits,
- (2) Extend loans against guaranteed securities,
- (3) Extend guaranteed credit loans,
- (4) Handle domestic exchange and documentary remittances,
- (5) Accept and discount commercial papers,
- (6) Act as agent for the collection and payment of funds,
- (7) Underwrite government bonds, corporate bonds and agricultural bonds,
- (8) Conduct warehousing business,
- (9) Assume custody of precious articles and marketable securities.

Article XI. A *hsien* bank shall confine its loan operations to the following categories :—

- (1) Loans on local granaries,
- (2) Loans on agricultural, forestry, mining and communications enterprises,
- (3) Loans on pawned articles,
- (4) Loans on sanitary equipment enterprises,
- (5) Loans on other local constructive projects,
- (6) Loans on water conservancy projects.

Article XII. *Hsien* banks shall act as agents for public treasuries under the jurisdiction of *hsien* governments.

Article XIII. A *hsien* bank shall be prohibited from extending any loan for a period of more than two years.

Article XIV. *Hsien* banks may act as agents of provincial, municipal and other banks,

Article XV. *Hsien* banks may borrow funds from provincial, municipal and other banks without security and repay such loans on the instalment basis.

Article XVI. Whenever deemed necessary, the Ministry of Finance or the local authorities may restrict the loan extension and other activities of *hsien* banks.

Article XVII. *Hsien* banks shall be prohibited from conducting the following activities as well as others not provided in the present Law :

- (1) Purchasing shares of the bank or granting loans with the bank's shares as security,
- (2) Buying and selling real estate, except property required for business operations,
- (3) Buying and selling marketable securities.

Article XVIII. The directors and supervisors representing government shares shall be appointed by *hsien* governments ; while the directors and supervisors representing private shares shall be elected at the shareholders' meeting according to law.

A list of the names and birthplaces of directors and supervisors shall be reported through the local authorities to the Ministry of Finance for record keeping.

Article XIX. The fiscal year of *hsien* banks shall correspond to the calendar year. The banks shall make semi-annual settlements at the end of June of each year.

Article XX. At the end of each fiscal year the following documentary reports shall be compiled by the board of directors and inspected by the supervisors of the bank :—

- (1) A report on the business conditions of the bank,
- (2) A statement of bank assets and liabilities,
- (3) A full list of bank assets,
- (4) A statement of bank profits and losses,
- (5) Proposals for the distribution of surplus, dividend, bonus, etc.

The above reports shall be submitted through the local authorities to the Ministry of Finance for examination and approval. The balance sheet and the profit and loss statement shall be published in the local newspapers.

Article XXI. At the time of business settlement, the banks shall allocate at least 20 per cent of the net profits toward the surplus account. When the accumulated surplus becomes twice as much as the total capital, the rate of annual allotment may be reduced to 10 per cent of the net profits.

Banks shall use the surplus to make up any losses in capital and maintain the usual rate of dividend.

Article XXII. In addition to accumulating surplus, *hsien* banks shall declare annual dividends. Such dividends shall be paid to private shareholders before the government shareholders are entitled to receive dividends. The rate of dividends shall be specifically mentioned in the regulations of the banks ; but the rate of dividends for private shares shall be from one to two per cent higher than that for government shares.

Article XXIII. When a *hsien* bank violates the provisions of Article II, the Ministry of Finance may order the bank concerned to suspend its operations and ask the court to impose thereon a fine of from \$500 to \$2,000.

Article XXIV. When a *hsien* bank violates the provisions of Articles IV, XIII, XVI, XVII, XIX, XX, XXI and XXII, the directors and manager of the bank concerned shall be subject to a fine of from \$10 to \$1,000.

Article XXV. The Banking Law and other specific bank laws and regulations shall apply in matters not covered by the present Law.

Article XXVI. The present Law shall come into force from the date of its promulgation.

SUMMARY REGULATIONS GOVERNING THE PROMOTION OF THRIFT AND RECONSTRUCTION SAVINGS DEPOSITS

(Applicable to the Central Bank of China, the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications, the Farmers' Bank of China, the Central Trust of China, and the Postal Remittances and Savings Bank)

Article I. During the current fiscal year (1940) the various government financial institutions shall receive Thrift and Reconstruction Savings deposits to the maximum limit of NC \$200,000,000 according to the following proportions ; The Central Bank of China, \$30,000,000 ; the Bank of China, \$30,000,000 ; the Bank of Communications, \$30,000,000 ; the Farmers' Bank of China, \$30,000,000 ; the Central Trust of China, \$30,000,000 ; and the Postal Remittances and Savings Bank, \$50,000,000.

Article II. The various government financial institutions shall be required to instruct their branches and sub-branches to take an active

part in promoting such savings and in obtaining the respective amount of their pledged shares of savings deposits at the end of 1940.

They shall also be required to submit a monthly report on the actual amount of savings deposits to the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks. In case of necessity, the said Board may appoint special inspectors to investigate the operating record of the various government financial institutions in handling Thrift and Reconstruction Savings.

Article III. The various government financial institutions shall formulate their own rules of inspecting the work of their employees handling savings and submit the same to the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks for registration. The said Board shall recommend the most meritorious bank employees to the Ministry of Finance for special encouragement.

Article IV. The Joint Board may, on the basis of the operating record of savings deposits submitted by the various government financial institutions, petition the Ministry of Finance for the approval of granting individual subsidies to the deserving banks.

Article V. The Joint Board may petition the Ministry of Finance for the approval of exempting the savings depositors from the payment of income tax on interest earned on Thrift and Reconstruction Savings in order to encourage the people to respond enthusiastically to the call of the nation-wide savings drive.

Article VI. For the purpose of supervising and assisting the various government financial institutions in the active promotion of Thrift and Reconstruction Savings, the Joint Board shall establish the Thrift and Reconstruction Savings Soliciting Committee with its head office in Chungking and branch offices in various localities.

Article VII. The work of soliciting savings shall be wide-spread and permanent in nature. It shall be conducted in close cooperation with the Ministry of Information's committee on thrift and reconstruction savings in order to utilize fully publicity means in the movement.

Article VIII. The expenditures of head and branch offices of the Savings Soliciting Committee shall be submitted by its head office to the Joint Board for approval. The total amount of expenditures in the Committee's budget (to be separately drafted and approved) shall be borne by the various government financial institutions in the following proportions: The Central Bank of China, and the Central Trust of China, 25 per cent; the Bank of China, 25 per cent; the Postal Remittances and Savings Bank, 20 per cent; the Bank of Communications, 15 per cent; and the Farmers' Bank of China, 15 per cent.

Article IX. The head and branch offices of the Savings Soliciting Committee shall have a number of solicitors and assistant solicitors. They may be either transferred from the various Government financial institutions or employed through public examination.

Article X. The present regulations shall be put into effect upon the approval of the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks.

PROVISIONAL REGULATIONS OF BANKING CONTROL IN WARTIME

(Promulgated by the Ministry of Finance on August 7, 1940)

Article I. In addition to laws and regulations governing banking activities all banks shall carry on their daily operations in wartime in accordance with the present Regulations.

All financial institutions, operating under other names than "banks" and engaged in any of these functions, such as receiving deposits, granting loans or mortgage loans, discounting commercial papers, conducting exchange operations, etc., shall be regarded as "banks" under the present Regulations.

Article II. With the exception of savings deposits specifically governed by the *Savings Bank Law* every bank shall be required to deposit a "deposit reserve fund" equivalent to twenty per cent of its total deposits with any of the Four Government Banks, namely, the Central Bank of China, the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications and the Farmers' Bank of China, within the same locality. The depositing bank shall be entitled to receive a reasonable rate of interest on such "deposit reserve" from any of the Four Government Banks concerned.

Article III. The banks shall utilize their deposits for sound investment in enterprises for productive reconstruction and the joint production and sale of commodities. They shall confine their mortgage loans to legitimate business and approved businessmen. Upon receiving applications for renewing mortgage loans the banks shall carefully scrutinize the nature of commodities involved. If the mortgaged goods are articles of daily necessity essential to the people's livelihood, the banks shall refuse the renewal of such loans and insist on their prompt repayment in order to prevent the abusive practice of hoarding.

Article IV. The banks shall be prohibited from direct participation in any business undertaking or in hoarding any kind of commodities. They shall also be prohibited from buying and selling commodities either on their own account or on behalf of their clients through the instrumentality of their "agency department," "trading department," "trust department," or any other such offices.

Article V. In accepting funds for outport remittances the banks shall confine this type of banking activity to funds definitely used for the purchase of daily necessities or war requirements.

Article VI. The banks shall submit a ten-day report in tabular form on the actual conditions of their deposits, loans and remittances to the Ministry of Finance for inspection. The official form of these report tables shall be separately fixed by the Ministry of Finance.

Article VII. The Ministry of Finance shall appoint inspectors to examine the daily accounts, vault conditions and other important documents of the banks at any time without notice.

Article VIII. The employees of banks, whether government operated or jointly managed by the Government and private persons, shall be regarded as government employees and prohibited from direct participation in any business undertaking.

Article IX. Any violation of the provisions of the present Regulations shall be punishable by law. The following punishments shall also apply to such violations:

- (1) For any violation of Articles II, V and VI the violator shall be subject to a fine of from \$3,000 to \$10,000.
- (2) For any violation of Articles III and IV the violator shall be subject to a fine equivalent to fifty per cent of the total amount of his business transactions.
- (3) For refusal or obstruction in the performance of duties under Article VII the violator shall be subject to not only the penalty for gross negligence of official duties but also separate punishment for specific charges under the present Regulations.

Article X. The present Regulations shall come into force from the date of their promulgation.

REVISED REGULATIONS GOVERNING WAR RISK INSURANCE POLICIES OF CENTRAL TRUST OF CHINA

*(Promulgated by the National Government
on October 11, 1937 and revised
on November 4, 1938)*

Article I. For the purpose of regulating wartime foreign and domestic trade and safeguarding the shipment of agricultural, industrial and mining products the National Government has issued a special order to the Ministry of Finance to appropriate the sum of \$10,000,000 toward the capital of the Central Trust of China as a special fund for conducting the business of war-risk insurance.

In case of insufficiency, the Central Trust of China may submit a petition to the Ministry of Finance for additional appropriations.

The Central Trust of China shall handle war-risk insurance under an independent accounting system and submit a monthly report on all the accounts to the Ministry of Finance for examination. At the conclusion of hostilities war-risk insurance shall be discontinued.

Article II. War-risk insurance shall cover the following kinds:—

- (1) War-risk in transit, which shall be limited to the war-risk involved in land and water transportation during the period of trans-shipment, that is, all war-risks of transportation before the unloading of imports or after the loading of exports. The Central Trust of China shall be authorized to write land transportation insurance on both war and ordinary risks, but not on war-risk alone.
- (2) Insurance policies on war-risk in transit include six classes:—
 - (a) Agricultural produce
 - (b) Mineral products
 - (c) Manufactured goods
 - (d) Commodities of foreign trade
 - (e) Transportation equipment, limited to those in transit related to (a), (b), (c) and (d)
 - (f) Transportation workers, limited to a definite number of those serving in the period of transportation related to (a), (b), (c) and (d)
- (3) In case of undue risks inherent in the nature of insured commodities and the conditions of transportation, the Central Trust of China, by explaining the difficulties involved, may reject the application for war-risk insurance.

Article III. With regard to the insurance of export commodities in transit, the applicant shall be required to obtain advance permission from the Foreign Trade Commission of the Ministry of Finance.

Article IV. The Central Trust of China may designate and appoint the various Chinese insurance companies as its agents for handling war-risk insurance.

Article V. The Central Trust of China may organize a War-risk Insurance Advisory Committee for consulting purposes. The members of this Committee, serving without remuneration, shall be composed of one delegate each from the Ministries of Finance, Economic Affairs, and Communications and several insurance experts to be invited to serve on the Committee by the Central Trust of China.

Article VI. All insurance rates on wartime risks shall be determined by the Central Trust of China according to the degree of risk involved and the conditions in the market. Subject to change from time to time, they shall be paid in full without discount.

The insurance rates shall be reported to the Ministry of Finance for inspection.

Article VII. The provisions of the insurance certificate shall be formulated by the Central Trust of China according to the customary

insurance practice. In case of damage done to the insured, the procedure of indemnification shall be carried out according to the provisions of the insurance certificate.

The insurance provisions shall be reported to the Ministry of Finance for inspection.

Article VIII. The present Regulations shall, after their registration with the National Government, come into force upon the approval by the Ministry of Finance.

GOVERNMENT BANKS

<i>Name</i>	<i>Paid-Up Capital</i>	<i>Head office</i>
Central Bank of China	\$100,000,000	Chungking
Bank of China	60,000,000	"
Bank of Communications	60,000,000	"
Farmers' Bank of China	60,000,000	"
Central Trust	50,000,000	"
Postal Remittances and Savings Bank		"

*The Postal Bank has no paid-up capital but draws its working capital from the Ministry of Communications.

PRIVATE BANKS

<i>Name</i>	<i>Paid-Up Capital</i>	<i>Head office</i>
Agricultural and Commercial Bank	\$ 3,000,000	Shanghai
Agricultural and Industrial Bank of China	5,000,000	Shanghai ; Chungking
Agricultural and Industrial Bank of Kiangtsing	5,000,000	Kiangtsing (Szechwan)
Agricultural and Industrial Bank of Shenghsien	106,900	Shenghsien (Chekiang)
Agricultural and Industrial Bank of Tatsusien	200,000	Tatsu (Szechwan)
An Hua Commercial Bank	500,000	Shanghai
Bank of Asia	1,000,000	Shanghai
Bank of Greater Asia	500,000	Shanghai
Bank of Kunming	2,030,300	Kunming
Central Trust Company	10,000,000	Chungking
Changkiang Industrial Bank	2,000,000	Chungking
Chekiang Commercial Banking Corp.	500,000	Ningpo (Chekiang)
Chekiang Construction Bank	500,000	Shaoshing (Chekiang)
Chekiang Industrial Bank	2,000,000	Shanghai
Chekiang Industrial and Commercial Bank	4,000,000	Shanghai
Cheng Ming Commercial and Savings Bank	500,000	Shanghai
Chengtu Commercial Bank	500,000	Chengtu
Chi Kang Bank	2,500,000	Yaan (Sikang)
Chien Kuo Bank	1,330,000	Chungking
Chientai Commercial Bank	500,000	Shanghai
China Development Bank	1,000,000	Shanghai
China Development Finance Corp.	10,000,000	Hongkong
China and South Sea Bank	7,500,000	Shanghai
China Industrial and Mining Bank	5,000,000	Chungking
Chung Dai Bank	500,000	Shanghai
Chung Foo Union Bank	2,000,000	Shanghai
Chung Hwa Commercial and Savings Bank	500,000	Shanghai
Chung Mou Bank	3,000,000	Shanghai
Chung Wei Bank	3,500,000	Shanghai
Chung Yun Commercial and Savings Bank	500,000	Shanghai
Chungking Bank	10,000,000	Chungking
Chungwoo Commercial and Savings Bank	500,000	Shanghai
Commercial Bank of Foochow	250,000	Foochow
Continental Bank	4,000,000	Shanghai
Dah Chwan Bank	3,000,000	Chengtu
Dah Chung Bank	4,000,000	Shanghai
Dah Kong Bank	500,000	Shanghai

<i>Name</i>	<i>Paid-up Capital</i>	<i>Head office</i>
Dah Kung Commercial and Savings Bank	\$ 1,000,000	Shanghai
Dah Mou Commercial Bank	500,000	Yuanling (Hunan)
Dah Tung Commercial Bank	250,000	Tsungming (Kiangsu)
Development Bank of Szechwan	1,000,000	Chungking
Foo Chwan Bank	2,500,000	Chengtu
Foo Yuan Trust Co.	500,000	Shanghai
Fu Feng Trust Co.	1,000,000	Shanghai
Fuh Li Industrial Bank	2,000,000	Hengyang (Hunan)
Hankow Commercial and Savings Bank	1,000,000	Hankow
Heng Lee Bank	707,280	Shanghai
Ho Chen Bank	2,000,000	Chungking
Ho Tai Commercial Bank	500,000	Shanghai
Ho Ziang Hsin Trust Co.	500,000	Shanghai
Hwa An Commercial and Savings Bank	500,000	Shanghai
Hwa Feng Trust Co.	500,000	Shanghai
Hwa Mou Commercial Bank	500,000	Shanghai
Industrial Bank of Asia	5,000,000	Chungking
Industrial Bank of Kiangsi	1,000,000	Kian (Kiangsi)
Joint Savings Society and Joint Trust	1,000,000	Shanghai
Kaiyuan Bank	1,000,000	Chungking
Kianghai Bank	1,000,000	Chungking
Kiangsi Reconstruction Bank	1,000,000	Kanhsien
Kingcheng Banking Corporation	7,000,000	Shanghai; Chungking
Kuo Fu Commercial and Savings Bank	1,000,000	Shanghai
Kuo Hwa Bank	3,050,000	Shanghai
Kuo Siing Bank	1,000,000	Shanghai
Kuoan Trust Co.	500,000	Shanghai
Kwang Chung Commercial Bank	1,000,000	Shanghai
Kwang Hwa Bank	500,000	Shanghai
Kwang Yui Bank	5,000,000	Chungking
Land Bank of China	2,500,000	Shanghai
Manufacturers Bank of China	5,000,000	Hongkong; Chungking
Mei Feng Bank of Szechwan	10,000,000	Chungking
Min Foo Commercial and Savings Bank	500,000	Shanghai
Mou Hwa Commercial Bank	1,200,000	Chungking
Mutual Aid Trust Co.	2,000,000	Chengtu
Nanking Commercial Bank	250,000	Nanking
National Commercial Bank of China	4,000,000	Shanghai; Chungking
National Industrial Bank of China	4,000,000	Chungking
Ningpo Commercial and Savings Bank	4,000,000	Hongkong; Chungking
Ouhai Industrial Bank	250,000	Wenchow (Chekiang)
Pachwan Bank	500,000	Tungliang (Szechwan)
Pingtai Bank	1,000,000	Shanghai
Pootung Commercial Bank	1,000,000	Shanghai
Salt Bank of Szechwan	6,000,000	Chungking
Shanghai Citizen's Commercial and Savings Bank	250,000	Shanghai
Shanghai Coal Merchants Bank	400,000	Shanghai
Shanghai Commercial and Savings Bank	5,000,000	Shanghai
Shanghai Iron Industry Bank	1,000,000	Shanghai
Shanghai Reconstruction Bank	500,000	Shanghai
Shanghai Silk Industry Commercial and Savings Bank	1,200,000	Shanghai
Shanghai Trust Company	1,000,000	Shanghai
Shansi Yui Hwa Bank	5,000,000	Chungking
Shaoshing Commercial Bank	250,000	Shaoshing (Chekiang)
Shenghsien District Bank	62,120	Shenghsien (Chekiang)
Sin Hua Trust and Savings Bank	2,000,000	Chungking
South-Eastern Trust Company	1,000,000	Shanghai
Sung Tai Trust Co.	3,000,000	Shanghai
Szechwan-Sikang People's Commercial Bank	10,000,000	Chungking
Tai Ho Hsin Bank	1,200,000	Shanghai
Tung Chi Trust Co., of Northwest	250,000	Sian
Tung Hwei Industrial Bank	2,000,000	Chungking
Tung Lai Bank	5,000,000	Shanghai

<i>Name</i>	<i>Paid-up Capital</i>	<i>Head office</i>
Tung Sing Bank	\$ 5,000,000	Chungking
Tung Wei Trust Co.	500,000	Shanghai
Tung Yih Trust Co.	3,000,000	Shanghai
Tungyi Trust Co.	1,360,000	Shanghai
Tungyun Commercial and Savings Bank	1,117,500	Shanghai
Tze Chung Commercial and Savings Bank	1,000,000	Shanghai
Wei Chung Commercial and Savings Bank	1,500,000	Shanghai
Wenchow Commercial Bank	200,000	Wenchow (Chekiang)
Women's Commercial and Savings Bank	500,000	Shanghai
Yi Feng Bank	2,500,000	Luh sien
Yi Hwa Bank	4,000,000	Kunming
Yien Yieh Commercial Bank	7,500,000	Shanghai ; Chungking
Young Brothers Banking Corporation	4,000,000	Chungking
Yu Song Bank of Tzeliutsing	500,000	Tzeliutsing (Szechwan)
Yu Tsing Bank	1,000,000	Tientsin
Yun Feng Commercial Bank	1,000,000	Shanghai
Yunnan Hsing Wen Bank	16,000,000	Kunming
Yunnan Industrial Bank	12,000,000	Kunming
Yunnan Mining Bank	5,000,000	Kunming
Yung Dah Bank	500,000	Shanghai
Yung Hung Banking Corporation of Shanghai	700,000	Shanghai
Yung Lee Bank	2,400,000	Chungking
Yung Tai Commercial Bank	700,000	Shanghai

PROVINCIAL BANKS

Anhwei Provincial Bank	\$ 5,000,000	Lihwang ; Tuncki
Chekiang District Bank	1,769,200	Lishui
Fukien Provincial Bank	5,000,000	Yungan
Honan Agricultural and Industrial Bank	2,000,000	Loyang
Hopei Provincial Bank	500,000	Loyang
Hunan Provincial Bank	3,000,000	Laiyang
Hupei Provincial Bank	5,000,000	Enshih
Kansu Provincial Bank	3,500,000	Lanchow
Kiangsi Farmers' Bank	4,000,000	Chungking
Kiangsi Provincial Bank	6,000,000	Shanghai
Kiangsi Reconstruction Bank	500,000	
Kwangsi Bank	6,512,500	Kweilin
Kwangtung Provincial Bank	10,000,000	Shiukwan
Kweichow Bank	3,000,000	Kweiyang
Ningsia Provincial Bank	1,200,000	Ningsia
Shansi Provincial Bank	...	
Shantung People's Bank	3,200,000	
Shensi Provincial Bank	5,000,000	Sian
Sikang Provincial Bank	3,500,000	Kangting
Sinkiang Provincial Bank	...	
Suiyuan Provincial Bank	300,000	Shenpa
Szechwan Provincial Bank	4,000,000	Chungking
Yu Ming Bank of Kiangsi	2,000,000	Kanhsien
Yunnan Futien New Bank	8,000,000	Kunming
Yunnan Singwen Bank	4,000,000	Kunming

Hsien (COUNTY) BANKS

Changshow Hsien Bank	\$ 100,250	Changshow (Szechwan)
Chengtu Hsien Bank	400,400	Chengtu (Szechwan)
Chuhsien Hsien Bank	300,000	Chuhsien (Szechwan)
Chunghsien Hsien Bank	100,000	Chunghsien (Szechwan)
Fowling Hsien Bank	332,450	Fowling (Szechwan)
Fushun Hsien Bank	600,000	Fujen (Szechwan)
Hochwan Hsien Bank	200,000	Hochwan (Szechwan)
Hokiang Hsien Bank	400,000	Hokiang (Szechwan)
Hsingwen Hsien Bank	55,000	Hsingwen (Szechwan)
Hunghsien Bank	100,000	Hunghsien (Szechwan)

<i>Names</i>	<i>Paid-up Capital</i>	<i>Head office</i>
Jungchang Hsien Bank	\$ 100,000	Jungchang (Szechwan)
Junghsien Hsien Bank	200,000	Yunhsien (Szechwan)
Kaihsien Hsien Bank	200,000	Kaihsien (Szechwan)
Kiangpei Hsien Bank	200,000	Kiangpei (Szechwan)
Kienwei Hsien Bank	30,000	Kienwei (Szechwan)
Kikiang Hsien Bank	212,750	Kikiang (Szechwan)
Koyui Hsien Bank	126,040	Koyui (Kwangtung)
Kwangan Hsien Bank	150,000	Kwangan (Szechwan)
Kwanghan Hsien Bank	232,600	Kwanghan (Szechwan)
Lingshui Hsien Bank	200,000	Lingshui (Szechwan)
Loshan Hsien Bank	150,000	Loshan (Szechwan)
Luchow Hsien Bank	500,000	Luchow (Szechwan)
Lungchang Hsien Bank	151,050	Lungchang (Szechwan)
Meishan Hsien Bank	52,400	Meishan (Szechwan)
Nachi Hsien Bank	200,000	Nachi (Szechwan)
Nanchung Hsien Bank	543,500	Nanchung (Szechwan)
Nanchwan Hsien Bank	200,000	Nanchwan (Szechwan)
Nanpu Hsien Bank	100,000	Nanpu (Szechwan)
Omei Hsien Bank	100,000	Omei (Szechwan)
Pahsien Hsien Bank	500,000	Pahsien (Szechwan)
Pengki Hsien Bank	72,500	Pengki (Szechwan)
Pengshan Hsien Bank	200,000	Pengshan (Szechwan)
Santai Hsien Bank	100,000	Santai (Szechwan)
Sanyuan Hsien Bank	113,180	Sanyuan (Shensi)
Shihfang Hsien Bank	100,000	Shihfang (Szechwan)
Sienhan Hsien Bank	300,000	Sienhan (Szechwan)
Singtou Hsien Bank	50,000	Singtou (Szechwan)
Suhsien Hsien Bank	100,000	Suhsien (Szechwan)
Suining Hsien Bank	420,000	Suining (Szechwan)
Tahhsien Hsien Bank	260,700	Tahhsien (Szechwan)
Tienkiang Hsien Bank	200,000	Tienkiang (Szechwan)
Tungliang Hsien Bank	100,000	Tugnliang (Szechwan)
Tungnan Hsien Bank	100,000	Tungnan (Szechwan)
Tatsu Hsien Bank	120,000	Tatsu (Szechwan)
Tzechung Hsien Bank	500,000	Tzechung (Szechwan)
Weinan Hsien Bank	251,480	Weinan (Shensi)
Weiyuan Hsien Bank	125,000	Weiyuan (Szechwan)
Wenkiang Hsien Bank	225,000	Wenkiang (Szechwan)
Wuki Hsien Bank	250,000	Wuki (Szechwan)
Yungchwan Hsien Bank	260,000	Yunchwan (Szechwan)

SAVINGS STATISTICS OF CENTRAL TRUST, BANK OF CHINA, BANK OF
COMMUNICATIONS, FARMERS' BANK OF CHINA AND POSTAL
REMITTANCES AND SAVINGS BANK

(October, 1941—June, 1942)

<i>Kinds</i> <i>Date</i>	<i>Ordinary Savings</i> <i>Accounts</i> \$	<i>Thrift Savings</i> <i>Accounts</i> \$	<i>Thrift Savings</i> <i>Certificates</i> \$	<i>US Savings</i> <i>Certificates</i> \$	<i>Total</i> \$
Oct. 1941	579,420,291.19	22,669,628.95	425,015,793.26	..	1,027,105,713.40
Nov. 1941	645,173,517.05	28,406,456.77	450,242,918.46	..	1,123,822,892.28
Dec. 1941	657,361,893.78	28,917,136.53	506,533,078.35	..	1,192,812,108.66
Jan. 1942	685,704,249.40	29,492,443.55	528,124,177.23	..	1,243,320,870.18
Feb. 1942	707,956,430.26	29,561,413.82	545,669,652.07	..	1,283,187,496.15
Mar. 1942	738,286,843.78	30,387,319.22	552,689,937.47	..	1,321,364,100.47
Apr. 1942	777,687,809.10	30,593,690.65	627,696,424.67	1,885,900.00	1,437,863,824.42
May 1942	804,624,425.91	32,124,721.82	654,639,946.36	22,453,620.00	1,513,842,714.09
June 1942	845,582,380.71	32,664,461.52	648,686,734.19	31,287,800.00	1,558,221,376.42

**STATISTICS OF FOREIGN CURRENCY FIXED SAVINGS DEPOSITS IN CENTRAL
BANK OF CHINA, BANK OF CHINA, BANK OF COMMUNICATIONS
AND FARMERS' BANK OF CHINA**

(October, 1941—end of August, 1942)

	US \$		£		TOTAL	
	Original US Deposits	Deposit in NC Equivalents	Original US Deposits	Deposit in NC Equivalents	US \$	£
1941						
October	9,712.88	66,448.43	14,909 1/2	76,218 5/4	76,161.31	91,127 6/6
November	9,663.13	66,448.43	14,909 1/2	76,218 5/4	76,111.56	91,127 6/6
December	9,663.13	68,760.93	15,292 -/9	76,218 5/4	78,424.06	91,510 6/1
1942						
January	9,663.13	68,760.93	15,392 -/9	76,218 5/4	78,424.06	91,610 6/1
February	7,663.13	68,760.93	14,589 6/9	76,218 5/4	76,424.06	90,807 12/1
March	1,541.40	68,760.93	14,454 4/5	76,218 5/4	70,302.33	90,672 9/9
April	1,541.40	68,760.93	14,267 12/10	76,218 5/4	70,302.33	90,485 18/2
May	1,544.40	68,760.93	14,267 12/10	76,218 5/4	70,302.33	90,485 18/2
June	1,541.40	68,760.93	14,267 12/10	76,218 5/4	70,302.33	90,485 18/2
July	1,541.40	68,760.93	14,267 12/10	76,218 5/4	70,302.33	90,485 18/2
August	1,541.40	68,760.93	14,267 12/10	76,218 5/4	70,302.33	90,485 18/2

**TABLE FOR THE PAYMENT OF CAPITAL AND INTEREST OF CLASS A
THRIFT SAVINGS CERTIFICATES**

Period	Capital Plus Accrued Interest	Face Value						
		\$5	\$10	\$50	\$100	\$500	\$1,000	\$10,000
6 months	8%	\$5.20	\$10.40	\$52.00	\$104.00	\$520.00	\$1,040.00	\$10,400.00
1 year	"	5.41	10.82	54.08	108.16	540.80	1,081.60	10,816.00
1½ years	"	5.62	11.25	56.24	112.49	562.43	1,124.86	11,248.64
2½ "	"	5.85	11.70	58.49	116.99	584.93	1,169.86	11,699.59
3½ "	"	6.08	12.17	60.83	121.67	608.33	1,216.65	12,166.53
4½ "	"	6.33	12.65	63.27	126.53	632.66	1,265.32	12,653.19
5½ "	"	6.58	13.16	65.80	131.59	657.97	1,315.93	13,159.32
6½ "	"	6.84	13.69	68.43	136.86	684.28	1,368.57	13,685.69
7½ "	"	7.12	14.23	71.17	142.33	711.66	1,423.31	14,233.12
8½ "	"	8.54	17.08	85.41	170.81	854.07	1,708.14	17,081.44
9½ "	11%	9.01	18.02	90.10	180.21	901.05	1,802.09	18,020.92
10½ "	"	9.51	19.01	95.06	190.12	950.60	1,901.21	19,012.07
6½ "	"	10.03	20.06	100.29	200.58	1,002.89	2,005.77	20,057.74
7½ "	"	10.58	21.16	105.80	211.61	1,058.05	2,116.09	21,160.91
8½ "	"	11.16	22.32	111.62	223.25	1,116.24	2,232.48	22,324.76
9½ "	"	11.78	23.55	117.76	235.53	1,177.63	2,355.26	23,552.63
10½ "	"	12.42	24.85	124.24	248.48	1,242.40	2,484.80	24,848.02
11½ "	"	13.11	26.21	131.07	262.15	1,310.73	2,621.47	26,214.66
12½ "	"	13.83	27.66	138.28	276.56	1,382.82	2,765.65	27,656.47
10½ "	12%	16.04	32.07	160.36	320.71	1,603.57	3,207.14	32,071.35

TABLE OF BUYING RATES OF CLASS B THRIFT SAVINGS CERTIFICATES

Period	Buying Rate Interest	Face Value						
		\$5	\$10	\$50	\$100	\$500	\$1,000	\$10,000
1 year	10½%	\$4.54	\$9.07	\$45.35	\$90.70	\$453.51	\$907.03	\$9,070.29
2 years	"	4.11	8.23	41.14	82.27	411.35	822.70	8,227.02
3 "	10½%	3.68	7.36	36.78	73.56	367.82	735.64	7,356.43
4 "	"	3.32	6.64	33.20	66.41	332.04	664.08	6,640.84
5 "	11½%	2.93	5.85	29.27	58.54	292.72	585.43	5,854.31
6 "	"	2.63	5.26	26.30	52.60	262.99	525.98	5,259.82
7 "	"	2.36	4.73	23.63	47.26	236.28	472.57	4,725.69
8 "	11½%	2.04	4.09	20.44	40.88	204.40	408.80	4,088.03
9 "	"	1.83	3.66	18.28	36.56	182.78	365.56	3,655.55
10 "	12½%	1.56	3.12	15.59	31.18	155.90	311.80	3,118.05

CLASS B THRIFT SAVINGS CERTIFICATES INTEREST TABLE

<i>Kind</i> <i>Interest Due</i> Period	\$5	\$10	\$50	\$100	\$500	\$1,000	\$10,000
1 year	\$.15	\$.29	\$ 1.46	\$ 2.92	\$ 14.60	\$ 29.20	\$ 291.96
2 years	.25	.49	2.45	4.91	24.54	49.07	490.71
3 "	.37	.74	3.72	7.43	37.16	74.32	743.18
4 "	.50	1.00	5.01	10.03	50.15	100.30	1,002.97
5 "	.77	1.54	7.70	15.40	76.98	153.96	1,539.61
6 "	.77	1.54	7.69	15.38	76.88	153.76	1,537.63
7 "	.91	1.82	9.08	18.16	90.80	181.60	1,815.98
8 "	1.28	2.57	12.84	25.68	128.40	256.81	2,568.09
9 "	1.47	2.93	14.66	29.32	146.62	293.23	2,932.35
10 "	1.98	3.95	19.75	39.51	197.53	395.07	3,950.69

CHAPTER XIV

FOREIGN TRADE

Perhaps no other aspect of China's national economy has been so hard hit by the war as her foreign trade. Some of the ill effects of the extension of the war and blockade on China's wartime international commerce include: the dislocation of trade between foreign nations and China, the Japanese domination of trade in occupied areas, the increasing difficulties of China's trade routes and the changes in China's trade administration. Despite these handicaps, the Chinese Government has done its best to carry out its wartime foreign trade policy. At the same time, efforts have been made to promote domestic trade.

China's wartime foreign trade policy was embodied in Articles XXI to XXIV of the *Program of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction* which provided for the government control of foreign exchange and trade, readjustment of industry and commerce and improvement of communications and transportation. In July, 1937, the Government adopted plans for increasing production and regulating trade. Special reference was made to the nation's trade policy. In the export trade, it was stipulated that the Government would form a trade readjustment commission for administering and rendering assistance to all national and private export businesses, whether they were operated by Chinese or foreigners. The stipulations also said that daily necessities would be permitted to be shipped in as usual or with reduced customs tariffs. Secondly, necessities would be imported at the same rates as before while tariffs on the inflow of luxuries would be raised. The Ministry of Finance, in cooperation with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, was ordered to carry out the program. Thus, China's wartime trade policy, even after the outbreak of the Pacific War, has been directed to the dual purpose of promoting exports and at the same time of satisfying her own needs at home.

ANALYSIS OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS

The Chinese Customs reports of the wartime foreign trade of China cover not only Free China but also the ports

of entry under enemy domination. Such anomalous situation has caused various unusual phenomena, for example, such things as coal and foodstuffs are both exported and imported. Similarly, the depreciation of the Chinese legal tender has caused values of exported commodities to skyrocket whereas actual quantities exported decreased.

The value of China's import and export trade in 1940 and 1941 registered big increases over the first three years of the war. Her import trade in 1940 and 1941, amounting to more than \$2,000,000,000 annually, more than doubled the preceding period. Even more phenomenal gains were recorded in her exports, for between 1937 and 1939, China's sales abroad ranged between \$760,000,000 and \$1,000,000,000 annually. In 1940 her exports were valued at \$1,976,000,000, representing a 2.8 times gain over 1936. In 1941 the export figures rose to \$2,570,000,000, showing a 3.8 times increase over 1936. Since 1940, between 85 and 90 per cent of China's entire foreign trade has been through ports under enemy domination.

In 1940, the total value of exports was \$1,976,070,000, of which \$247,350,000 or 12.52 per cent were registered by Free China ports. The ports in Japanese occupied areas recorded \$1,728,710,000, or 87.48 per cent of the total export trade that year.

In 1940, the total value of China's imports was \$2,044,360,000, of which \$264,670,000 or 12.95 per cent was registered by Free China ports. The ports under Japanese domination recorded \$1,779,690,000, or 87.05 per cent of the total.

The United States, Japan, Great Britain, Hongkong, Germany and British India used to play an important role in China's foreign trade. After the outbreak of the war in 1937 and the Japanese occupation of coastal provinces, commerce between China and foreign countries was greatly affected. Only Japan, by virtue of her military activities, was able to benefit from the dislocation of China's trade. Naturally in imports to China, Japan stood first. America took second

place. Hongkong, mainly a transit center, was third, followed by India, Indo-China, Dutch East Indies, Australia, Great Britain, Germany and Canada. In China's exports, Hongkong ranked first as most of Free China's exports were re-shipped from that Crown Colony to other countries. The United States was second, followed by Japan. In the exports to Japan from the occupied areas, such staple goods as rice and salt were not included in the customs figures. Dutch East Indies took fourth place, with British India fifth, followed by Indo-China, Great Britain and Malaya. The British Empire led in trade with China. America was second and the Japanese Empire third. The French Empire and the Dutch Empire took fourth and fifth places. These five shared between 80 and 90 per cent of China's total foreign trade.

Chief exports during wartime have been silk, cotton, cotton yarn, bristles, coal, wood oil, tea and mineral products.

Foodstuffs in the form of rice, wheat flour and wheat have constituted the chief imports of China during the war. Next in importance come cotton, cotton yarn and cotton piecegoods, which are followed by sugar, paper, machinery, vehicles, coal and gasoline.

Silk.—The export of silk in the first three years of the war suffered sharp decreases. Since 1939, the value of silk export has registered gains following the operation by the Japanese of silk filatures in Chekiang and Kiangsu as a monopoly of the so-called Central China Silk Company. The export of raw silk from China was mainly directed to Hongkong, the United States, France, Japan, Italy and French Indo-China. Native yellow silk from Szechwan and Sikang was also exported to India and Burma in the last few years.

Cotton, Cotton Yarn and Cotton Goods.—Prior to the war, China's import of cotton was not considerable. It began to show increases after 1939. In 1940, 2,400,000 quintals of cotton valued at \$260,000,000 were imported, while in 1941, the import was 1,600,000 quintals worth \$240,000,000. The increases in the cotton imports in 1940 and 1941, were due to the flood in the cotton-producing districts of Hopei and increasing demands by Japanese and Chinese mills in Shanghai. Exports of cotton in the first three years of the war ranged from 300,000 to 1,000,000 quintals, but they diminished

in 1940 to 30,000 quintals, valued at \$8,000,000. In 1941, 300,000 quintals valued at \$75,000,000 were exported. The decrease was due to the increasing demand for cotton by cotton mills operating in occupied areas. The importation of cotton yarn and cotton piecegoods was fairly steady in the first three years of the war. In 1940, importation of cotton yarn was valued at \$40,000,000, which was increased to \$81,000,000 in 1941. In 1940, piecegoods worth \$56,000,000 were imported. Most of the cotton yarn and piecegoods were imported from Japan and Hongkong. Due to the shortage of foreign supply after the outbreak of the war in Europe, Japanese cotton yarn and piecegoods were dumped on the Chinese market. Imports from Hongkong to interior China included Japanese goods manufactured in Chinese mills.

After 1938, export of cotton yarn was increased to 100,000 quintals, valued at \$22,900,000. The increase was largely due to the resumption of operations of cotton mills in war and occupied areas. Most of the exports from occupied China were to Hongkong, South Seas, India and other places. The portion shipped to Hongkong was largely re-routed to interior China.

Bristles.—China's export of bristles was low before the war. Due to the increasing industrial demand in the last few years, more bristles have been exported. In 1940 the value of bristles exported was \$90,000,000, which was increased to \$120,000,000 in 1941. America was the leading customer of Chinese bristles, followed by Great Britain, Germany and Hongkong.

Coal.—The export of Chinese coal during the war has been on the upward trend both in quantity and in value. Quantitatively, the export has jumped from 1,000,000 tons to 4,800,000 tons, while the value was correspondingly increased from \$10,000,000 to \$100,000,000. That coal was still exported when China was experiencing a shortage at home was due to the fact that the coal supply in North China was mainly shipped by the enemy to Japan and Kwantung Leased Territory. On the other hand, occupied China's own needs had to be met by importation of \$50,000,000 worth from India and French Indo-China in 1940 and 1941.

Wood Oil.—In 1936, China exported 800,000 quintals of wood oil. In 1937, 1,000,000 quintals valued at \$89,840,000

were exported. In 1938, due to transportation difficulties, wood oil shipments dwindled. In 1940 and 1941, the export was decreased to 200,000 quintals. Of the \$56,350,000 worth of wood oil exported in 1940, \$32,370,000 or 51 per cent, went from Free China.

Mineral Products.—Tungsten, antimony, and tin are now China's chief mineral products. China's pre-war annual export of tin was over 100,000 quintals valued at \$40,000,000. In 1940 and 1941, the volume decreased to 50,000 to 60,000 quintals, but the value was increased to \$90,000,000. Before the war only little tungsten was exported. The annual export since the war began amounted to over 100,000 quintals valued at \$40,000,000 to \$50,000,000.

Tea.—In the first period of the war, China's annual export of tea was between 300,000 and 400,000 quintals, valued at \$30,000,000. In 1940, 340,000 quintals brought in \$104,000,000. But in 1941, owing to the enemy blockade of the seacoast, exports of tea decreased to \$40,000,000. Most of the tea exported went to Great Britain, the United States, the U.S.S.R., and North Africa. Exports to the U.S.S.R. mainly passed through Hongkong for transshipment.

Rice, Wheat Flour, Wheat.—The importation of rice, wheat flour and wheat was increased from \$50,000,000 in 1937 to \$500,000,000 in 1941. China's importation of rice in 1940 was 6,000,000 quintals valued at \$170,000,000. The reason for the large imports in foodstuffs was that the Japanese had purchased all rice stock in coastal cities like Shanghai, Peiping and Tientsin for army rations. The importation of wheat flour correspondingly increased from 3,000,000 quintals in 1940 to 4,000,000 quintals in 1941. The 1941 wheat flour import was valued at \$210,000,000. Occupied China imported rice mainly from French Indo-China and Thailand and wheat from Australia, the United States and Japan.

Gasoline, Kerosene, Diesel Oil.—Although the value of importation of gasoline, kerosene and Diesel oil did not change substantially in the last few years, the quantity has decreased considerably. The average value of gasoline importation has been between \$30,000,000 and \$40,000,000, that of kerosene between \$30,000,000 and \$50,000,000 and that of Diesel oil around \$15,000,000. The

quantity, however, has been decreased from 50,000,000 to 20,000,000 gallons in the case of gasoline. That of kerosene has also been reduced from 110,000,000 to 30,000,000 gallons, while that of Diesel oil from 250,000 to 150,000 gallons. Figures for the importation of gasoline into the whole of China did not include the amount smuggled into Free China. The decrease in the kerosene import was mainly due to the control of import of that commodity in North China and transportation difficulties in interior China.

Other Commodities.—Sugar, paper, iron, steel, machinery, coal, and vehicles were the other leading import items. Most of them were imported through Shanghai and Tientsin. The importation of sugar in 1940 and 1941 was valued at from \$70,000,000 to \$80,000,000. Sugar was mainly imported from Hongkong, Dutch East Indies, Japan and Formosa. Between 1940 and 1941 the value of machinery imported was increased from \$50,000,000 to \$70,000,000; and paper from \$40,000,000 to \$80,000,000. Free China imported 3,630,000 customs gold units worth of restricted articles such as tobacco, wine and silk in 1939. The import of such goods was worth 2,080,000 C.G.U. in 1940.

EXPORT CONTROL BEFORE THE PACIFIC WAR

China's export trade, ever since the Sino-Japanese war began, has been subject, in the main, to state control. The Chinese Government appoints state organizations as sole agents for the purchase and distribution of goods required to fulfil barter obligations. Other exports are subject to reduction or exemption from export customs tariff, provided the foreign exchange receipts are sold to the government banks. The Government enforces a strict ban on the exportation of articles which are needed at home.

Beginning in July, 1939, the Government placed mineral products, tea, wood oil and bristles under state control. With the exception of mineral products which were to be administered by the National Resources Commission of the Ministry of Economic Affairs, the handling of all other articles was entrusted to the Foreign Trade Commission of the Ministry of Finance.

Control of wood oil did not begin until 1939, following the conclusion of an American loan to China which was to be repaid with the proceeds of sales

of wood oil exported to the United States. The Foreign Trade Commission was ordered to make purchases from producers and to ship the stock out with necessary permits from the Ministry of Finance.

With the reorganization of the Foreign Trade Commission in June, 1940, business operations pertaining to the purchase and marketing of wood oil was shifted to its subsidiary organ, the Foo Shing Trading Corporation, with the American distribution to be handled by the Universal Trading Corporation in New York. In October, 1940, the Ministry of Finance promulgated regulations centralizing the purchasing and shipping of wood oil by the Foo Shing Trading Corporation. The corporation was also given the right to fix wood oil prices in different places, with the approval of the Foreign Trade Commission, based upon the production cost, transportation charges and international market conditions. All dealers and cooperatives of wood oil are required to register with the corporation. Special shipping permits shall be obtained before wood oil can be shipped. Under the ruling, no firm or warehouse shall keep a stock of more than 15 quintals and no cracking plant more than 20 quintals of oil for a period exceeding two months. Otherwise, the corporation is to buy over the entire stock at the prevailing price. Dealers or firms not properly registered with the corporation are not allowed to keep any wood oil on hand. Similar restrictions are imposed on hoarding of wood oil seeds and seedlings.

Control of bristles, announced in September, 1939, was first entrusted to the Central Trust for collection and transportation. Beginning from February, 1940, the control was shifted to the Foreign Trade Commission. According to the revised regulations, dealers in bristles are required to register with the commission before they are allowed to collect. After processing, the bristles are to be sold to the Commission at fixed prices. In order to aid the producers of and dealers in bristles, the Commission gives technical and financial assistance for the purpose of increasing and improving the production. Measures against hoarding and illicit trading in bristles were also promulgated.

The regulations governing the export of Chinese tea, promulgated in June, 1938, were revised in March,

1939. The purchase of tea for export under the revised ruling is to be undertaken by the Foreign Trade Commission, while its production is to be handled by special provincial organs. The prices the Commission pays for the stock are fixed by representatives of the Commission, provincial organs and tea merchants on the basis of the average prices of different grades of tea in the previous three years and of the cost of production and quality of the product for the current year. Tea merchants and cooperatives, the operation of which must conform with the laws and regulations enforced in the various provinces, may apply for loans from the Government. In granting such credits, the Commission finances 80 per cent, and the provincial organs 20 per cent, of the total.

The purchase and sale of tungsten, antimony, tin, quicksilver, bismuth and molybdenum were entrusted to the National Resources Commission early in 1938. The Ministry of Economic Affairs was authorized to include other minerals whenever necessary. All these metals, after refining and purifying, must be sold to the commission. Free trading is not allowed. Merchants must obtain transportation and export licenses from the commission or its authorized agents before they can ship the minerals anywhere in or out of the country. The resources commission promulgated different sets of regulations for the administration of tungsten, antimony, tin, mercury and copper and also decided from time to time amounts of minerals to be exported.

Control of China's exports was accompanied by similar steps to administer her foreign exchange. Following the establishment of the bogus "Federated Reserve Bank of North China" in Peiping, on March 10, 1938, the Chinese Government, on March 14, promulgated regulations for the control of foreign exchange on imports. In the next month, the Ministry of Finance authorized the Foreign Trade Commission to enforce restrictions on foreign exchange realized from exports. Detailed regulations for the examination of export goods, for the sale of foreign exchange proceeds realized from exports and for the transmission of parcel post were promulgated. These regulations, which were first applied in Hankow and Changsha, were later enforced nationwide. Export articles referred to in the regulations numbered 24. They were: wood oil, bristles, ox

hides, tea, egg products, ores, goatskins, medicinal substances (rhubarb, cassia, lignea, ligusticum acutilobum) nutgalls, wool, silk, plaited hats, hair, ramie, animal intestines, cotton products, peanuts, sesamum, tobacco, timber, bamboo, apricot seed, ducks' feathers, hides. Merchants exporting the above-mentioned articles were required to sell 80 per cent of the foreign exchange realized therefrom to the Bank of China and Bank of Communications for the equivalent in legal tender at the official rates. of 1—2½d., US \$29.75 or HK \$104.50.

After the fall of Hankow and Canton, the Ministry of Finance, in January, 1939, reduced the number of such controlled export articles from 24 to 13. They were: wood oil, bristles, hides, furs, tea, mineral products, nutgalls, medicinal substances, wool, silk, ramie, animal intestines and feathers. In June, 1939, as a result of the enemy plot to absorb Chinese currency, the foreign exchange rate slumped to 6½d. The Ministry, on July 1, that year, promulgated regulations providing ways of paying back the differences in the official exchange rates to exporters. Meanwhile, the official rates of the Bank of China and the Bank of Communications were changed to 7d., US \$13½, or HK \$214.50. After August, 1939, the rates were further lowered to 4d. The Chinese Government, on March 15, 1940, changed the export articles, the proceeds for which had to be sold to the Government, to the following: egg products, feathers, animal intestines, hides, furs, nutgalls, medicinal substances (rhubarb, cassia lignea, ligusticum acutilobum and musk), oil and wax, seeds, tobacco, timber, silk, ramie and cotton products. On August 1, 1940, the Government fixed the exchange rates at US \$1.00 to NC \$7.50 and HK \$1.00 to NC \$3.33. In order to simplify the measures of control of foreign exchange from exports, the Ministry, on September 1, 1941, promulgated twenty articles governing the entire procedure, thereby abolishing all previous announcements, rulings and revisions relating to this matter. Merchants were required to sell their foreign exchange to the Government realized from exports of egg products, feathers, animal intestines, hides, furs, dyestuffs, medicinal substances, oil and wax, seeds, timber, silk and hemp. With the establishment of the Commission for the Control of Foreign Assets in September, 1941, the administration of

export foreign exchange was transferred to the new organization.

During the war the Government has also banned the export of certain articles unless with special permits from the Ministry of Finance. These articles are: gold, silver and manufactures thereof, legal tender and foreign currency, iron, steel and all metals and manufactures thereof, rice, grain, wheat, wheat flour and other manufactures thereof, beans, cotton and cotton waste, cotton yarn, coins and copper cash, table salt, documentary data and records, antiques and curios.

The Chinese Government, in 1938, promulgated regulations prohibiting the shipment of articles listed by the Ministry of Economic Affairs as of possible use to the enemy. The geographical limit of the ban was subject to change according to the war situation. The number of prohibited articles was also increased or decreased from time to time whenever the Government deemed it necessary.

Perhaps the biggest task of the Foreign Trade Commission has been to fulfil barter obligations. Chinese wood oil, tea, wool, and bristles have been mainly shipped to the U.S.S.R., the United States, and Great Britain. The annual production of wood oil in Free China is estimated at 1,400,000 quintals, wool 290,000 quintals, raw silk 20,000 quintals, tea 700,000 to 800,000 half-chests (weighing 30 kg. each). With a view to increasing their production, the Commission has under it a promotion commission for the production and marketing of agricultural exports. Its program, up to the outbreak of the Pacific War, was to raise the output of wood oil by 550,000 quintals, wool by 250,000 quintals, raw silk to a total of 23,000 quintals and tea by 580,000 chests, in a period of five years starting from 1942.

IMPORT CONTROL BEFORE THE PACIFIC WAR

Encouragement of the importation of machinery and other implements and restrictions on the importation of non-necessities are the main points of China's wartime import policy. This policy, aims at meeting the war and industrial needs at home.

Since the war began, many articles have been banned from importation. On October 27, 1938, the National Government promulgated regulations banning

the importation of enemy goods. By "enemy goods" it was meant (1) goods from enemy country, or its colonies or controlled territories; (2) goods from factories or firms operated by enemy nationals outside of the areas mentioned in (1); or (3) goods from enemy-invested enterprises outside of the areas mentioned in (1). The names and trade marks of the articles listed in (1) and (2) were to be announced by the Ministry of Economic Affairs after making careful investigations, while those of articles in (3) were also to be decided by the same ministry. With the exception of rice, grain, cotton yarn and flour, all other enemy goods were banned from importation.

The ban also applies to goods from Liaoning, Kirin, Heilungkiang and Jehol, which have been under enemy occupation since 1931 and 1933. The forbidden articles under this category, as announced by the Ministry of Economic Affairs, are: leather goods, deer antlers, musk, ginseng, sea products, walnuts, fresh fruits, tobacco, wines, sugar, lumber, glass and glassware, canned goods, silk, rayon and manufactures thereof, cotton and woolen goods, knitted piecegoods, cosmetics, coal and coke, all kinds of clothing material, toys, bricks and tiles.

On July 1, 1939, the Ministry of Finance placed 168 import articles, later reduced to 165, on the prohibited list. They included rayon products, sea products, wines, tobacco, cosmetics, jewellery and other luxuries. Such goods could not be imported or transmitted through the Post Office without special permission from the Ministry of Finance.

In prohibiting the importation of these articles, the Chinese Government granted, on July 1, 1940, three months' grace to permit merchants to dispose of their stocks. All unsold nonessentials and luxuries after the grace were either confiscated or forcibly purchased by the Government.

Among the prohibited articles, gasoline, kerosene and sugar were later classified as importable articles if accompanied by special permits. China's prewar annual import of gasoline was 42,000,000 gallons valued at more than 10,000,000 customs gold units. Today she needs much more. In order to exercise control over gasoline supply, the Government established the Liquid Fuel Control Commission under the Executive Yuan. With the gradual loss of coastal communications as a

result of extended enemy blockade, the Government, on August 1, 1940, removed the ban on the importation of gasoline. The importation of kerosene amounting to 19,000,000 c.g.u. annually before the war started, was given similar treatment. The original 10 to 1 gasoline-kerosene ratio of importation later changed into 1 to 1 flat because of the acute industrial and communication demand for kerosene. Similarly, sugar may be imported.

The Ministry of Finance also forbade the importation of the following: canes containing knives, pistols, air guns, bullets for pistols and air guns, blueprints for manufacturing munitions, insectile agents, counterfeit banknotes, lotteries or other notes, prints of bogus money, prints and models of coins and machinery, pistol-like torchlight, handcuffs, propaganda material implying ideas for the recognition of bogus regimes, matches adulterated with yellow or white phosphorus, racing dogs and obscene literature.

The importation of the following requires special licenses issued by respective government organizations in charge: arms, munitions, explosives and gases by the Ministry of Military Affairs; aviation supplies by the Aeronautical Affairs Commission; explosives and dynamite by the Ministry of Military Affairs; radio equipment by the Ministry of Communications; narcotics by the National Institute of Health, syringes and hypodermic needles by local health authorities and signed or unsigned banknotes printed abroad by the Ministry of Finance.

The Ministry of Finance has under it a special committee for granting foreign exchange required by importers of articles that help in the nation's war and industrial effort. The importers buy approved amounts of foreign exchange at official rates after paying an equalization charge based on the differences between official and bank rates.

In accordance with the Government's policy of promoting production and commerce, a general reduction of import customs duties on iron, steel, metals, machinery, tools, instruments and communication supplies was effected. The tax-free list of military goods was extended to include first-aid and health supplies. In September, 1939, the Government ordered a two-thirds reduction of import duties on all items

not on the banned list. When Japan cut off China's outlet to the sea via Indo-China by invading the French colony in May, 1940, and when the Yunnan-Burma road was temporarily closed to China two months later, the Government lifted the ban on gasoline importation. Gasoline, together with its containers, was to be imported free into any part of Free China.

In 1941, the Ministry of Finance and the Ministry of Economic Affairs jointly revised the list of articles, the importation of which was to be encouraged. These articles include foodstuffs, cotton, cotton yarn, cotton piecegoods, iron, steel, metals, machinery and tools, communication and tele-communication supplies, cement, gasoline, Diesel oil, lubrication oil, medical supplies, chemical raw materials, insectiles, table salt, alcohol, radio engineering equipment, educational and cultural supplies. They are allowed to be shipped freely into the country irrespective of their places of origin or of their destinations anywhere in Free China.

FOREIGN TRADE COMMISSION

In October, 1937, two months after the outbreak of hostilities at Shanghai, a Trade Readjustment Commission was set up under the National Military Council with a limited scope. Its primary objects were to render financial aid to, and to provide transport facilities for, the Chinese exporters who found it difficult to carry on their business on account of the military operations in the vicinities of Shanghai and the enemy's blockade of the Yangtze. As the conflict developed, it was realized that temporary measures for trade adjustments were inadequate. More positive and constructive actions were needed in the form of state control of the country's external trade. In February, 1938, the Trade Readjustment Commission was reorganized and was placed under the Ministry of Finance under a new name: the Foreign Trade Commission.

The Commission has five departments, namely, the general affairs department, the finance department, the export department, the import department and the research department. The work of the Commission in Chungking and its branch offices in various provinces is largely administrative; the purchase, the transportation and the export of the commodities under control

are handled by its two trading establishments: the Foo Shing Trading Corporation and the China National Tea Corporation.

The Foo Shing Trading Corporation was formally established in April, 1939, to discharge its obligations set forth in the Foo Shing-Universal contract of December 30, 1938—to purchase and export wood oil to America in payment of the principal and interest due on the loan under the Export-Import Bank-Universal Agreement of February 8, 1939. The Corporation has its head office in Chungking and branch offices in cities of commercial importance. Despite immense difficulties in transportation, a sufficient quantity of wood oil was purchased and shipped to America in accordance with the terms of the credit agreement. The disposal of a stock of over ten thousand tons by the Universal Trading Corporation in New York in 1942 resulted in the fulfilment of the said agreement almost two years in advance of the date of liquidation.

The outbreak of the Pacific War ushered in many obstacles in the way of China's foreign trade. Meanwhile, the shortage of gasoline has caused many factories to start the process of abstracting gasoline from wood oil and has thus created an active demand for the material. The Government, realizing the wisdom of turning the Chinese lamp oil into fuel for motor vehicles, has set about systematically to stabilize and develop the industry. It is estimated that the quantity of wood oil required for this new industry far exceeds what was exported in the preceding years.

The scope of the Foo Shing Trading Corporation was appreciably extended in 1942 by the incorporation into its system of three of the Commission's subsidiary organizations, namely, the Fu Hua Trading Company, the Southeast Transportation Office, and the Northwest Transportation Office. This development indicates the tendency to a more rational realignment of trading bodies. The Corporation is now vested with the exclusive right to purchase and export wood oil and bristles and its sphere of operations covers also raw silk, sheep wool, skins and hides and some other products such as furs and *Fochia*.

Though China's bristle market has been curtailed by the cutting off of her maritime outlets, purchases have been going on and qualitative improvement

has been made. The supplies now available to the Foo Shing Trading Corporation are adequate to meet the immediate demands of Allied countries.

The impact of the present war on China's foreign trade may be gauged by the loss of the important silk-producing districts along the lower Yangtze. However, as silk is now urgently required by the Allies for the making of parachutes, and China is the most important source of supply at the moment, the Foreign Trade Commission mapped out measures, which, as a cohesive part of the national mobilization plan, will bring this commodity under control for enhancing the Allied war effort. The Commission has already taken steps to restrict civilian consumption in order to release the maximum quantity of available supplies for military purposes.

The present main supply of wool comes from the Northwestern provinces. Since a great part of the wool available to the Foo Shing Trading Corporation has had to be shipped to the U.S.S.R. to discharge China's obligation in accordance with the terms of the Sino-Soviet barter agreement, only a small portion is left to meet home requirements. The Commission has also set about to improve the quality of wool by erecting washing plants and giving financial aid to the organizations participating in the expansion work.

The China National Tea Corporation was incorporated into the Commission in January, 1940. It has its head office in Chungking, with branch offices and tea factories in several tea producing districts. It acts as the sole purchaser of tea for export. Numerous improvements have been introduced by the Commission and the Corporation in the production of tea. Financial and technical aid has been made available to the growers, and under government control, the marketing of tea has been placed on a rational basis. Progress has also been made in the standardization of different grades of tea and the establishment of direct contact in foreign markets.

Apart from formulating plans for coordinating the production, transportation and marketing of China's principal exports, the Commission has also restrictive functions, such as the enforcement of the regulations governing the prohibition and restriction of certain imports and exports, the restriction

of domestic trading in commodities under state control, and the ban on exports to Japan and territories under her jurisdiction or military occupation.

In effect, the Commission has two separate tasks. The first is to carry out, through its trading establishments, the barter agreements for the Government by effecting deliveries of agricultural products in payment of foreign loans and credits according to the repayment schedules. Primarily for the purpose of covering these barter requirements, control systems have been instituted by the Commission for three important agricultural products—wood oil, bristles and tea; they vary slightly according to the nature of the individual commodity, but the scope and objective are the same throughout. The second is to promote trade with friendly nations by various ways and means, including financial and other aids to bona-fide exporters, the stimulation of the production and improvement in quality of principal exports.

On the promotion side, the Commission has established research institutes for improving wood oil, tea and silk. A wool laboratory has been set up in the Northwest Wool Improvement Bureau of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry.

Apart from the increase in production, there are two other points that form part of a vigorous export policy. The one is reduction in the cost of production. The other is the establishment of direct contact with consumers abroad. The second step represents a break from the inertia of depending on foreign firms operating in China as the intermediary between the Chinese producers and exporters and foreign consumers. The successful operation of the Universal Trading Corporation in New York in marketing wood oil in the United States is a step in this direction. Such direct trading has proved to be beneficial to both the Chinese producers and the consumers in America. Similar arrangements are being extended to tea and bristles.

The main work of the Commission in the four years prior to the outbreak of the Pacific War may be grouped as follows:—(1) to collect and purchase exportable agricultural products; (2) to implement barter and credit agreements concluded with friendly nations; (3) to handle the purchase of war and other

essential supplies; (4) to enforce the regulations governing prohibition and restriction of imports; (5) to manage overland transportation of exports of its own in the southeast and the northwest; (6) to control the foreign exchange realized from exports; and (7) to promote the increase of production of exportable agricultural products.

(1) Collection and purchase of exportable agricultural products.—In 1938 the Commission began to engage in the purchase and storing of a certain quantity of exportable commodities, the outflow of which had been halted by wartime exigencies. Later, a number of specified agricultural products to be purchased was announced. Purchases were first made by branch offices of the Commission in various producing and marketing centers, but the work was later transferred to affiliated companies.

(2) Implementation of barter and credit agreements concluded with friendly nations.—One of the outstanding tasks of the Commission is to deliver agricultural products to the U.S.A., the U.S.S.R. and the United Kingdom in payment of the principal and interest due according to the repayment schedules of the different loan agreements.

(3) The purchase of war and other essential supplies.—The Commission also acts as an agent for the Government to purchase specific kinds of materials and equipment with the credits extended by friendly nations. The purchases are of a wide variety, including military equipment, gasoline, motor vehicles, equipment and materials for industrial establishments and others.

(4) The enforcement of the regulations governing the prohibition and restriction of imports.—Since the incorporation into the Commission of the Natural Resources Department of the Ministry of Finance in June, 1940, the Commission has also been participating in the work of import control. According to the regulations governing the prohibition and restriction of imports promulgated by the Ministry of Finance, the import of luxuries and non-essentials is either prohibited or strictly restricted. For certain special materials for which no Chinese substitutes are at present available, the regulations provide for their importation after application to designated government organs, including the Commission, for special permits. Between July, 1939, and October, 1941, the total value of specially permitted

imports amounted to approximately NC \$180,000,000 of which gasoline and kerosene were the leading commodities.

(5) The management of southeast and northwest overland transportation.—The Commission established the Southeast and the Northwest Transportation Offices in order to expedite required deliveries. Owing to the spread of the war and the tightened enemy blockade, the transportation offices encountered all sorts of difficulties. The Southeast Transportation Office, for instance, was compelled to resort to all modes of transportation, modern as well as primitive, such as motor trucks, junks, carts and human carriers. In times of emergency the office staff had to evacuate the stocks of commodities to places of safety. The Northwest Transportation Office was established late in 1941. It has more than 1,000 rubber-tired carts at its disposal and expects to enlarge its transportation capacity before long.

(6) The control of foreign exchange.—Originally there were 13 categories of export commodities (apart from wood oil, tea and bristles) subject to exchange control, whereby exporters were required to surrender to the Government a certain percentage of the exchange proceeds from their sales at the official rate of exchange, and the Commission was entrusted with the control of such exchange until October 1, 1941, when it was turned over to the Commission for the Control of Foreign Assets under the Executive Yuan. In the past three years, the Foreign Trade Commission acquired from various marketing and exporting centers a considerable amount of foreign exchange.

(7) The promotion of the increase of production of agricultural products.—The Commission was entrusted with the task of increasing the production of agricultural products in August, 1940. During the present year, it has four projects: wood oil, wool, silk and tea. Subsidies have been granted to a number of agricultural and scientific organizations for work on certain technical problems, the solution of which will likely contribute to the increase of production of these products. Besides, the Commission has established an institute for research in wood oil, one for silk and another for tea.

The wood oil producing districts are all intact and the regions producing animal products are safe and secure.

Although the producing centers of silk have largely fallen into enemy hands or are under Japanese control, Szechwan has great possibilities as a new silk center.

TRADE POLICY AFTER THE PACIFIC WAR

China's foreign trade policy after the outbreak of the Pacific War has been one of restrained control and renewed optimism. Immediately after December 8, 1941, the nation's trade horizon looked very depressing. The subsequent months, however, saw the inauguration of a new international air freight service and the reinforcement of other means of transportation. The first six months of 1942 were mainly devoted to readjusting the nation's trade relations with the new world situation. The second half of the year definitely showed signs of improvement.

While efforts were made to encourage the export of light articles by the limited available transportation means, the concern of the authorities in 1942 was the promotion of domestic trade. For more valuable goods such as raw silk and bristles, China has maintained a more or less steady supply to the Allied countries. Beginning from the end of 1942, Chinese tea has been again shipped to foreign countries, principally to the United States and the U.S.S.R. The Government encourages the merchants to participate in domestic commerce as long as it is consistent with the national wartime economic policy.

EXPORTABLE AGRICULTURAL AND MINERAL PRODUCTS

(1) *Wood Oil*.—An effect of the Pacific War on China's foreign trade was the waiving of the government control measures over the wood oil trade. The new regulations removed restrictions on the transportation, purchase and storing of wood oil in the country. Merchants may also apply to the Foo Shing Trading Corporation for export licenses to areas not under enemy occupation.

Domestically, wood oil has become a chief industrial fuel and ingredient. In March, 1942, the Transportation Control Administration of the National Military Council was put in charge of cracking wood oil into liquid fuel. Oil cracking plants were established at key transportation points to abstract liquid fuel from this product to meet urgent needs.

For domestic consumption of wood oil, the Foreign Trade Commission divides the nation into a number of control districts, according to production, marketing and distribution of the product. The new ruling requires any firm, plant or cooperative using more than 100 quintals of wood oil a year to register with the Foreign Trade Commission. For all public and private plants engaged in cracking wood oil into gasoline the Commission requires certificates from the Ministry of Economic Affairs and the Transportation Control Administration before they can apply for wood oil on a monthly basis. There are special provisions for shipping wood oil from the control areas and from Free China to or near occupied areas. Through years of promotion, interior China's wood oil production has seen a big increase. The estimated production for the country is 1,400,000 quintals a year, of which 450,000 quintals are produced in Szechwan.

Until the autumn of 1931 the outflow of soya beans, bean oil and bean cake from the Three Northeastern provinces constituted in certain years the largest single group of Chinese commodities shipped abroad. Since 1932, with the Japanese occupation of these provinces, wood oil has steadily gained importance in China's foreign trade and has taken the place of soya beans as the leading export of the nation.

Chinese wood oil, also known as *tung* oil, is derived from trees of the genus *Euphorbiaceae*. Two principal species are found in China: (1) the *Aleurites Fordii*, or *Tung Yu-shu*; (2) the *Aleurites Montana*, or *Mu Yu-shu*. They abound in the Yangtze valley, particularly in the regions of the gorges and neighboring hilly country, up to an altitude of 800 meters. The tree is most ornamental in flower and foliage. It is a fast growing tree, seldom exceeding 25 feet in height, has many branches and is flat-topped. It begins to bear seeds in its third or fourth year and declines rapidly when about twenty years old. Szechwan and Hunan are the largest producers of wood oil in China.

The most valuable product from the *tung* tree, however, is the wood oil which is expressed from the seeds. In China the oil is used in preserving, polishing and water-proofing wood; also in the making of cloth, umbrella paper and bamboo netting water-proof; as well as an ingredient of lacquers and paints.

Sometimes it is used as lamp oil. Medicinally wood oil is used in China in the treatment of boils, ulcers, swellings and burns.

Over fifty per cent of China's wood oil is exported. In foreign countries wood oil is widely used as a substitute for linseed oil, mainly in the manufacture of enamels, varnishes, paints, etc. It is also employed in making rubber substitutes and in the manufacture of linoleum. The cake, after the oil is extracted, is used as a fertilizer. It also is supposed to be an effective insecticide and as such it is capable of destroying the insects which infest the roots of plants.

The oil extracted from the seeds by native presses was generally turbid and high in acidity, containing an excessive percentage of impurities and moisture. In order to circumvent these drawbacks the China Vegetable Oil Corporation in 1936 introduced machine extraction of wood oil by modern expellers. The oil produced by the new method is pale and clear, and far better in quality than the oil obtained from the crude wooden presses.

Wood oil is packed in bamboo crates woven with split bamboo lined with layers of water-proof paper for home consumption. For export the oil usually is repacked in wooden or iron barrels.

(2) *Tea*.—Since the outbreak of the Pacific War, tea transportation is no

longer restricted and the sale of tea in the border areas is being emphasized. The requirement for paying an equalization charge for domestic consumption and shipment of tea has been removed. Special factories for manufacturing concentrated, crystallized tea bricks have been set up so as to help reduce the volume in export transportation. Efforts have been made to use tea for medicinal and industrial purposes.

Between 1938 and 1940, the Chinese Government invested a big sum in the interior provinces to promote the tea industry, mainly for export purposes. Of the total amount, half went to tea factories and cooperatives in various provinces. The balance represented the Foreign Trade Commission's purchases of tea from the provinces by its branches and agents throughout Free China. This did not include transportation and miscellaneous expenses involved in the purchasing, delivery and marketing of tea for export.

Because of the war, the center of the tea export trade was transferred from Shanghai to Hongkong. The British Crown Colony became the chief transit market of tea either for cash export or for the fulfilment of barter agreements. The following statistics, taken from the Chinese Maritime Customs report, show the spectacular increase in China's export of tea to Hongkong during the last few years:

YEAR	(1) TOTAL EXPORT OF TEA		(2) TOTAL EXPORT OF TEA TO H. K.		Percentage between (2) and (1)
	Quintals	Value (NC \$)	Quintals	Value (NC \$)	
1936	372,843	30,661,711	29,493	1,669,479	5.45%
1937	406,572	30,787,274	41,705	2,777,392	9.22%
1938	416,246	33,054,085	239,099	17,672,659	53.47%
1939	225,578	30,385,831	118,241	18,190,761	59.96%
1940	247,734	71,815,235	194,393	48,789,613	67.93%
(Jan.—June)					

YEAR		Black Tea	Green Tea	Brick Tea	Others	TOTAL
1935	{ Quintals ... Value (NC \$)	104,752 7,854,170	154,008 18,045,507	98,605 2,799,825	24,039 924,682	381,404 29,624,184
1936	{ Quintals ... Value (NC \$)	96,030 7,968,396	155,931 19,192,267	91,867 2,353,774	29,015 1,147,274	372,843 30,661,711
1937	{ Quintals ... Value (NC \$)	115,658 10,085,558	153,998 16,422,669	95,807 2,539,200	41,109 1,739,847	406,572 30,787,274
1938	{ Quintals ... Value (NC \$)	108,902 8,808,728	231,146 21,598,431	31,729 955,632	44,469 1,691,240	416,246 33,054,031
1939	{ Quintals ... Value (NC \$)	51,645 9,043,507	139,125 19,762,234	2,089 91,724	32,719 1,488,366	225,578 30,385,831
1940	{ Quintals ... Value (NC \$)	40,053 13,373,699	183,614 56,457,631	7,302 852,412	7,765 1,131,493	247,734 71,815,235
Jan.—June						

(3) *Silk*.—Because of the urgent demand by the Allies and the domestic need for military use, the Chinese Government in March, 1941, nationalized the production and distribution of silk.

Despite transportation difficulties, Chinese silk was sent abroad during the first four and a half years of the war. The Burma road, the Northwestern highway and Hongkong were the main export routes for China. After Hongkong fell silk was exported by air to India. Export by the Northwestern highway has been uninterrupted.

Up to the end of 1942, interior China's silk production was centered in Szechwan. Experimental work is continuing in Sikang and Yunnan, consisting chiefly in the planting of mulberry trees and raising improved silkworms. Kwangtung produces only a small quantity of silk every year. Improved Szechwan silk equals in fineness that produced in Chekiang and Kiangsu filatures before the war started in 1937.

The following table shows the production of silkworm eggs and improved silk of the Szechwan Silk Corporation in the last few years:

Year	Silk	Silkworm Eggs
1938	2,390 piculs	530,000 sheets
1939	4,200 "	644,000 "
1940	3,500 "	710,000 "
1941	2,140 "	580,000 "

(4) *Bristles, Wool, Minerals*.—Detailed restrictions on the purchase and transportation of bristles were removed after December 8, 1941, although registration of the stocks and of their movements are required by the revised

ruling. It is estimated that by the end of 1940, over 5,000 quintals of hog bristles were exported directly through the Foreign Trade Commission in a year. Of the total, about 3,000 quintals were black bristles and 2,000 quintals white bristles. Szechwan leads all provinces in the production of hog bristles.

The domestic trade of wool is also expanding. Wool in Northwest China is being collected by the Foo Shing Trading Corporation to supply the Ministry of War and the Chinese Industrial Cooperatives for making blankets and uniforms. Part of it is still being shipped to the U.S.S.R. via the Northwestern highway.

The administration of mineral exports is entrusted to the National Resources Commission of the Ministry of Economic Affairs. Due to the rising cost of production and transportation, the Chinese Government often shipped out such metals as tungsten, mercury, antimony and tin at a financial loss. Nevertheless, in order to help supply vital Allied needs and maintain the livelihood of millions of people engaged in the production and transportation of the metals, China has continued to export minerals since the Pacific War began, despite the increased transportation difficulties. The production of tungsten and mercury registered increases in 1941 and in the first half of 1942, while that of antimony and tin recorded decreases. The quality of these metals has been standardized to meet foreign markets. Before December 8, 1941, most of the metals exported was shipped to fulfil barter agreements. Since then part of the metal exports goes by air to India and part to the U.S.S.R.

VALUE OF THE DIRECT FOREIGN TRADE OF EACH PORT, 1937-41

Port	1937		1938		1939		1940		1941 (January-September)	
	NC \$	%	NC \$	%	NC \$	%	NC \$	%	NC \$	%
Aigun
Harbin
Hunchun
Lungchingtsun
Antung
Dairen
Newchwang	15,109,764	0.84	52,510,130	3.17	108,780,290	4.58	122,143,375	3.04	114,591,000	2.76
Chinwangtao	212,933,718	11.86	409,926,037	24.74	440,180,193	18.55	810,985,365	20.17	710,536,000	17.97
Tientsin	4,327,959	0.24	2,043,153	0.12	6,317,240	0.27	10,895,697	0.27	1,627,000	0.05
Lungkow	18,103,303	1.01	28,590,045	1.73	38,837,800	1.64	38,213,901	0.95	22,761,000	0.50
Chefoo	3,204,859	0.18	3,400,093	0.18	4,262,204	0.18	8,067,213	0.20	2,569,000	0.06
Weihaiwei	107,851,675	6.01	78,403,886	4.73	177,007,030	7.46	322,216,290	8.01	270,570,000	6.70
Tsingtao	3,437,347	0.19	2,831,795	0.17	1,425,937	0.06	5,307,328	0.13	11,487,000	0.29
Chungking	7,541	25,387	57,295	85,000
Wantsien	313,864	0.02	60,096	12,264	157
Ichang	147,739	0.01	722	76,620	3,557,144	0.09
Shashi	6,701,374	0.37	622,103	0.04	242,513	4,611,580	0.11	16,550,000	0.44
Changsha	3,576,842	0.03
Yochow	42,423,523	2.36	3,120,303	0.19	121,843	0.01	58,604
Hankow	5,494,147	0.31	29,698
Kiukiang	6,002,037	0.34
Wuhu	9,876,036	0.55
Nanking	7,167,048	0.40
Chinkiang	915,483,131	51.00	497,934,788	30.05	1,182,849,304	49.84	2,131,119,516	53.01	2,246,092,000	51.82
Shanghai
Soochow	4,659,643	0.26
Hangchow	3,127,432	0.17
Ningpo	2,146,830	0.12	5,979,956	0.36	11,483,412	0.48	56,621,000	1.41
Wenchow	1,382,707	0.08	8,163,425	0.49	14,543,987	0.61	27,076,793	0.67	3,884,000	0.09
Santiao	177,469	0.01	328,555	0.02	5,582,655	0.24	2,718,125	0.07
Foochow	12,729,725	0.71	12,198,083	0.74	11,648,642	0.49	1,330,429	0.03	788,000	0.02
Amoy	17,622,481	0.98	12,332,727	0.74	13,629,615	0.57	28,462,565	0.71	32,255,000	0.77
Swatow	69,811,625	3.89	74,141,554	4.47	67,685,014	2.85	786,816	0.02	41,000
Canton	109,012,136	6.07	163,639,449	9.87	9,285,342	0.39	29,867,165	0.74	81,084,000	1.91
Kowloon	99,363,971	5.54	174,528,485	10.53	15,004,927	0.63	118,418,931	2.95	96,458,000	2.43
Lappa	7,714,155	0.43	10,708,957	0.65	46,710,274	1.97	27,157,612	0.68
Kongmoon	9,346,646	0.52	8,067,554	0.49	2,168,328	0.09	3,067
Samsui	1,342,873	0.08	600,126	0.04	221,357	0.01	4,222,313	0.11	1,907,000	0.05
Wuchow	84,081,771	1.90	27,471,124	1.66	31,269	365	216,000	0.01
Nanning	3,693,596	0.21	9,497,306	0.57	34,251,080	1.44	151,949,753	3.78	322,806,000	8.14
Luchow	7,077,752	0.39	7,890,436	0.48	2,970,789	0.13	1,927,816	0.05	870,000	0.02
Kiungchow	2,795,818	0.15	3,320,539	0.20	19,307,016	0.81	102,316	973,000	0.02
Pakhoi	3,379,489	0.02	698,081	0.04	94,041,624	3.96	16,080,502	0.40	1,815,000	0.05
Lungchow	48,790,846	2.44	52,182,927	3.15	56,868,071	2.40	81,305,279	2.02	170,528,000	3.75
Mengtze	889,280	0.05	537,726	0.03	723,206	0.03	2,614,836	0.07	4,858,000	0.12
Szeemao	4,720,796	0.26	5,795,726	0.35	7,083,716	0.30	12,576,773	0.31	78,210,000	2.03
Tengyueh
TOTAL	1,795,003,719	100.00	1,657,231,149	100.00	2,373,376,959	100.00	4,020,435,921	100.00	4,193,566,000	100.00

VALUE OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS IN LAST SIX YEARS, 1936-41

(C. G. U., NC \$ '000 omitted.)

YEAR	IMPORTS			EXPORTS		
	C. G. U.	NC \$	Index	C. G. U.	NC \$	Index
1936	417,837	944,523	100.0	312,630	706,791	100.0
1937	420,607	956,234	100.7	369,029	838,770	118.7
1938	388,739	893,500	93.0	331,688	763,731	108.1
1939	542,595	1,343,018	129.9	408,958	1,030,359	145.8
1940	755,214	2,044,365	180.7	729,986	1,976,071	279.6
1941	799,319	2,163,756	191.1	952,140	2,577,443	364.4
(Jan.—Oct.)						

VALUE OF EXCESS OF EXPORTS OR EXCESS OF IMPORTS IN LAST SIX YEARS
1936-41

('000 omitted)

YEAR	Excess of Exports	Excess of Imports
	NC \$	NC \$
1936		237,732
1937		117,464
1938		129,769
1939		312,659
1940		68,294
1941	413,687	
(Jan.—Oct.)		

IMPORTS BY PORTS IN LAST SIX YEARS, 1936-41

(000 omitted)

Port	1936		1937		1938		1939		1940		1941 (January-October)	
	Value	%	Value	%	Value	%	Value	%	Value	%	Value	%
Chinwangtao	NC \$ 3,462	0.37	NC \$ 3,706	0.39	NC \$ 2,785*	2.66	NC \$ 72,373*	5.39	NC \$ 73,617*	3.60	NC \$ 70,331*	3.22
Tientsin	72,647	7.69	84,061	8.79	233,865*	26.17	344,586*	25.66	654,963*	32.04	626,714*	28.72
Lungkow	2,013	0.21	1,681	0.18	269*	0.03	5,843*	0.43	9,924*	0.48	1,597*	0.07
Chefoo	6,817	0.72	5,788	0.61	13,423*	1.50	28,655*	2.09	23,305*	1.14	13,089*	0.60
Weihaiwei	1,212	0.13	741	0.08	1,636*	0.19	2,675*	0.20	2,848*	0.14	856*	0.04
Kiaochow	54,752	5.80	49,813	5.21	46,958*	5.26	120,997*	9.01	220,388*	10.78	190,200*	8.72
Chungking	2,369	0.25	3,234	0.34	2,629	0.29	1,053	0.08	4,788	0.23	9,076	0.42
Wansien	38	...	29	...	7	...	25	...	57	...	100	...
Ichang	193	0.02	313	0.03	15	...	12
Shasi	140	0.01	147	0.02	1	...	77	...	3,557*	0.17
Changsha	5,699	0.60	6,998	0.70	617	0.07	242	0.02	4,612	0.23	16,550	0.76
Yochow	425	0.04	577	0.06	5*	...
Hankow	32,875	3.48	33,412	3.49	2,749	0.31	101*	0.01
Kiukiang	4,164	0.44	5,493	0.57	28
Wuhu	2,514	0.27	4,633	0.48
Nanking	17,406	1.84	8,681	0.91
Chinkiang	7,119	0.75	7,167	0.75
Shanghai	555,133	58.78	510,311	53.42	274,896*	30.77	588,156*	43.79	758,309*	37.09	695,247*	31.86
Soochow	4,449	0.47	4,659	0.49
Hangchow	2,809	0.30	3,127	0.33
Ningpo	1,845	0.20	2,121	0.22	1,212	0.14	1,667	0.12	10,597	0.52
Wenchow	1,469	0.05	2,842	0.09	1,923	0.22	2,765	0.22	2,477	0.12
Santauo	180	0.01	163	0.02	277	0.03	1,829	0.14	1,940	0.05
Foochow	5,185	0.55	6,348	0.66	6,864	0.77	6,998	0.52	1,158	0.06
Amoy	13,296	1.41	13,017	1.36	9,134*	1.02	10,157*	0.75	17,159*	0.84
Swatow	29,621	3.14	36,297	3.80	36,588	4.10	33,435*	2.49	15,230*	0.70
Canton	30,905	3.27	45,166	4.72	56,946	6.37	38,435*	2.9	14,908*	0.70
Kowloon	57,550	6.09	82,719	8.65	143,871	16.10	8,576	0.64	101,970	4.99
Lappa	3,676	0.39	4,017	0.42	3,672	0.41	26,635	1.98	16,172	0.79
Kongmoon	3,402	0.36	4,581	0.48	3,664	0.41
Sanshui	927	0.10	1,155	0.12	388	0.04
Wuchow	7,063	0.75	7,666	0.80	5,747	0.64
Nanning	21	...	22	...	28
Luichow	899	0.10	1,370	0.14	3,778	0.42	221	0.02	4,222	0.21
Kiungchow	2,522	0.27	3,568	0.37	3,623	0.41	15,685	1.17	83,131	4.07
Pakhoi	669	0.07	1,152	0.12	774	0.09	1,326*	0.10	606*	0.03
Lungchow	49	0.01	83	0.01	273	0.03	2,240	0.17	98*
Mengtsz	8,117	0.86	9,612	1.01	11,465	1.28	36,439	2.71	4,095	0.20
Swemao	857	0.09	423	0.04	310	0.03	21,942	1.63	21,016	1.03
Tengyueh	1,044	0.11	1,141	0.12	2,035	0.23	346	0.03	1,632	0.08
					3,772	0.28	7,808	0.28	7,808	0.38
Total	944,523	100.00	956,234	100.00	893,500	100.00	1,343,018	100.00	2,044,365	100.00	2,182,180	100.00
Unoccupied Ports	289,484	32.40	130,558	9.72	264,675	12.95	527,993	24.20
Occupied Ports*	604,016	67.60	1,212,460	90.28	1,779,690	87.05	1,654,187	75.80

EXPORTS BY PORTS IN LAST SIX YEARS, 1936-41

('000 omitted)

FOREIGN TRADE

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PORT	1936		1937		1938		1939		1940		1941 (January-October)	
	Value	%	Value	%	Value	%	Value	%	Value	%	Value	%
Chinwangtao	NC \$ 7,066	1.00	NC \$ 11,404	1.36	NC \$ 28,725*	3.76	NC \$ 36,409*	3.53	NC \$ 48,527*	2.46	NC \$ 63,262*	2.45
Tientsin	117,827	16.67	123,872	15.36	176,061*	23.05	95,594*	9.28	156,022*	7.90	191,770*	6.35
Lungkow	2,599	0.37	2,647	0.32	1,774*	0.23	471*	0.05	972	0.05	203*	0.01
Chefoo	9,738	1.38	12,315	1.47	15,167*	1.99	10,780*	0.95	14,909*	0.75	11,061*	0.43
Wenhaiwei	2,349	0.33	2,464	0.29	1,354*	0.18	1,587*	0.15	5,219*	0.26	1,761*	0.07
Kiaochow	51,533	7.29	58,039	6.92	31,445*	4.12	56,010*	5.44	101,830*	5.15	98,279*	3.80
Chungking	57	0.01	204	0.02	203	0.03	373	0.04	519	0.03	3,486	0.13
Wanhsien
Tchang	45	0.01
Shasi	6	...	1
Changsha	2	...	4	...	5
Yochow
Hankow	13,559	1.92	9,011	1.07	371	0.05	21*
Kiukiang	80	0.01	1	...	2
Wuhu	2,848	0.40	1,369	0.16
Nanking	1,672	0.24	1,195	0.14
Chinkiang
Shanghai	362,274	51.26	404,672	48.25	223,039*	29.20	594,693*	57.72	1,372,810*	69.47	1,833,038*	70.86
Soochow	1	...	1
Hangchow
Ningpo	6	...	26	...	4,768	0.62	9,816	0.95	46,024	2.33
Wenzhou	135	0.02	541	0.06	6,240	0.82	11,779	1.14	24,600	1.24
Santiao	8	...	14	...	51	0.01	3,763	0.36	1,778	0.09	3,643	0.14
Foochow	4,443	0.63	6,381	0.76	5,334	0.70	4,650	0.45	1,773	0.01
Amoy	4,002	0.57	4,606	0.55	3,199*	0.42	3,473*	0.34	11,304*	0.57	18,996*	0.73
Swatow	23,224	3.29	33,515	4.00	37,553	4.92	34,250*	3.32	234*	0.01	1*	...
Canton	42,457	6.01	63,846	7.61	106,694	13.97	5,322*	0.52	15,564*	0.79	77,348*	2.99
Kowloon	6,245	0.88	16,645	1.98	30,656	4.01	6,429	0.62	16,449	0.83	26,893	1.04
Lappa	2,954	0.42	3,698	0.44	7,037	0.92	20,073	1.95	10,986	0.56
Kongmoon	3,242	0.46	4,768	0.57	4,404	0.58	1,381*	0.13
Samsui	280	0.04	183	0.02	213	0.03
Wuchow	13,861	1.96	26,416	3.15	21,724	2.84
Nanning	1	...	1	...	2
Luichow	1,717	0.24	2,324	0.28	5,720	0.75	18,566	1.80	68,818	3.48	102	...
Kiungchow	2,915	0.41	3,509	0.41	4,267	0.56	1,645*	0.16	1,323*	0.07	89,685	3.47
Pakhoi	1,482	0.21	1,574	0.19	2,546	0.33	17,067	1.66	4*	...	948*	0.04
Lungchow	177	0.02	296	0.04	425	0.05	57,602	5.59	11,966	0.61	463	0.02
Mengtsze	23,663	3.35	34,179	4.08	40,718	5.33	34,926	3.39	60,290	3.05	267	0.01
Szema	415	0.06	466	0.06	228	0.03	377	0.04	982	0.05	187,598	7.25
Tengyueh	3,923	0.55	3,580	0.43	3,761	0.49	3,312	0.32	4,769	0.24	1,081	0.04
Total	706,791	100.00	838,770	100.00	763,731	100.00	1,030,359	100.00	1,978,071	100.00	2,586,809	100.00
Unoccupied Ports	282,037	37.05	138,723	18.32	247,354	12.52	320,143	12.38
Occupied Ports*	480,764	62.95	841,636	81.68	1,725,717	87.48	2,266,667	87.62

PRINCIPAL IMPORTS IN LAST SIX YEARS, 1936-41

(NC \$ '000 omitted.)

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS	Unit of Quantity	1936		1937		1938		1939		1940		1941 (January-October)	
		Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
Wheat Flour*	1,000 Quintals	310	4,669	304	6,183	2,548	52,985	3,573	76,817	3,203	141,801	3,921	209,043
Wheat	"	1,168	11,848	430	6,071	4,671	35,575	1,489	19,449	1,602	54,056
Rice**	"	3,103	26,736	3,457	40,781	4,961	58,390	3,202	55,142	6,495	171,283	8,354	276,295
Tobacco	"	114	14,998	169	19,449	190	19,661	348	30,468	393	41,746	181	22,484
Cigarettes	"	97	1,273	142	1,348	136	1,657	297	3,407	331	4,677	693	4,641
Sugar	1,000,000's	..	20,535	..	22,031	..	19,363	..	52,151	..	70,102	..	80,789
Diesel Oil	1,000 Quintals	..	16,175	258,997	14,968	165,976	10,723	165,685	10,755	207,311	13,665	159,535	17,945
Kerosene	Tons	313,480	39,885	118,346	47,860	66,736	30,046	61,941	30,943	69,745	49,412	38,598	41,932
Gasoline	1,000 Am. Gallons	104,427	22,730	54,786	27,613	31,903	20,528	35,892	24,760	34,105	33,148	28,816	42,767
Machinery and Tools***	"	45,509	64,632	..	56,073	..	60,484	..	75,074	..	53,383
Vehicles	"	..	59,549	..	40,233	..	32,514	..	45,650	..	45,788	..	53,148
Electrical Appliances	"	..	50,471	..	12,253	..	12,051	..	13,814	..	18,074	..	13,261
Iron and Steel	"	..	11,332	..	108,539	..	52,865	..	62,361	..	108,034	..	35,111
Lubricating Oil	"	..	92,456	..	8,724	6,953	7,824	8,409	8,868	8,525	13,860	6,987	16,318
Woolen Piecegoods	1,000 Am. Gallons	13,122	7,847	12,512	10,284	..	14,076	..	13,413	..	13,961	..	9,818
Cotton Piecegoods	"	..	10,105	..	14,669	..	22,540	..	15,398	..	56,464	..	227,106
Cotton Yarn	"	..	12,090	..	2,696	..	3,312	37	7,166	105	40,939	235	81,488
Cotton	1,000 Quintals	6	1,629	11	16,005	166	12,735	2,477	172,857	2,444	261,877	1,631	240,036
Rubber and Manufactures thereof	"	407	36,147	153	17,312	..	11,004	..	16,482	..	27,938	..	34,486
Cement	"	..	16,005	..	17,312	..	11,004	..	16,482	..	27,938	..	34,486
Coal	1,000 Quintals	349	797	254	544	627	1,764	674	2,352	444	2,475	497	2,854
Paper	1,000 Tons	561	6,442	427	4,988	1,092	20,809	1,414	25,313	2,008	49,647	1,012	26,240
Sundry	"	..	51,849	..	59,134	..	39,930	..	52,905	..	67,554	..	81,512
TOTAL	"	..	425,977	..	407,069	..	385,350	..	516,373	..	700,174	..	529,703
	"	..	941,545	..	953,386	..	886,200	..	1,333,654	..	2,027,143	..	2,163,756

*Including Flour, n.e.s.

**Including Unhulled Rice

***Excluding Saws

PRINCIPAL EXPORTS IN LAST SIX YEARS, 1936-41

(NC \$ '000 omitted.)

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS	Unit of Quantity	1936		1937		1938		1939		1940		1941 (January-October)	
		Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
Tea	Quintals	372,843	30,662	406,572	30,787	416,246	33,054	225,578	30,386	344,925	104,371	81,356	40,761
Wood Oil	"	867,383	73,379	1,029,789	89,846	695,777	39,237	335,016	33,615	232,472	56,358	205,778	93,871
Animal Hair	Kilograms	18,760,231	20,022	13,744,272	27,921	4,927,671	11,297	2,114,742	6,514	2,441,034	18,745	1,107,159	12,067
Bristles	"	5,264,800	25,304	4,044,900	27,921	3,633,800	28,064	3,332,700	41,118	3,556,664	94,184	2,638,010	127,170
Silk Cocoons	"	134,152	880	677,560	3,431	720,812	2,334	566,492	2,236	14,015	1,362	51,310	1,502
Silk	"	8,905,089	43,634	8,979,031	53,192	5,706,226	37,701	8,189,567	142,351	5,763,909	280,941	5,199,800	232,334
Nutgalls	Quintals	42,599	1,491	50,801	1,791	23,179	896	30,064	2,566	24,047	4,624	21,181	6,345
Goat Skin	Sheets	10,350,205	14,489	11,323,719	19,948	3,541,672	4,623	2,473,056	6,874	3,579,913	17,667	2,146,576	14,486
Hides	Quintals	148,276	10,706	149,596	12,890	62,034	4,995	19,658	2,056	13,848	5,782	11,456	12,133
Animal Intestines	"	32,086	10,894	27,503	12,111	17,601	7,776	18,731	14,041	12,347	11,873	7,990	10,701
Ramie	"	197,427	7,962	132,998	5,074	111,915	4,513	11,732	641	20,227	7,143	9,422	3,778
Cotton	"	368,426	28,198	636,529	37,556	1,551,167	105,769	328,789	19,042	37,999	8,462	308,525	75,900
Cotton Yarn	"	89,885	12,398	37,913	4,845	131,759	22,883	118,095	31,767	134,380	70,780	159,686	136,741
Egg and Egg Products	"	41,802					49,275		82,313		133,156		55,528
Feathers	Quintals	47,982	3,238	49,013	9,042	35,859	6,727	30,010	8,770	21,598	16,240	28,090	21,932
Rhubarb	"	20,779	1,125	21,790	1,268	21,147	1,115	21,032	1,365	24,477	4,045	20,653	5,958
Tea Oil	"	37,905	1,407	129,038	6,098	61,584	2,297	24,793	1,137	20,979	3,625	2,703	908
Tallow Vegetable	"	11,935	506	33,455	1,477	1,633	46	11,768	383	56	5		
Coal (including Ships' Coal)	Tons	1,374,942	11,025	1,834,566	13,533	2,077,409	14,420	2,964,603	29,141	4,838,009	68,305	4,881,704	100,867
Hand-made Embroideries	"	31,384			40,750		37,034		49,559		76,912		76,048
Silk Piecegoods	Kilograms	534,007	7,438	1,142,573	12,589	998,427	10,533	1,385,593	19,842	586,930	23,003	1,057,024	49,461
Woolfram	Quintals	70,499	9,342	165,178	40,759	123,577	50,492	106,891	44,675	28,737	13,616	84,699	83,736
Antimony	"	173,116	9,887	153,884	11,446	79,834	6,100	67,599	5,276	55,745	9,024	10,105	4,921
Tin Slabs	"	112,604	26,769	30,772	39,717	117,916	35,987	105,890	32,793	63,493	28,269	57,281	90,414
Straw Braid	"	14,217	2,291	11,063	1,847	9,616	1,967	23,011	5,426	16,835	5,557	7,250	2,184
Sundry	"		277,509		284,346		243,507		413,359		895,903		1,317,697
TOTAL	"		705,741		838,256		762,641		1,027,247		1,970,121		2,577,443

GROSS IMPORTS FROM FOREIGN COUNTRIES, 1937-41. VALUE OF MERCHANDISE: BY COUNTRIES

('000 omitted)

COUNTRY & REGION	1937		1938		1939		1940		1941 January-September	
	NC \$	%	NC \$	%	NC \$	%	NC \$	%	NC \$	%
Australia	16,337	1.71	29,065	3.14	68,680	5.11	85,762	4.20	100,667	5.29
Belgium	28,333	2.96	18,126	2.03	21,044	1.57	14,908	0.73	1,977	0.09
British India	12,467	1.30	16,214	1.81	119,439	8.89	175,275	8.57	151,578	7.96
Burma	8,220	0.86	12,801	1.43	6,466	0.48	13,267	0.65	91,414	4.80
Canada	17,093	1.79	7,872	0.88	10,530	0.78	11,272	0.55	21,818	1.15
Formosa	3,584	0.38	2,277	0.26	28,649	2.13	29,105	1.42	28,825	1.51
France	15,106	1.58	18,304	2.05	10,307	0.84	7,815	0.38	2,850	0.14
French Indo-China	29,991	3.14	27,351	3.06	28,508	2.12	138,126	6.76	128,174	6.73
Germany	146,374	15.31	112,939	12.64	87,167	6.49	55,033	2.69	42,842	2.25
Great Britain	111,695	11.68	70,606	7.90	77,860	5.80	81,609	3.99	39,560	2.08
Hongkong	19,078	2.00	24,589	2.75	35,416	2.64	146,972	7.19	270,779	14.23
Italy	9,906	1.04	17,465	1.95	11,108	0.83	6,766	0.33	788	0.04
Japan	150,432	15.73	209,864	23.49	313,398	23.34	466,289	22.81	349,889	18.38
Korea	2,346	0.25	5,577	0.62	20,827	1.55	15,958	0.78	17,219	0.90
Netherlands India	80,718	8.44	45,744	5.12	58,350	4.35	107,504	5.26	112,015	5.89
Thailand	15,833	1.66	34,939	2.79	20,966	1.56	27,868	2.34	48,233	2.53
Straits Settlements and F. M. S.	10,362	1.08	7,313	0.82	12,032	0.90	22,876	1.12	14,173	0.74
Brazil	38,243	2.85	44,229	2.16	44,009	2.31
U. S. A.	188,859	19.75	151,254	16.93	214,100	15.94	435,486	21.30	374,903	19.70
Kwantung Leased Territory	9,546	1.00	37,411	4.19	98,958	7.37	75,928	3.71	23,032	1.21
Other Countries	78,954	8.34	54,789	6.13	60,970	4.46	62,317	3.06	39,304	2.00
TOTAL	956,234	100.00	893,500	100.00	1,343,018	100.00	2,044,365	100.00	1,903,499	100.00

GROSS EXPORTS TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES, 1937-41. VALUE OF MERCHANDISE: BY COUNTRIES

('000 omitted)

FOREIGN TRADE

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COUNTRY & REGION	1937		1938		1939		1940		1941 (January-September)	
	NC \$	%	NC \$	%	NC \$	%	NC \$	%	NC \$	%
Australia	5,401	0.64	3,897	0.51	6,393	0.62	14,704	0.74	10,068	0.44
Belgium	5,794	0.69	2,547	0.33	3,193	0.31	745	0.04
British India	11,791	1.41	19,720	2.58	30,700	2.98	89,903	4.55	95,500	4.17
Burma	4,503	0.54	4,661	0.61	5,629	0.55	19,125	0.97	26,680	1.16
Canada	7,091	0.85	3,675	0.48	10,213	0.99	24,557	1.24	13,404	0.58
Egypt (including Anglo-Egypt, Sudan)	2,654	0.32	2,852	0.37	5,369	0.52	2,986	0.15	21,688	0.95
Formosa	2,845	0.34	177	0.02	6,891	0.67	39,897	2.02	54,033	2.26
France	32,643	3.89	20,402	2.67	32,641	3.17	31,819	1.61	7	...
French Indo-China	12,827	1.53	15,816	2.07	71,046	6.90	45,222	2.29	78,145	3.41
Germany	72,477	8.64	56,440	7.39	45,097	4.38	4,099	0.21	19,969	0.87
Great Britain	80,380	9.58	56,769	7.43	90,863	8.82	197,798	9.96	87,246	3.81
Hongkong	162,904	19.42	243,395	31.87	222,099	21.56	367,502	18.60	511,093	22.32
Italy	6,840	0.82	1,267	0.17	2,293	0.22	6,694	0.34	120	...
Japan	84,306	10.05	116,547	15.26	66,621	6.47	126,408	6.40	192,707	8.41
Korea	7,712	0.92	6,873	0.90	5,598	0.54	12,495	0.63	22,268	0.97
Macao	5,127	0.61	9,624	1.26	21,551	2.09	19,627	0.99	32,967	1.44
Morocco	8,327	0.99	7,550	0.99	7,610	0.74	13,687	0.69	264	0.01
Netherlands	14,261	1.70	8,170	1.07	10,742	1.04	2,669	0.13
Netherlands India	6,228	0.74	6,664	0.87	17,688	1.72	48,521	2.46	118,920	5.19
Philippine Islands	6,945	0.83	6,703	0.88	15,582	1.51	32,257	1.63	62,086	2.71
South Africa, Union of, and Rhodesia	3,080	0.30	12,430	0.63	14,603	0.64
Straits Settlements and F. M. S.	19,213	2.29	17,546	2.30	33,786	3.28	64,865	3.28	85,546	3.74
Thailand	4,111	0.49	6,019	0.79	11,583	1.12	43,170	2.18	62,730	2.74
U. S. A.	231,449	27.59	86,853	11.37	225,873	21.92	565,669	28.63	522,591	22.82
Kwangchowwan	1,157	0.14	2,381	0.31	8,468	0.82	43,266	2.19	35,782	1.56
Kwantung Leased Territory	14,603	1.74	41,507	5.44	48,552	4.71	105,082	5.32	192,511	8.41
Other Countries	27,181	3.24	15,676	2.06	21,198	2.05	40,934	2.12	29,138	1.29
Total ...	838,770	100.00	763,731	100.00	1,030,359	100.00	1,976,071	100.00	2,290,097	100.00

ESTIMATED WARTIME ANNUAL PRODUCTION OF TEA

<i>Province</i>	<i>(Pounds)</i>
Chekiang	31,570,000
Hunan	27,500,000
Anhwei	25,960,000
Fukien	23,094,500
Hupei	12,650,000
Szechwan	11,972,400
Kiangsi	11,880,000
Kwangtung	8,800,000
Yunnan	8,327,000
Sikang	4,400,000
Kwangsi	4,004,000
Kweichow	750,200
Shensi	550,000
Honan	462,000
Kiangsu	110,000
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TOTAL	172,030,100
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Estimates based upon the actual amounts of tea available for foreign and domestic markets. Local consumption is excluded.

FOREIGN TRADE

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COUNTRY AND REGION	1937			1938			1939			1940		
	Quintals	NC \$	Quintals	NC \$	Quintals	NC \$	Quintals	NC \$	Quintals	NC \$	Quintals	NC \$
Aden, Perim I	2,346	158,280		124		190		190		96		
Algeria	15,130	1,833,959		10,041		1,346,949		1,221,208		2,456,971		
Arabia	356	16,646										
Argentina	372	37,903				60						
Australia	3,435	269,897		2,486		198,588		51,349		122,588		
Belgium	133	18,563		1		411						
British India	6,058	534,356		2,259		163,004		246,085		276,787		
British W. Africa	88	10,941		825		73,722		31,902		2		
Burma	8,788	305,405		7,208		224,470		305,570		807,286		
Canada	3,279	250,409		559		54,528		38,307		7,710		
Chile	17	2,249								205		
Danzig				5		7,056						
Denmark	438	37,888		150		10,292		1,500				
Egypt	1,383	78,296		87		23,167		12,030		47		
Formosa	1,067	81,344						6,770		126		
France	8,028	926,701		3,284		311,109		169,275		1,223		
French E. Africa	1,448	92,126										
French Indo-China	1,114	71,382						240				
French W. Africa	3,134	346,181		546		35,705		58,996		798		
Germany	5,723	506,406		2,922		287,914		274,606		324,320		
Gibraltar	688	69,105		4,665		372,968		41,276		8		
Great Britain	56,969	5,187,919		737		71,350		28,834		2,174		
Hongkong	41,705	2,777,392		9,023		809,441		265,522		9,804		
Italy	85	8,600		239,069		17,672,659		18,190,761		234,854		
Japan	2,372	195,616		123		14,464		47,895		48		
Korea	109	15,500		348		28,427		14,957		1,903		
Macao	1,074	43,688						56				
Morocco	74,952	8,173,065		1,920		71,037		208,202		949		
Netherlands	8,610	954,674		77,537		7,403,519		6,725,594		18,170,511		
Dutch East Indies	229	23,809		375		25,522		3,306		25,509		
New Zealand	408	40,227		309		30,834		25,495		1		
Palestine				43		3,206				260		
Peru	499	28,812		87		5,028		486				
Philippine Islands	922	82,719		655		58,768				95		
Portugal	809	80,640		108		10,481		50,419		560		
Rumania	62	2,667						2,812		45		
Siam												
South Africa	1,645	131,952		319		20,909		36,268		412		
Spain	128	7,680		330		32,944				126		
Spanish W. Africa												
Singapore	5,859	532,405		3,589		291,907		175,527		5,114		
Peru	32	2,657		56		4,949		1,094		11		
Thailand	688	52,515		2,428		169,581		16,954		376		
Tripoli	481	57,821						1,611				
Tunis	4,646	473,477		48		48		2,857				
United States	32,972	2,873,759		21,660		419,456		291,498		2,122		
U. S. Pacific Territory and Possessions	30	2,581		37		1,905,181		1,535,668		13,618		
U. S. S. R.	98,661	2,868,995		2,409		5,748		10,197		140		
Kwangchowwan												
Kwantung Leased Territory	9,768	516,353		11,772		651,512		251,272		28,390		
Other Countries	324	40,554		80		8,719		7,119		20		
Re-imports from Abroad	-472	-36,840		-140		-14,941		-8,628		-2,955		
TOTAL	406,572	30,787,274		416,246		33,054,085		30,385,881		344,925		
												104,571,195

CHAPTER XV

AGRICULTURAL ECONOMY

GENERAL REVIEW

Chinese agriculture is generally divided into two main types, namely: grazing on natural grasses and arable farming.

On the plateaus and steppe lands with low temperature, short growing seasons and scanty rainfall, grazing on natural grasses is the fundamental type of agriculture. Cultivation is limited to small regions where favorable natural conditions prevail. This type of agriculture is found in Outer Mongolia, the western part of Heilungkiang, the northern part of Jehol, the northern part of Chahar, the northern part of Suiyuan, the northern and western parts of Ningsia, Sinkiang, the western part of Sikang, and Tibet.

Arable farming in China can be divided into four regions. They are:

- (1) The Spring Wheat Region—Covering Kirin, Liaoning, the eastern part of Heilungkiang, the southern and eastern parts of Jehol, the southern part of Chahar, the southern part of Suiyuan, the northern and western parts of Kansu, the southern and eastern parts of Ningsia, the northern part of Shansi, the northern part of Shensi, the eastern part of Chinghai, the northwestern part of Szechwan and the northern part of Sikang.
- (2) The Winter Wheat Region—Covering Hopei, Shantung, the northern part of Kiangsu, the northern part of Anhwei, Honan, the southern part of Shansi, the southern part of Shensi, the southern and eastern parts of Kansu, the northern part of Szechwan, the southern and eastern parts of Sikang, and the northwestern part of Yunnan.
- (3) The Wheat and Rice Regions—Covering the southern part of Kiangsu, the northern part of Chekiang, the southern part of Anhwei, all except the southern tip of Hupeh, the eastern and

central parts of Szechwan, the central part of Yunnan, and the northern part of Kweichow.

- (4) The Rice Region—Covering the southern part of Chekiang, Kiangsi, Hunan, the southern tip of Hupeh, Fukien, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, the southern part of Kweichow, and the southern part of Yunnan.

The Spring Wheat Region is the only arable farming region in China where no winter crops can be planted on account of low winter temperature. Crops must be planted in the spring or early summer. One crop a year is the rule, with spring wheat as the chief crop. Barley, oats, millet, proso millet, peas, beans, hemp, flax and kaoliang are also cultivated. Throughout this region, livestock raising is an important undertaking. Wool production is essential, but cotton is not grown except in the Liaoning Peninsula.

Winter wheat is the premier crop in the Winter Wheat Region with barley as the main supplementary cereal. Other popular crops in this region include kaoliang, millet, corn, cotton, tobacco, peanuts, beans, and sweet potatoes. Double cropping is possible, but not common. Cattle and donkeys are the chief labor animals.

The Wheat and Rice Region is commonly known as the transitional boundary between the northern and southern agriculture in China. Rice is the most important summer crop in this region, while wheat is the most important winter crop. Other crops are beans, peas, kaoliang, sweet potatoes, cotton, barley, rapeseeds and oats. Yellow cattle and water buffaloes are the most important farm animals. Productive animals are also raised since there is a surplus of cereals.

Wheat growing is limited in the Rice Region. Farmers in this region usually grow two crops of rice a year, either by interplanting or by double cropping. Interplanting means planting late rice between the rows of early rice, while double cropping means planting late rice after the harvest of early rice. All

kinds of labor and productive animals can be found in this region. In horticulture, this is a region of citrus fruits.

Scientific farming, large-scale farm management, industrialization of rural districts, commercialization of farm products and a better rural system are the main objectives of the Chinese Government in endeavoring to improve China's agricultural situation. Readjustments have been made in all the above-mentioned four agricultural regions. Special attention has been directed to the development of the Northwest in both grazing and farming.

The science of agriculture has but a short history in China, but it has made considerable progress under the direction of the National Agricultural Research Bureau of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. Experimental work on rice, wheat, cotton, soy beans and other agricultural products has been well developed throughout the country.

The Chinese Government's agricultural policy tends to change household farming to large-scale organization. To enforce large-scale farm management, the first

step is to realize Dr. Sun Yat-sen's policy of enabling those who till the land to become its owners. The National Land Administration was created in June, 1942, to implement this policy with the cooperation of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry and the Farmers' Bank of China.

The industrialization of rural China has a bright future as the Government's policy today is to discourage the concentration of industrial enterprises in a few big cities, particularly in wartime. This is to be the policy of post-war reconstruction with emphasis on the hinterland. The industrialization of rural districts, if well balanced, will naturally absorb surplus labor, thus indirectly balancing the demand and supply of land in densely-populated localities.

Of the vast Chinese territory, much is not cultivable owing to the lack of moisture, excessive cold, or the poverty of soil. Not all the cultivable land, however, has been put under the plow. Details of the land and farm situation may be seen in the following three tables:

TABLE 1. ACREAGE OF CULTIVATED AND CULTIVABLE LAND AND NUMBER OF FARM HOUSEHOLDS IN CHINA

PROVINCE	Total Land Area in 1,000 Shih Mow	Acreege of Cultivated Land in 1,000 Shih Mow	Acreege of Cultivated Land as a Percentage of Total Land Area	Acreege of Cultivable Land in 1,000 Shih Mow	Acreege of Cultivable Land as a Percentage of Total Land Area	No. of Households (in 1,000)	No. of Farm Households (in 1,000)	No. of Farm Households as a Percentage of No. of Households	Average No. of Shih Mow of Cul- tivated Land per Farm Household
Chahar	377,530	15,519	4.1	161,394	42.75	394	309	78	50
Suiyuan	466,567	17,178	3.7	91,914	19.70	367	250	68	69
Ningsia	350,065	1,847	0.5	40,503	11.57	76	54	71	34
Chinghai	792,128	7,803	1.0	61,311	7.74	230	169	73	46
Kansu	584,056	21,667	3.7	16,412	2.81	1,076	793	74	27
Shensi	279,985	30,870	11.0	12,683	4.53	1,897	1,385	73	22
Shansi	257,060	55,812	21.7	9,820	3.82	2,263	1,874	83	30
Hopei	206,891	95,323	46.1	6,496	3.14	5,474	4,224	77	23
Shantung	219,457	101,986	46.5	13,694	6.24	6,740	5,918	88	17
Kiangsu	163,216	84,482	51.8	3,982	2.44	7,151	5,057	71	17
Anhwei	217,073	49,318	22.7	9,074	4.18	3,789	2,682	71	18
Honan	276,877	104,123	37.6	8,362	3.02	6,029	5,062	84	21
Hupei	288,906	56,227	19.5	20,166	6.98	5,913	3,960	67	14
Szechwan	591,264	88,724	15.0	22,586	3.82	7,264	4,975	68	18
Yunnan	592,464	24,993	4.2	59,246	10.00	1,947	1,384	71	18
Kweichow	260,780	21,197	8.1	18,072	6.93	1,769	1,193	67	18
Hunan	325,577	42,036	12.9	37,279	11.45	5,538	3,900	70	11
Kiangsi	271,738	38,366	14.1	13,859	5.10	4,942	3,292	67	12
Chekiang	144,635	37,973	26.3	2,763	1.91	4,658	3,165	68	12
Fukien	188,771	21,464	11.4	18,330	9.71	2,288	1,626	71	13
Kwangtung	339,742	39,124	11.5	26,704	7.86	5,635	3,479	62	11
Kwangsi	278,913	29,893	10.7	8,591	3.08	2,638	2,260	86	13
TOTAL	7,473,693	985,938	13.2	663,241	8.87	78,078	57,011	73	17*

* Weighted average.

Source: The National Agricultural Research Bureau.

TABLE 2. ACREAGE CHANGES OF CULTIVATED LAND IN LAST 60 YEARS

PROVINCE	INDEX OF ACREAGE OF CULTIVATED LAND (1873=100)				LINK INDEX		
	1873	1893	1913	1933	1893 (1873=100)	1913 (1893=100)	1933 (1913=100)
Chahar	100	104	112	104	104	108	93
Suiyuan	100	95	93	88	95	97	95
Ningsia	100	100	102	99	100	102	97
Chinghai	100	169	175	203	169	104	116
Kansu	100	116	117	113	116	100	101
Shensi	100	98	95	91	98	96	96
Shansi	100	103	110	110	103	106	101
Hopei	100	98	100	98	98	103	98
Shantung	100	103	105	99	103	102	94
Kiangsu	100	101	102	110	101	101	108
Anhwei	100	106	107	107	106	101	100
Honan	100	99	117	115	99	118	99
Hupei	100	104	109	128	104	105	118
Szechwan	100	102	104	110	102	102	106
Yunnan	100	111	133	131	111	120	99
Kweichow	100	115	121	130	115	105	108
Hunan	100	88	89	88	88	101	98
Kiangsi	100	99	93	91	99	94	97
Chekiang	100	102	73	78	102	71	107
Fukien	100	96	92	81	96	96	87
Kwangtung	100	101	101	102	101	100	101
Kwangsi	100	105	117	123	105	111	105
TOTAL	100	101	101	101	101	100	100

Source: The National Agricultural Research Bureau.

TABLE 3. AREA OF WASTELAND

PROVINCE	Area of Wasteland as a Percentage of Total Land Area	Area of Cultivable Wasteland as a Percentage of Total Area of Wasteland	Area of Cultivable Land as a Per- centage of Total Land Area
Chahar	75.0	57.0	42.75
Suiyuan	34.5	57.1	19.70
Ningsia	53.3	21.7	11.57
Chinghai	18.0	43.0	7.74
Kansu	17.8	15.8	2.81
Shensi	19.7	23.0	4.53
Shansi	13.8	27.7	3.82
Hopei	12.0	26.2	3.14
Shantung	16.9	36.9	6.24
Kiangsu	12.2	20.0	2.44
Anhwei	12.0	34.8	4.18
Honan	11.5	26.3	3.02
Hupei	17.8	39.2	6.98
Szechwan	16.7	22.9	3.82
Yunnan	20.0	50.0	10.00
Kweichow	21.0	33.0	6.93
Hunan	22.5	50.9	11.45
Kiangsi	17.9	28.5	5.10
Chekiang	9.8	19.5	1.91
Fukien	20.8	46.7	9.71
Kwangtung	16.2	48.5	7.86
Kwangsi	17.2	17.9	3.08
Weighted Average	19.1	33.3	6.36

Source: The National Agricultural Research Bureau.

Rice and wheat are the main staple food crops in China with corn, barley, kaoliang, sweet potatoes, potatoes, millet and soy beans as supplementary cereals. Rice is largely consumed in central and southern provinces, such as Szechwan, Hunan, Hupei, Kiangsi Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Yunnan and Fukien, while wheat in northern provinces, such as Honan, Shensi, Kansu, Chinghai and Ningsia. The production of rice in Free China is more than sufficient, while that of wheat, corn, millet, barley, kaoliang and soy beans is slightly insufficient. The differences, however, can be made up by restricting non-essential uses of cereals, such as the manufacture of wine. The problem of food supply in China is, therefore, not acute, and is far from being so serious as to create uneasiness among the people. (See Tables 4, 5 and 6.)

TABLE 4. ESTIMATED AMOUNT OF SURPLUS (+) OR INSUFFICIENCY (-) OF IMPORTANT FOODSTUFFS IN 15 FREE CHINA PROVINCES

(Unit: 1,000 piculs)

	1940	1941
Unhusked rice	+38,123	+468
Wheat	-780	-2,890
Barley	-91	-1,103
Corn	-491	-2,567
Kaoliang	-293	-527
Millet	+345	-91
Sweet potatoes	+6,409	+2,506
Soy beans	-2,849	-2,791

TABLE 5. PER CAPITA CONSUMPTION OF FOOD PRODUCTS

(Unit Cattles)

	Rice	Wheat	Barley	Corn	Kaoliang	Millet	Proso millet	Bard-yard millet	Oats	Buck wheat	Soy beans	Broad beans	Field peas	Black beans	Green beans	Sweet potatoes	Potatoes	Garoes
1938	288.3	56.9	12.7	47.5	10.5	16.8	3.8	4.7	2.7	8.1	16.9	8.1	11.2	2.7	6.6	65.2	17.9	1.0
1939	299.2	65.1	13.7	48.5	11.3	18.3	5.1	4.7	3.1	9.7	18.1	9.8	12.1	3.1	6.6	62.3	19.0	1.0
1940	294.6	69.4	13.7	56.0	11.7	16.6	5.3	4.4	3.1	10.1	17.3	9.8	11.8	2.9	6.8	61.0	18.1	1.1
1941	289.2	72.9	13.6	63.3	11.3	17.7	5.0	4.4	3.7	11.5	16.9	9.8	12.7	2.9	7.0	62.4	20.3	1.2
Chekiang	243.8	34.0	9.3	21.6	1.7	2.1	0.1		0.5	6.3	12.1	4.2	4.9	1.0	1.6	87.3	17.7	1.3
Kiangsi	453.3	5.5	1.3	1.0	0.2	6.0		0.2	0.5	6.8	15.2	3.5	4.9	3.9	3.1	70.1	4.9	0.7
Hupei	289.3	57.2	24.8	23.6	11.9	28.8	0.5		0.2	0.8	27.8	22.4	21.8	0.6	0.6	36.2	30.7	
Hunan	432.2	12.9	3.9	4.8	4.5	3.1	0.8	0.8	1.6	5.7	9.0	6.0	4.8	2.0	5.5	55.5	10.1	0.4
Szechwan	335.8	47.7	12.3	100.4	12.2	3.6	0.1	2.0	4.1	7.8	23.2	22.3	24.9	2.6	6.9	94.2	28.3	0.4
Honan	20.2	198.8	30.6	104.7	75.3	92.0	0.7	2.4		11.2	27.7	0.5	16.8	5.1	47.1	118.6	10.3	
Shensi	39.4	301.3	10.1	94.9	14.4	52.2	21.4	7.2	1.1	22.6	12.4	3.6	9.3	4.5	10.9	21.2	18.6	
Kansu	12.3	224.6	47.6	39.9	20.8	41.7	33.9	41.5	23.3	34.9	7.8	4.5	18.4	0.7	1.4	7.4	64.3	
Chinghai	1.4	134.0	232.4			7.9	5.5	6.9	30.6	11.3	8.0	3.0	43.3	3.3		6.3	85.6	
Fukien	426.1	18.7	3.6	2.3	1.8	2.0	0.1	1.3	0.1	1.3	9.3	1.8	2.9	2.6	2.5	151.6	5.8	1.2
Kwangtung	371.1	6.0	1.4	2.4	0.7	2.0	0.1	2.6	0.2	1.4	6.7	1.0	1.4	2.5	1.0	137.0	7.6	10.5
Kwangsi	344.5	13.4	3.5	57.3	3.2	9.5	0.6	1.7	0.6	6.1	12.4	3.1	6.6	3.8	3.5	39.5	7.0	4.1
Yunnan	308.1	25.2	7.0	94.7	2.9	6.8	0.8	1.8	7.2	21.6	19.7	24.1	16.1	1.9	1.9	14.4	30.8	
Kweichow	347.0	17.7	15.9	122.6	7.2	7.6	0.4	0.8	5.7	16.4	28.5	10.3	10.5	2.5	3.2	31.8	20.4	
Ningsia	74.0	188.5	13.2	1.3	13.6	75.3	88.8	57.5		17.8	3.2	3.6	1.8	2.6	1.8	10.3	29.8	

TABLE 6.—PER CAPITA CONSUMPTION OF MEAT AND FISH

(Unit: Cattles)

LOCALITY	Pork	Mutton	Beef	Chickens and Ducks	Fish	Eggs (Piece)
1938	18.3	3.2	6.1	5.6	7.8	41
1939	18.3	4.3	6.6	5.5	6.7	43
1940	18.0	3.3	5.8	4.8	6.2	38
1941	18.1	3.5	5.6	5.1	5.7	35
Chekiang	12.4	1.6	2.0	4.8	11.5	36
Kiangsi	17.4	0.7	3.9	5.5	8.8	34
Hupei	19.1	7.4	8.7	3.7	4.2	44
Hunan	20.3	1.8	4.8	5.4	9.5	37
Szechwan	20.3	4.5	4.1	4.7	3.8	34
Honan	8.7	3.2	4.9	2.5	2.1	39
Shensi	9.7	2.9	1.7	2.0	0.5	38
Kansu	13.3	9.9	4.5	4.2	0.6	55
Chinghai	8.7	7.4	7.8	0.8	0.4	22
Fukien	16.1	1.4	4.9	4.5	9.0	27
Kwangtung	13.6	1.4	5.4	4.9	9.7	19
Kwangsi	20.6	0.9	12.9	7.6	10.9	22
Yunnan	23.9	5.8	7.8	8.4	5.4	46
Kweichow	28.3	3.1	6.4	6.8	3.9	43
Ningsia	11.8	14.6	7.2	2.7	1.9	22

Source: The National Agricultural Research Bureau.

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION PREWAR AND WARTIME COMPARED

The present comparison of the agricultural production in China in prewar and in wartime is confined to 1931-1937 and 1938-1941, based on reports made during the last ten years by the National Agricultural Research Bureau.

1. *Prewar Period.* Rice, wheat and barley are the chief crops that China produces and her people consume. Twenty-two provinces before the outbreak of the war in 1937 produced a total of 1,600,000,000 piculs of unhusked rice, wheat and barley. The estimated yearly production of important crops may be summarized as follows:

TABLE 7.—ESTIMATED YEARLY PRODUCTION OF IMPORTANT CROPS DURING PREWAR PERIOD

Kinds of Cereals	Production in Piculs
Unhusked rice	1,000,000,000
Wheat and barley	800,000,000
Sweet potatoes	400,000,000
Kaoliang	140,000,000
Millet	140,000,000
Corn	140,000,000
Soy beans	140,000,000
Field peas	60,000,000
Broad beans	60,000,000
Peanuts	60,000,000
Rapeseeds	60,000,000
Proso millet	20,000,000
Oats	20,000,000
Sesame	20,000,000
Cotton	20,000,000
Tobacco	20,000,000
TOTAL	2,900,000,000

Livestock production in the prewar period may be seen in the following table:

TABLE 8.—ESTIMATED YEARLY PRODUCTION OF LIVESTOCK DURING PREWAR PERIOD

Kinds of Livestock	Number
LABOR ANIMALS—	
Water buffaloes and cattle	30,000,000
Horses, donkeys and mules	20,000,000
PRODUCTIVE ANIMALS—	
Poultry animals	300,000,000
Hogs	60,000,000
Sheep and goats	30,000,000
TOTAL	440,000,000

2. *Prewar and Wartime Compared.* Sixty per cent. of the agricultural and livestock production of the country is in Free China, while the rest is produced in the occupied areas. Of the agricultural products, 60 per cent of the rice is produced in Free China, while only 20 per cent is in the enemy-controlled regions. Wheat produced in Free China as compared with the total production amounts to 80 per cent; kaoliang, millet, proso millet, soy beans, oats and cotton from 70 to 80 per cent; and peanuts, sesame, corn, and barley from 50 to 60 per cent. A greater portion of field peas, broad beans, rape-seeds, sweet potatoes and tobacco is produced in Free China.

Of the livestock production, 80 per cent of the water buffaloes are found in the interior provinces. Horses, mules, donkeys, goats and sheep are largely

concentrated in the occupied and war areas, while hogs, chickens, ducks and geese are mostly in the hinterland. (See Table 9.)

TABLE 9.— CROP AND LIVESTOCK PRODUCTION IN CHINA

(Acreage in 1,000 *shih mow*, production in 1,000 piculs, livestock in 1,000 heads)

CROP	ACREAGE OF CROPS (1931-1937 AVERAGE)			PRODUCTION OF CROPS (1931-1937 AVERAGE)			Kinds of Livestock	NUMBER OF LIVESTOCK (1937)		
	22 Provinces	15 Interior Provinces	Percentage of 15 Interior Provinces	22 Provinces	15 Interior Provinces	Percentage of 15 Interior Provinces		22 Provinces	15 Interior Provinces	Percentage of 15 Interior Provinces
WINTER CROPS—							LABOR ANIMALS—			
Wheat	302,311	110,023	36	434,858	169,160	39	Water buffaloes	11,574	9,218	80
Barley	101,079	51,604	51	157,427	83,553	53	Oxen	23,081	13,613	59
Field peas	53,826	33,815	63	63,805	41,295	65	Horses	3,260	1,631	50
Broad beans	42,071	29,249	70	60,360	44,120	73	Mules	3,624	1,068	29
Rapeseeds	59,554	42,494	71	49,460	36,642	74	Donkeys	9,018	2,480	28
Oats	15,538	2,341	15	17,612	2,961	17				
SUMMER CROPS—							PRODUCTIVE ANIMALS			
Rice	267,448	210,868.	79	911,918	726,315	80	Goats	15,744	8,121	52
Glutinous rice	29,112	19,898	68	89,370	62,806	70	Sheep	12,411	5,048	41
Kaoliang	76,985	16,491	21	140,319	32,506	23	Hogs	59,704	39,759	67
Millet	80,502	17,283	21	132,971	25,137	19	Chickens	241,850	142,687	59
Proso millet	24,262	7,254	30	31,606	10,069	32	Ducks	55,396	39,693	72
Corn	70,674	29,065	41	129,943	59,527	46	Geese	9,516	6,528	69
Soy beans	78,536	23,818	30	121,855	39,518	32				
Sweet potatoes	35,175	22,314	63	370,504	216,049	58				
Cotton	56,752	18,169	32	16,185	4,831	30				
Peanuts	22,839	9,247	40	54,783	19,956	36				
Sesame	21,746	9,294	43	17,016	6,911	41				
Tobacco	8,559	6,174	72	12,994	9,277	71				
Weighted Average			49			59	Weighted Average			55

Source: The National Agricultural Research Bureau.

Taking 1931-1937 as the prewar standard (100), the acreage of wheat, rapeseeds, corn, sweet potatoes, cotton, peanuts and sesame crops in 15 Free China provinces has been increased, while that of barley, field peas, broad beans, oats, soy beans and tobacco remains more or less the same. Other crops register slight decreases.

As to the production of winter crops, wheat, barley, broad beans, field peas, and oats registered an increase in 1938 over the prewar period, and there were additional increases in 1939 and 1940 in all crops, followed by a general slump in 1941 except for rapeseeds. Of the 12 kinds of summer crops, corn, sweet potatoes and peanuts exceeded the prewar standard throughout the war years, while glutinous rice, millet and soy

beans slightly decreased in production. Rice and kaoliang registered increased production in 1938 and 1939, but decreased in 1940 and 1941. In 1938, the production of cotton and sesame was slightly decreased, but began to increase over the prewar period in 1939, and continued to increase in 1940 and 1941. The production of proso millet has been decreasing in all the war years except in 1941.

Taking the winter and summer crops as a whole, the acreage decreased by one per cent in 1938 as compared with the prewar period, but increased by one per cent in 1939, two per cent in 1940, and three per cent in 1941. The production increased by six per cent in 1938, ten per cent in 1939, and two per cent in 1940, but decreased by two per cent in 1941. (See Tables 10 and 11.)

TABLE 10.—ACREAGE OF IMPORTANT CROPS IN 15 INTERIOR PROVINCES IN CHINA

CROP	ACREAGE (in 1,000 <i>shih mow</i>)					PREWAR AND WARTIME COMPARED (1931-1937=100)				
	1931-1937 Average	1938	1939	1940	1941	1931-1937 Average	1938	1939	1940	1941
WINTER CROPS										
Wheat	110,023	111,029	114,742	118,870	125,069	100	101	104	108	114
Barley	51,604	51,210	50,312	50,298	51,552	100	99	97	97	106
Fieldpeas	33,815	31,831	33,018	33,154	33,198	100	94	98	98	98
Broad beans	29,249	30,048	29,805	29,568	29,633	100	103	102	101	101
Rapeseeds	42,494	43,740	46,401	54,469	56,489	100	103	109	128	133
Oats	2,341	2,282	2,399	2,310	2,358	100	97	102	99	101
SUMMER CROPS										
Rice	210,868	206,341	207,048	198,714	198,258	100	98	98	94	94
Glutinous rice	19,898	17,788	17,146	15,757	14,056	100	89	86	79	71
Kaoliang	16,491	16,076	15,700	15,634	15,661	100	97	95	95	95
Millet	17,283	16,274	15,311	14,487	14,371	100	94	89	84	83
Proso millet	7,254	7,135	7,127	6,843	6,835	100	98	98	94	94
Corn	29,065	32,879	33,094	33,965	35,179	100	113	114	117	121
Soy beans	23,818	22,368	22,468	23,328	22,868	100	94	94	98	96
Sweet potatoes	22,314	25,193	25,616	27,469	28,941	100	113	115	123	130
Cotton	18,169	17,602	18,055	21,514	21,216	100	97	99	118	117
Peanuts	9,247	9,160	9,463	10,062	10,197	100	99	102	109	110
Sesame	9,294	9,057	9,771	10,505	10,183	100	97	105	113	110
Tobacco	6,174	6,057	6,187	6,626	6,124	100	98	100	107	99
TOTAL	659,401	656,070	663,663	673,573	682,188	100	99	101	102	103

Source: The National Agricultural Research Bureau.

TABLE 11—CROP PRODUCTION IN 15 INTERIOR PROVINCES IN CHINA

CROP	PRODUCTION (IN 1,000 PICULS)					PREWAR AND WARTIME COMPARED (1931-1937=100)				
	1931-1937 Average	1938	1939	1940	1941	1931-1937 Average	1938	1939	1940	1941
WINTER CROPS										
Wheat	169,160	202,911	198,188	201,110	165,120	100	120	117	119	98
Barley	83,553	90,338	91,534	85,831	73,797	100	103	110	103	88
Field peas	41,295	43,694	47,172	43,064	37,548	100	106	114	104	91
Broad beans	44,120	47,644	52,359	47,715	41,906	100	108	119	108	95
Rapeseeds	36,042	35,846	43,111	48,539	45,630	100	98	118	132	125
Oats	2,961	3,118	3,375	3,048	2,877	100	105	114	103	97
SUMMER CROPS										
Rice	726,315	747,569	763,649	618,863	643,519	100	103	105	85	89
Glutinous rice	62,806	58,932	56,589	43,347	40,634	100	94	90	69	65
Kaoliang	32,506	33,997	34,299	31,264	29,065	100	105	106	96	91
Millet	25,137	23,814	23,990	21,171	20,706	100	95	95	84	82
Proso millet	10,069	9,269	9,645	8,631	10,108	100	92	96	86	100
Corn	59,527	70,371	71,293	67,039	66,533	100	118	120	113	112
Soy beans	39,518	36,470	37,646	38,576	34,714	100	92	95	98	88
Sweet potatoes	216,049	276,550	248,662	256,404	277,096	100	128	115	119	128
Cotton	4,831	4,688	5,833	6,078	5,381	100	97	121	126	111
Peanuts	19,956	21,901	22,420	22,799	22,848	100	110	112	114	114
Sesame	6,911	5,451	8,008	8,221	7,351	100	79	116	119	106
Tobacco	9,277	8,934	9,311	10,269	8,516	100	96	106	111	92
Weighted Average						100	106	110	102	96

Source: The National Agricultural Research Bureau.

Livestock production has been decreasing since the outbreak of the war. Taking 1937 as a basis, 1938 registered a decrease by eight per cent, 1939, two per cent, 1940 eight per cent, and 1941, 13 per cent.

In 1938, only the production of oxen and chickens slightly increased. In 1939, oxen, water buffaloes, chickens and ducks registered slight increases, while there was no increase at all in 1940 and 1941.

The 1941 decreases included water buffaloes by 12 per cent, oxen by seven per cent, horses by 14 per cent, mules by 22 per cent, donkeys by 15 per cent, goats by 12 per cent, sheep by 17 per cent., hogs by five per cent, chickens by 11 per cent, ducks by eight per cent, and geese by 20 per cent (See Table 12.)

It is, therefore, unlikely that there will be any increase during the next one or two years.

TABLE 12—LIVESTOCK PRODUCTION IN 15 INTERIOR PROVINCES IN CHINA

KIND	NUMBER OF LIVESTOCK					PREWAR AND WARTIME COMPARED (1937=100)				
	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941
LABOR ANIMALS										
Water buffaloes	9,218	8,538	9,337	8,170	8,079	100	93	101	89	88
Oxen	13,613	13,717	13,736	12,929	12,727	100	101	101	95	93
Horses	1,631	1,508	1,560	1,512	1,410	100	92	96	93	86
Mules	1,068	870	1,015	988	835	100	81	95	93	78
Donkeys	2,480	2,192	2,403	2,199	2,103	100	88	97	89	85
PRODUCTIVE ANIMALS										
Goats	8,121	8,055	7,100	7,437	7,171	100	99	87	92	88
Sheep	5,048	4,882	4,711	4,834	4,210	100	97	93	96	83
Hogs	39,759	39,646	38,444	38,720	37,740	100	100	97	97	95
Chickens	142,687	144,949	142,775	135,244	126,941	100	102	100	95	89
Ducks	39,693	37,976	40,914	39,047	36,405	100	96	103	98	92
Geese	6,528	5,066	4,767	5,721	5,247	100	78	73	88	80
Weighted Average						100	92	98	92	87

Source: The National Agricultural Research Bureau.

AGRICULTURAL SITUATION 1938-1942

1. *Crop Production.* The year 1942 registered a general increase in the production of both winter and summer crops.

It was by far the best year for winter crop production since the war began in 1937. With the only exception of rapeseeds, the production of all other winter crops presented a distinct increase over 1941. The production of rapeseeds, however, can be favorably compared with the average production of the seven prewar years (1931-1937). The total acreage of winter crops in 1942 amounted to 310,000,000 *shih mow*, about 65 per cent of the total area of cultivated land, the highest record of winter plowing since the outbreak of the war. It was an increase of about 12,000,000 *shih mow* over 1941, about 11,000,000 *shih mow* over 1940, about 33,000,000 *shih mow* over 1939, and about 40,000,000 *shih mow* over 1938, and the prewar period. (See Table 13.)

TABLE 13—COMPARISON OF 1942 WINTER CROPS WITH 1941 AND PREWAR PERIOD

(Acreage in 1,000 *shih mow*; production in 1,000 piculs)

CROP	1941		1942		INCREASE (+) OR DECREASE (—) IN 1942 OVER 1941		1942 AS A PERCENTAGE OF 1931-1937	
	Acreage	Production	Acreage	Production	Acreage	Production	Acreage	Production
Wheat	125,069	133,420	165,120	209,729	+ 40,051	+ 76,309	121	124
Barley	51,552	53,721	73,797	89,363	+ 22,245	+ 35,642	104	107
Field Peas	33,198	33,986	37,548	42,217	+ 4,350	+ 8,231	101	102
Broad Beans	29,633	30,493	41,906	47,617	+ 12,273	+ 17,124	104	108
Oats	2,358	2,391	2,877	3,094	+ 519	+ 703	102	104
Rapeseeds	56,489	56,008	45,630	44,140	—10,859	—11,868	132	120
TOTAL	298,299	310,019	366,878	436,160	+ 68,579	+ 126,141	115*	115*

Source: The National Agriculture Research Bureau.

* Weighted Average.

Of the summer crops in 1942, the production of rice, glutinous rice, corn, soy bean, and cotton was increased to a considerable amount over 1941, while that of kaoliang, millet, proso millet, sweet potatoes, peanuts, sesame, and tobacco decreased slightly. The total acreage of summer crops has been declining since 1937. By 1941, it had been reduced by 6,000,000 *shih mow*. It was slightly increased in 1942, totalling 388,000,000 *shih mow*, about 4,000,000 *shih mow* more than that of 1941. The difference between 1942 and the seven prewar years was only 2,000,000 *shih mow*, showing the tendency of restoring the prewar situation. (See Tables 14 and 15.)

TABLE 14—ACREAGE OF SUMMER CROPS, 1942—PRELIMINARY ESTIMATE

A. Acreage Planted in 1,000 *shih mow*

PROVINCE	No. of Hsien Reported	RICE				Glutinous Rice	Kaoliang (Sor- ghum)	Millet	Proso Millet	Corn	Soy Beans	Sweet Potatoes	Cotton	Peanuts	Sesame	Tobacco
		Early	Medium	Late	Total											
Ningsia	7		96		96	54	94	228	475	28	28		8		3	
Chinghai	7							242	193	11	17			3		14
Kansu	44		70		70	20	1,549	1,921	3,492	1,659	571	192	196		13	309
Shensi	62	666		164	830	166	1,228	2,756	1,972	3,057	780	340	3,229	166	655	335
Honan	44	1,073		1,554	2,627	431	4,832	5,091	137	5,404	4,460	3,556	2,883	623	3,831	754
Hupeh	17	4,937	945	5,288	11,170	980	1,649	1,676	58	2,461	1,952	1,103	4,562	566	1,632	261
Szechwan	118	9,054		21,036	30,090	2,094	4,964	727	238	11,489	4,155	9,308	4,018	2,167	1,538	1,403
Yunnan	52	2,180	5,534	2,166	9,880	828	294	219	55	4,333	1,927	409	243	127	35	354
Kweichow	50	816	5,309	966	7,091	1,011	290	233	104	2,936	1,244	396	445	231	149	569
Hunan	44	5,977	17,886	3,323	27,186	934	336	147	34	634	1,205	2,370	1,671	455	237	701
Kiangsi	28	10,767	6,291	6,726	23,784	1,379	102	384	9	145	2,304	1,589	1,723	1,366	1,200	308
Chekiang		4,862	5,078	4,579	14,519	1,361	107	235	15	1,190	1,460	1,411	1,360	208	159	106
Fukien	36	3,384	3,218	6,015	13,117	1,007	21	250	26	28	852	2,407	67	550	62	139
Kwangtung	31	18,780	4,562	17,909	41,251	1,193	77	263	42	286	733	4,801	49	2,132	68	186
Kwangsi	72	7,615	6,906	6,737	21,258	1,222	300	275	69	2,178	1,135	1,811	672	1,461	329	365
TOTAL	612	70,611	55,895	76,463	202,969	13,180	15,843	14,647	6,919	35,839	22,823	29,693	20,626	10,055	9,911	5,804

TABLE 14—B. ACREAGE OF SUMMER CROPS IN 1942 AS A PERCENTAGE OF 1941

(1941=100)

PROVINCE	RICE				Glutinous Rice	Kaoliang (Sorghum)	Millet	Proso Millet	Corn	Soy Beans	Sweet Potatoes	Cotton	Peanuts	Sesame	Tobacco
	Early	Medium	Late	Total											
Ningsia		101		101	100	104	101	100	104	97		101	100	89	100
Chinghai							105	106	100	94					
Kansu		101		101	91	105	99	102	102	96	104	97	128	108	97
Shensi	107		99	105	92	101	103	100	103	105	101	90	100	100	98
Honan	110		94	100	98	104	104	99	106	97	109	98	94	96	86
Hupeh	104	103	100	102	94	95	101	100	101	97	93	95	91	102	100
Szechwan	106		102	103	95	100	104	100	101	101	100	99	95	88	90
Yunnan	105	99	101	101	98	95	95	100	101	101	101	105	97	113	97
Kweichow	116	107	103	107	100	100	98	97	101	95	98	96	97	99	103
Hunan	103	106	100	105	88	97	92	110	99	100	106	99	95	101	96
Kiangsi	103	101	104	103	90	104	100	100	100	102	106	103	97	104	103
Chekiang	102	101	102	102	91	101	100	107	99	103	103	103	100	102	101
Fukien	101	101	101	101	92	105	100	104	100	104	102	102	102	94	99
Kwangtung	102	99	101	101	98	99	100	102	100	103	104	104	105	100	103
Kwangsi	103	102	100	102	95	102	99	101	105	101	102	104	102	102	96
Weighted Average	103	103	101	102	94	101	102	101	102	100	103	97	99	97	95

Source: The National Agricultural Research Bureau.

TABLE 15.—PRODUCTION OF SUMMER CROPS 1942—PRELIMINARY ESTIMATE

A. Amount Estimated in 1,000 Piculs

PROVINCE	No. of <i>Hsien</i> Reported	Rice				Glutinous Rice	Kaoliang (Sorghum)	Millet	P. O. S. Millet	Corn	Soy Beans	S. Potatoes	Cotton (lint)	Peanuts	Sesame	Tobacco
		Early	Medium	Late	Total											
Ningsia	6		116		116	62	171	387	801	52	52		2	1	1	
Chinghai	6							286	310	11	21					32
Kansu	52		126		126	23	2,235	2,741	5,157	2,663	681	1,198	54	2	6	353
Shensi	66	1,766		394	2,160	390	1,805	33,57	2,461	4,548	839	2,343	739	294	356	364
Honan	47	2,096		4,057	6,153	785	4,882	4,811	102	4,531	3,846	23,943	471	990	2,059	753
Hupeh	24	13,202	3,442	15,375	32,109	2,437	3,424	2,565	51	4,494	3,282	8,496	1,592	1,568	1,243	429
Szechwan	118	33,618		78,761	112,39	7,234	13,223	1,226	283	30,052	8,696	65,638	1,190	5,020	1,128	2,277
Yunnan	55	7,913	17,998	6,738	32,649	2,605	501	350	88	6,109	4,462	3,920	62	271	31	488
Kweichow	57	2,869	18,274	2,984	24,077	3,103	701	481	166	7,722	2,846	4,004	141	683	103	1,222
Hunan	47	22,727	81,103	13,017	116,847	3,387	640	205	33	1,264	2,361	26,054	555	1,028	143	799
Kiangsi	37	36,998	23,095	21,205	81,298	6,038	170	578	23	238	3,529	17,403	506	3,480	700	420
Chekiang	...	14,797	18,086	16,071	48,954	4,760	139	311	22	2,297	2,156	16,597	476	445	90	179
Fukien	47	13,985	12,089	23,206	49,290	3,575	21	295	28	74	1,315	33,299	15	1,221	27	214
Kwangtung	42	64,022	15,903	67,276	147,201	3,955	101	332	55	518	1,302	53,973	9	4,244	51	386
Kwangsi	77	24,265	22,169	21,139	67,573	3,891	489	376	93	4,480	1,795	17,555	136	2,847	255	362
Total	680	238,348	212,401	270,173	720,922	42,250	28,502	18,301	9,673	69,053	37,183	274,423	5,978	22,094	6,253	8,228

TABLE 15—B. ESTIMATED PRODUCTION OF SUMMER CROPS IN 1942 AS PERCENTAGE OF THE NORMAL YEAR

PROVINCE	RICE				Glutinous Rice	Kaoliang (Sor-ghum)	Millet	Proso Millet	Corn	Soy Beans	Sweet Potatoes	Cotton	Peanuts	Sesame	Tobacco
	Early	Medium	Late	Total											
Ningsia		80		80	80	80	72	71	80	72		50	63	50	70
Chinghai							56	59	55	55					
Kansu		53		53	54	53	56	57	53	51	53	53	45	43	54
Shensi	64		52	53	63	53	50	48	55	50	53	48	56	46	53
Honan	52		57	55	51	36	36	35	33	35	38	39	39	34	39
Hupoh	61	72	53	61	58	66	63	67	64	60	59	59	65	62	60
Szechwan	69		67	63	66	66	62	61	65	64	63	57	63	58	61
Yunnan	79	74	71	74	72	70	70	73	73	72	78	70	75	67	70
Kweichow	77	78	72	77	75	68	71	69	74	72	74	65	68	67	68
Hunan	75	80	75	78	75	75	78	78	75	75	83	70	75	74	74
Kiangsi	71	75	70	72	73	74	69	77	77	72	79	67	72	65	74
Chekiang	72	75	74	74	74	72	71	73	76	71	79	67	74	68	72
Fukien	73	76	76	75	74	71	73	72	76	71	79	66	75	71	71
Kwangtung	71	71	76	73	74	74	71	70	72	69	75	75	72	71	71
Kwangsi	72	71	72	72	72	68	68	69	65	67	75	65	68	65	63
Weighted Average	71	76	70	72	69	61	58	63	62	61	66	59	65	56	64

TABLE 15—C. ESTIMATED PRODUCTION OF SUMMER CROPS IN 1942 AS A PERCENTAGE OF 1941
(1941=100)

PROVINCE	Rice				Glutinous Rice	Kaoliang (Sorghum)	Millet	Pros o Mille	Corn	Soy Beans	Sweet Potatoes	Cotton	Peanuts	Sesame	Tobacco
	Early	Medium	Late	Total											
Ningsia		114		114	119	104	108	95	108	93		87	100	57	94
Chinghai							100	100	69	81					
Kansu		81		81	85	96	97	98	90	91	99	95	86	86	93
Shensi	110		110	110	95	94	92	89	93	99	93	81	90	82	89
Honar	102		97	99	95	73	65	67	63	72	76	85	68	65	66
Hupeh	160	254	129	149	154	109	128	121	117	129	103	126	117	123	117
Szechwan	131		123	125	111	104	103	100	117	127	89	125	97	87	97
Yunnan	109	101	102	103	97	95	94	111	98	103	106	100	108	100	98
Kweichow	154	154	166	155	138	117	111	110	110	104	106	123	99	98	120
Hunan	116	138	112	130	112	100	108	114	101	123	117	109	98	108	103
Kiangsi	97	104	106	101	91	99	86	96	95	107	107	130	94	99	103
Chekiang	98	114	106	106	102	101	107	110	113	118	111	126	106	113	106
Fuk'ien	96	94	96	95	85	105	92	112	104	99	105	94	96	87	96
Kwangtung	98	96	105	101	97	100	99	104	104	107	106	113	101	109	101
Kwangsi	106	112	108	108	105	100	88	93	102	106	111	103	97	98	86
Weighted Average	107	120	111	112	104	96	88	96	104	107	99	111	97	85	97

Source: The National Agricultural Research Bureau.

The following statistics, totalling 18 tables, were compiled from reports made by the National Agricultural Research Bureau, showing the acreage and production of six kinds of winter crops from 1938 to 1942 and 12 kinds of summer crops from 1938 to 1941.

TABLE 16.—WHEAT—ACREAGE AND PRODUCTION, 1938-1942
(Acreage in 1,000 *shih mow*, production in 1,000 piculs)

PROVINCE	ACREAGE						PRODUCTION							
	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average*	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average*	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942
Chahar	2,443							2,533						
Suiyuan	2,454							2,383						
Ningsia	286	286	337	360	379	396	409	391	391	394	558	514	522	594
Chinghai	2,535	2,535	2,444	2,356	2,379	2,427	2,409	3,958	3,958	3,501	4,096	3,030	3,641	3,797
Kansu	7,002	7,002	8,055	8,359	8,434	8,330	8,247	7,515	7,515	10,331	9,424	8,953	8,411	9,077
Shensi	13,170	13,170	14,853	15,827	16,642	17,034	18,060	15,171	15,171	28,134	23,908	22,057	16,876	23,373
Shansi	17,494							16,935						
Hopei	32,211							36,519						
Shantung	51,213							71,705						
Kiangsu	33,002							58,964						
Anhui	19,707							23,306						
Honan	58,455	31,142	22,651	24,105	24,983	25,483	25,753	81,367	43,287	42,186	39,204	41,800	31,599	24,708
Hupei	15,126	11,201	10,856	11,409	11,944	11,962	13,171	25,854	19,154	18,424	21,506	23,806	18,522	23,728
Szechwan	15,538	15,538	19,502	17,917	17,716	18,981	22,566	36,258	36,258	49,438	41,874	39,572	36,872	55,720
Yunnan	3,619	3,619	4,472	4,714	4,842	4,932	5,117	6,132	6,132	7,125	8,956	9,612	8,396	9,318
Kweichow	2,735	2,735	3,319	3,274	3,458	3,491	4,365	5,021	5,021	6,385	6,001	7,022	6,235	9,218
Hunan	3,416	3,416	3,886	4,069	4,146	4,543	5,504	5,401	5,401	6,334	7,442	7,437	6,866	9,810
Kiangsi	5,853	5,853	5,018	4,792	4,561	5,170	5,532	7,558	7,558	7,523	7,624	7,333	5,676	8,147
Chekiang	7,559	5,033	5,403	5,765	6,186	7,453	7,603	10,639	7,096	8,869	10,168	10,459	6,476	12,013
Fukien	3,218	3,218	3,965	4,376	5,357	6,480	6,285	5,085	5,085	5,884	6,485	8,368	5,321	9,593
Kwangtung	1,967	1,967	2,786	3,011	3,203	3,534	3,359	2,506	2,506	3,693	4,491	4,084	3,801	3,890
Kwangsi	3,308	3,308	3,482	4,408	4,640	4,853	5,040	4,627	4,627	4,690	6,451	7,063	5,906	6,743
Total	302,311	110,023	111,029	114,742	118,870	125,069	133,420	434,858	169,160	202,911	198,188	201,110	165,120	209,729

* Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1938-1942.

TABLE 17.—BARLEY—ACREAGE AND PRODUCTION, 1939-1942
(Acreage in 1,000 *shih mow*, production in 1,000 piculs)

PROVINCE	ACREAGE						PRODUCTION							
	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average *	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average *	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942
Chahar	2,546							3,179						
Suiyuan	871	96	111	128	132	137	180	912	174	192	254	232	251	254
Ningsia	96	1,582	1,644	1,563	1,533	1,585	1,542	1,449	2,449	2,343	2,745	2,144	2,535	2,853
Chinghai	1,384	1,384	1,623	1,607	1,606	1,571	1,571	1,512	1,512	1,823	1,936	1,787	1,708	1,922
Kansu														
Shensi	3,054	3,054	2,926	2,999	2,915	2,899	3,141	3,687	3,687	5,986	5,175	4,537	3,512	4,505
Shansi	3,158							3,025						
Hopei	5,233							6,947						
Shantung	4,919							7,188						
Kiangsu	15,526							27,075						
Anhui	6,830							10,412						
Honan	10,550	5,468	4,645	4,728	4,720	4,619	4,666	14,828	7,711	8,521	8,218	7,355	5,589	4,438
Hupeh	13,768	9,101	7,778	7,541	7,519	7,303	7,666	20,685	13,652	11,716	13,473	14,648	10,786	13,085
Szechwan	12,213	12,213	13,597	12,199	11,874	12,080	12,678	27,480	27,480	32,517	29,307	24,711	22,679	29,223
Yunnan	1,978	1,978	2,215	2,156	2,127	2,188	2,247	3,125	3,125	3,346	3,758	3,808	3,626	3,796
Kweichow	2,414	2,414	2,509	2,545	2,666	2,486	3,063	4,120	4,120	4,432	4,331	4,763	3,993	5,872
Hunan	1,943	1,943	1,938	2,037	1,973	2,034	2,419	2,827	2,827	2,813	3,496	3,061	2,792	3,954
Kiangsi	2,977	2,977	2,714	2,796	2,632	2,893	2,750	3,384	3,384	3,036	3,856	3,423	2,939	3,461
Chekiang	4,450	3,807	3,605	3,627	3,798	4,505	4,773	6,849	5,863	5,674	5,898	6,359	5,520	7,109
Fukien	1,660	1,660	1,799	1,934	2,106	2,420	2,368	2,708	2,708	2,805	3,013	3,330	2,457	3,712
Kwangtung	1,951	1,951	2,090	2,187	2,385	2,411	2,293	2,251	2,251	2,497	2,776	2,311	2,170	2,380
Kwangsi	1,976	1,976	2,016	2,265	2,312	2,421	2,414	2,610	2,610	2,637	3,198	3,352	3,240	3,209
TOTAL	101,079	51,604	51,210	50,312	50,298	51,552	53,721	157,427	89,553	90,338	91,534	85,831	73,797	89,363

* Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1938-1942.

TABLE 18.—FIELD PEAS—ACREAGE AND PRODUCTION, 1938-1942

(Acreage in 1,000 *shih mow*, production in 1,000 piculs)

PROVINCE	ACREAGE						PRODUCTION							
	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average*	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average*	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942
Chahar	575							631						
Suiyuan	1,293							1,249						
Ningsia	301	301	206	228	247	273	288	451	451	359	428	452	483	572
Chinghai	880	880	909	858	849	845	776	1,211	1,211	1,002	1,190	837	1,122	1,014
Kansu	1,306	1,306	1,316	1,265	1,261	1,193	1,116	1,309	1,309	1,539	1,383	1,231	1,196	1,264
Shensi	2,032	2,032	1,799	1,970	1,978	2,075	2,101	1,992	1,992	2,285	1,897	1,476	1,778	2,344
Shansi	3,176							2,745						
Hopei	1,086							1,111						
Shantung	1,995							2,360						
Kiangsu	4,768							5,958						
Anhui	3,401							3,971						
Henan	6,396	4,516	3,401	3,347	3,237	2,946	2,918	8,392	5,916	3,766	5,015	4,135	2,778	2,021
Hubei	5,083	3,856	3,146	3,529	3,537	3,310	3,212	6,190	4,704	4,298	5,077	5,145	3,026	3,803
Szechwan	8,787	8,787	9,680	10,426	10,412	10,262	10,462	14,096	14,096	19,241	19,745	16,554	14,415	17,489
Yunnan	1,871	1,871	2,103	2,063	1,950	1,933	1,878	2,343	2,343	2,630	2,892	3,089	2,427	2,647
Kweichow	1,283	1,283	1,330	1,362	1,342	1,271	1,420	1,489	1,489	1,615	1,767	1,907	1,610	1,978
Hunan	2,069	2,069	1,907	1,878	1,895	2,000	2,183	1,614	1,614	1,519	1,799	1,859	1,861	2,064
Kiangsi	1,894	1,894	1,717	1,548	1,639	1,804	1,860	1,396	1,396	1,358	1,286	1,392	1,470	1,340
Chekiang	1,965	1,355	950	923	895	959	1,011	1,688	1,165	862	841	898	919	969
Fukien	603	603	799	758	709	700	740	489	489	602	658	614	519	625
Kwangtung	1,121	1,121	819	806	838	940	1,010	807	807	534	633	572	642	712
Kwangsi	1,941	1,941	1,749	2,057	2,365	2,687	3,011	2,313	2,313	2,084	2,531	2,943	3,305	3,375
TOTAL	53,826	33,815	31,831	33,018	33,154	33,198	33,986	63,805	41,295	43,694	47,172	43,064	37,548	42,217

* Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1938-1942.

TABLE 19. BROAD BEANS—ACREAGE AND PRODUCTION, 1938-1942
(Acreage in 1,000 *shih mow*, production in 1,000 piculs)

PROVINCE	ACREAGE						PRODUCTION							
	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average*	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average *	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942
Chahar	418							660						
Suiyuan	774							795						
Ningsia	13	13	18	23	24	23	24	20	20	27	35	36	41	40
Chinghai	425	425	409	448	437	423	436	756	756	580	874	667	745	763
Kansu	256	256	350	357	333	343	340	300	300	520	503	342	424	430
Shensi	137	137	193	203	225	250	278	137	137	280	185	187	179	273
Shansi	1,124							1,041						
Hopei	316							192	304					
Shantung	223							6,840						
Kiangsu	4,723													
Anhui	1,393							1,747						
Honan	365	119	122	136	138	171	169	1,451	147	193	195	128	144	180
Hupen	5,337	4,207	4,265	4,150	4,171	4,059	4,029	6,604	5,217	6,437	6,955	6,238	4,006	5,010
Szechwan	7,968	7,968	8,085	8,037	7,811	7,778	8,014	14,601	14,601	16,086	17,142	12,835	12,731	14,545
Yunnan	5,686	5,686	6,110	5,988	5,976	5,863	5,801	9,514	9,514	10,079	11,545	12,502	9,338	11,328
Kweichow	1,234	1,234	1,326	1,357	1,431	1,371	1,470	1,556	1,556	1,696	1,756	2,079	1,825	2,074
Hunan	3,713	3,713	3,833	3,802	3,570	3,640	3,779	5,398	5,398	5,460	6,468	5,721	5,559	6,070
Kiangsi	2,130	2,130	2,233	2,250	2,334	2,497	2,741	2,336	2,336	2,318	2,782	2,787	2,883	2,889
Chekiang	4,360	1,890	1,495	1,378	1,391	1,385	1,450	5,237	2,287	2,063	1,698	2,006	1,819	1,897
Fukien	152	152	185	207	211	221	209	214	214	222	301	272	263	253
Kwangtung														
Kwangsi	400	400	405	501	528	565	615	458	458	430	616	530	565	603
	919	919	919	968	988	1,044	1,138	1,179	1,179	1,203	1,304	1,385	1,384	1,262
TOTAL	42,071	29,249	30,048	29,805	29,568	29,633	30,493	60,360	44,120	47,644	52,359	47,715	41,906	47,617

* Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1938-1942.

TABLE 20.—RAPESEEDS—ACREAGE AND PRODUCTION, 1938-1942
(Acreage in 1,000 *shih mow*, production in 1,000 piculs)

PROVINCE	ACREAGE						PRODUCTION							
	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces Average*	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average*	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942
Chahar	622							335						
Suiyuan	1,244							707						
Ningsia	15	15	14	14	13	12	10	10	10	12	9	12	10	8
Chinghai	513	513	595	716	773	805	814	421	421	436	630	515	604	684
Kansu	812	812	1,015	1,078	1,266	1,241	1,316	510	510	839	765	826	774	948
Shensi	2,121	2,121	1,682	1,704	1,920	1,958	1,888	1,018	1,018	1,129	996	900	885	1,125
Shansi	1,814							1,081						
Hopei	1,264							658						
Shantung	534							496						
Kiangsu	3,789							3,379						
Anhui	3,829							3,273						
Honan	1,785	862	994	1,117	1,195	1,194	1,185	1,160	560	664	817	796	587	576
Hupeh	3,989	3,132	3,176	3,472	4,110	4,372	4,362	2,851	2,224	2,048	3,123	3,367	3,015	3,352
Szechwan	11,013	11,013	9,382	9,573	12,954	10,652	8,634	12,480	12,480	10,628	11,076	14,417	9,350	8,775
Yunnan	1,428	1,428	1,802	1,928	1,972	2,118	2,282	1,066	1,066	1,502	1,675	1,695	1,517	1,552
Kweichow	2,570	2,570	3,253	3,702	4,142	4,537	4,355	1,934	1,934	2,204	2,833	3,258	3,086	3,095
Hunan	6,088	6,088	6,384	6,868	7,670	8,788	8,970	4,891	4,891	4,104	6,746	6,988	8,544	7,993
Kiangsi	6,853	6,853	7,242	7,612	8,693	10,295	11,220	5,532	5,532	5,614	6,948	7,310	8,663	7,137
Chekiang	5,154	2,970	3,190	3,232	3,742	4,014	4,196	3,919	2,257	2,272	2,436	3,088	3,159	3,369
Fukien	661	661	1,243	1,280	1,561	1,766	1,895	441	441	970	978	1,093	1,052	1,218
Kwangtung	982	982	1,154	1,244	1,348	1,480	1,427	831	831	964	1,151	945	1,134	1,001
Kwangs	2,474	2,474	2,604	2,861	3,110	3,257	3,454	2,467	2,467	2,462	2,928	3,329	3,270	3,017
Total	59,554	42,494	43,740	46,401	54,469	56,489	56,008	49,460	36,642	35,846	43,111	48,539	45,630	44,140

* Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1938-1942.

TABLE 21.—OATS—ACREAGE AND PRODUCTION, 1938-1942
(Acreage in 1,000 *shih mow*, production in 1,000 piculs)

PROVINCE	ACREAGE						PRODUCTION							
	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average*	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average*	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942
Chahar	1,984							2,699						
Suiyuan	4,009							4,744						
Ningsia	14	14	22	23	23	23	23	17	17	24	30	25	31	23
Chinghai	575	575	575	623	569	589	598	695	695	619	845	634	723	741
Kansu	724	724	631	652	647	658	643	716	716	724	601	670	629	601
Shensi	55	55	76	82	87	96	94	34	34	55	60	88	52	77
Shansi	4,236							3,475						
Hopei	610							633						
Shantung	163							178						
Kiangsu	1,963							2,684						
Anhui	183							170						
Honan	44	6	95	102	93	96	98	51	7	68	84	68	70	80
Hupei	97	66	883	917	891	896	935	74	50	1,628	1,755	1,563	1,372	1,572
Szechwan	901	901						1,442	1,442					
Yunnan														
Kweichow														
Hunan														
Kiangsi														
Chekiang														
Fukien														
Kwangtung														
Kwangsi														
TOTAL	15,538	2,341	2,282	2,399	2,310	2,358	2,391	17,612	2,961	3,118	3,375	3,048	2,877	3,094

* Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1938-1942.

TABLE 22.—RICE—ACREAGE AND PRODUCTION, 1938-1941
(Acreage in 1,000 *shih mow*, production in 1,000 piculs)

PROVINCE	ACREAGE						PRODUCTION					
	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average*	1938	1939	1940	1941	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average*	1938	1939	1940	1941
Chahar	247											
Suiyuan	94	94	79	83	91	95	335	100	104	108	77	102
Ningsia												
Chinghai	54	54	50	66	72	69	91	91	127	152	141	156
Kansu												
Shensi	1,096	1,096	1,090	1,026	887	789	3,074	3,074	3,236	3,212	1,965	1,960
Shansi	93						67					
Hopei	1,161						2,272					
Shantung	184						173					
Kiangsu	22,684						84,189					
Anhui	14,870						43,132					
Honan	1,979	1,957	3,151	3,125	2,626	2,625	4,990	4,935	10,043	8,976	6,626	6,230
Hupei	23,095	14,966	13,293	13,092	11,536	10,953	70,125	45,441	40,281	44,162	28,593	21,822
Szechwan	37,279	37,279	33,785	33,692	29,517	29,160	142,594	142,594	155,862	151,088	89,022	89,865
Yunnan	10,177	10,177	10,057	9,745	9,912	9,819	32,216	32,216	35,385	28,584	34,461	31,645
Kweichow	7,446	7,446	7,433	7,415	7,408	6,601	21,567	21,567	24,422	22,549	23,382	15,495
Hunan	25,062	25,062	25,593	26,793	26,352	26,012	97,229	97,229	98,188	120,010	96,229	90,007
Kiangsi	19,698	19,698	23,011	22,918	22,469	23,156	65,277	65,277	81,294	76,894	58,341	80,302
Chekiang	23,385	14,195	14,463	14,321	13,733	14,283	78,107	47,411	45,915	50,284	35,145	46,132
Fukien	11,511	11,511	12,954	12,908	12,775	12,987	42,923	42,923	48,864	43,063	44,599	51,641
Kwangtung	45,766	45,766	40,590	40,548	40,359	40,767	156,747	156,747	139,580	143,768	138,324	146,053
Kwangsi	21,567	21,567	20,792	21,316	20,977	20,942	66,710	66,710	64,268	71,799	61,658	62,309
Total	267,448	210,868	206,341	207,048	198,714	198,258	911,918	726,315	747,569	763,649	618,863	643,519

* Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1938-1941.

TABLE 23.—GLUTINOUS RICE—ACREAGE AND PRODUCTION, 1938-1941
(Acreage in 1,000 *shih mow*, production in 1,000 piculs)

PROVINCE.	ACREAGE					PRODUCTION						
	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average*	1938	1939	1940	1941	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average*	1938	1939	1940	1941
Chahar	53	53	50	56	52	54	50	50	59	65	36	52
Suiyuan												
Ningsia												
Chinghai	37	37	19	24	25	22	54	54	39	52	38	33
Kansu												
Shensi	282	282	222	216	198	181	653	653	550	548	393	410
Shansi	44						43					
Hopei	493						970					
Shantung	154						217					
Kiangsu	4,324						14,262					
Anhui	1,955						4,287					
Honan	610	418	475	470	458	441	1,263	866	1,121	1,155	918	895
Hupei	2,671	1,784	1,549	1,360	1,132	1,042	6,832	4,564	3,725	4,138	2,439	1,579
Szechwan	3,251	3,251	3,004	2,872	2,464	2,214	11,204	11,204	12,557	12,032	7,002	6,545
Yunnan	901	901	960	933	915	847	2,765	2,765	3,300	2,727	3,079	2,689
Kweichow	1,502	1,502	1,338	1,310	1,242	1,016	3,959	3,959	3,984	3,588	3,556	2,247
Hunan	1,891	1,891	1,490	1,398	1,251	1,057	6,664	6,664	4,881	5,500	3,843	3,016
Kiangsi	2,656	2,656	2,515	2,338	2,344	2,086	8,326	8,326	8,126	6,606	6,363	6,613
Chekiang	3,301	2,136	1,940	1,822	1,651	1,496	11,670	7,550	6,404	6,863	4,252	4,644
Fukien	1,134	1,134	1,180	1,200	1,142	1,094	4,116	4,116	4,443	3,880	3,770	4,221
Kwangtung	2,186	2,186	1,473	1,477	1,322	1,220	6,896	6,896	4,752	4,628	3,976	4,058
Kwangsi	1,667	1,667	1,573	1,470	1,361	1,286	5,139	5,139	4,991	4,798	3,742	3,702
TOTAL	29,112	19,898	17,788	17,146	15,757	14,056	89,370	62,806	58,933	56,589	43,347	40,634

* Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1938-1941.

TABLE 24.—KAOLIANG (SORGHUM)—ACREAGE AND PRODUCTION, 1938-1941

(Acreage in 1,000 *shih mow*, production in 1,000 piculs).

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PROVINCE.	ACREAGE.						PRODUCTION.					
	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average*	1938	1939	1940	1941	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average*	1938	1939	1940	1941
Chahar	3,111						5,109					
Suiyuan	1,351	62	88	94	97	90	1,789	105	167	170	164	164
Ningsia	62						105					
Chinghai												
Kansu	1,397	1,397	1,382	1,367	1,404	1,474	2,148	2,148	2,583	2,079	2,011	2,333
Shensi	1,420	1,420	1,243	1,171	1,201	1,211	2,143	2,143	2,680	1,839	1,754	1,918
Shansi	6,975						9,469					
Hopei	13,050						20,061					
Shantung	17,958						38,639					
Kiangsu	5,462						10,841					
Anhui	4,387						7,631					
Honan	13,120	5,379	5,235	5,216	4,719	4,644	22,805	9,350	9,278	10,244	8,189	6,665
Hupei	2,311	1,932	1,853	1,749	1,730	1,736	4,339	3,669	3,432	4,219	3,554	3,130
Szechwan	4,463	4,463	4,574	4,487	4,920	4,962	11,971	11,971	12,900	12,899	12,904	12,772
Yunnan	500	500	393	359	338	308	830	830	628	570	597	528
Kweichow	348	348	303	279	279	291	732	732	744	610	659	600
Hunan	345	345	358	365	346	348	624	624	613	721	631	637
Kiangsi	75	75	128	107	99	98	108	108	216	178	128	172
Chekiang	187	107	101	110	105	106	230	131	124	142	113	137
Fukien	27	27	13	20	21	20	26	26	12	19	19	20
Kwangtung	82	82	80	78	80	78	96	96	86	100	103	101
Kwangsi	354	354	325	298	295	295	573	573	534	509	438	483
TOTAL	76,985	16,491	16,076	15,700	15,634	15,661	140,319	32,506	33,997	34,299	31,264	29,665

* Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1938-1941.

TABLE 25.—MILLET—ACREAGE AND PRODUCTION, 1938-1941

(Acreage in 1,000 *shih* *mo*, production in 1,000 piculs)

PROVINCE	ACREAGE					PRODUCTION						
	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average *	1938	1939	1940	1941	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average *	1938	1939	1940	1941
Chahar	3,081						4,101					
Suiyuan	1,706						1,782					
Ningsia	224	224	220	198	227	226	363	363	341	329	341	359
Chinghai	208	208	260	273	215	231	204	204	254	447	205	285
Kansu	2,751	2,751	2,326	2,126	1,967	1,947	4,070	4,070	3,667	2,949	2,510	2,317
Shensi	3,295	3,295	3,363	2,975	2,698	2,678	4,505	4,505	3,879	4,163	3,226	3,658
Shansi	11,654						15,407					
Hopei	18,043						30,635					
Shantung	16,347						36,835					
Kiangsu	1,399						2,814					
Anhui	345						429					
Honan	15,530	5,247	5,332	5,320	4,895	4,893	23,211	7,869	8,540	8,757	7,968	7,355
Hupei	2,007	1,700	1,812	1,599	1,711	1,657	2,825	2,393	2,242	2,900	2,914	2,903
Szechwan	862	862	832	754	709	701	1,523	1,523	1,846	1,538	1,191	1,192
Yunnan	383	383	224	225	235	230	597	597	334	330	381	371
Kweichow	229	229	226	223	227	238	415	415	476	418	447	433
Hunan	197	197	158	177	167	160	232	232	196	222	193	190
Kiangsi	748	748	377	377	377	385	1,088	1,088	597	619	480	671
Chekiang	368	314	262	234	234	235	481	481	378	270	252	290
Fukien	581	581	233	272	279	250	738	738	349	266	320	322
Kwangtung	256	256	231	273	274	262	317	317	327	357	346	335
Kwangsi	288	288	238	235	272	278	399	399	388	425	397	425
TOTAL	80,502	17,283	16,274	15,311	14,487	14,371	132,971	25,137	23,814	23,990	21,171	20,706

* Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1938-1941.

TABLE 26—PROSO MILLET—ACREAGE AND PRODUCTION, 1938-1941
(Acreage in 1,000 *shih mow*, production in 1,000 piculs)

PROVINCE	ACREAGE						PRODUCTION					
	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average*	1938	1939	1940	1941	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average*	1938	1939	1940	1941
Chahar	1,295						1,569					
Suiyuan	2,095						2,644					
Ningsia	463	463	436	486	496	475	774	774	625	824	739	845
Chinghai	209	209	210	228	170	182	290	290	234	501	213	310
Kansu	3,169	3,169	3,463	3,485	3,400	3,420	4,779	4,779	5,419	4,852	4,523	5,246
Shensi	2,333	2,333	2,084	2,095	1,994	1,975	2,886	2,886	1,832	2,411	2,140	2,750
Shansi	4,067						4,245					
Hopei	4,105						5,252					
Shantung	3,189						5,168					
Kiangsu	542						881					
Anhwei	118						109					
Honan	1,680	131	187	147	138	138	1,761	137	249	143	192	152
Hupeh	94	65	58	58	56	58	76	52	43	58	57	42
Szechwan	420	420	314	255	242	237	514	514	418	327	289	283
Yunnan	81	81	71	67	56	55	132	132	101	99	86	79
Kweichow	144	144	120	117	104	107	203	203	179	181	153	151
Hunan	45	45	32	32	32	31	40	40	25	32	25	29
Kiangsi	11	11	6	9	10	9	23	23	12	23	27	24
Chekiang	65	46	16	16	13	14	71	50	19	16	16	20
Fukien	19	19	26	27	24	25	21	21	27	31	28	25
Kwangtung	57	57	35	38	42	41	73	73	26	49	58	53
Kwangsi	71	71	77	67	66	68	95	95	60	98	85	100
Total	24,262	7,254	7,135	7,127	6,843	6,835	31,606	10,069	9,269	9,645	8,631	10,108

*Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1938-1941.

TABLE 27.—CORN (MAIZE) —ACREAGE AND PRODUCTION, 1938-1941
(Acreage in 1,000 *shih mow*, production in 1,000 piculs)

PROVINCE	ACREAGE					PRODUCTION						
	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average *	1938	1939	1940	1941	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average *	1938	1939	1940	1941
Chahar	310						458					
Suiyuan	110						124					
Ningxia	35	35	28	28	25	27	53	53	43	42	43	48
Chinghai	12	12	11	11	11	11	17	17	13	17	13	16
Kansu	1,335	1,335	1,646	1,672	1,584	1,632	2,569	2,569	3,039	2,587	2,530	2,949
Shensi	2,503	2,503	3,047	3,136	2,909	2,967	4,051	4,051	5,304	5,701	4,795	4,904
Shansi	4,003						5,641					
Hopei	14,271						23,632					
Shantung	8,757						16,071					
Kiangsu	5,957						12,959					
Anhui	1,238						2,164					
Honan	9,731	3,065	4,804	5,067	5,059	5,104	12,956	...	8,052	8,409	8,362	7,246
Hupei	1,409	1,323	2,011	2,077	2,391	2,436	2,256	2,118	3,672	4,411	4,833	3,888
Szechwan	10,213	10,213	10,628	10,444	10,894	11,424	27,623	27,623	31,258	30,504	25,792	25,739
Yunnan	4,894	4,894	4,156	4,099	4,169	4,291	7,027	7,027	5,199	5,343	6,270	6,244
Kweichow	2,210	2,210	2,661	2,638	2,670	2,911	5,200	5,200	6,277	6,301	6,301	7,038
Hunan	557	557	555	571	624	641	1,112	1,112	1,091	1,202	1,172	1,253
Kiangsi	81	81	101	114	127	145	123	123	141	171	211	250
Chekiang	944	733	916	925	1,181	1,202	1,602	1,243	1,760	1,539	1,952	2,038
Fukien	15	15	22	30	30	28	39	39	65	32	76	71
Kwangtung	195	195	256	266	254	287	332	332	395	456	485	500
Kwangsi	1,894	1,894	2,037	2,016	2,037	2,073	3,999	3,999	4,062	4,518	4,204	4,399
TOTAL	70,674	29,065	32,379	33,094	33,965	35,179	129,948	59,527	70,371	71,293	67,039	66,533

* Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1938-1941.

TABLE 28.—SOY BEANS—ACREAGE AND PRODUCTION, 1938-1941
(Acreage in 1,000 *shih mow*, production in 1,000 piculs)

PROVINCE	ACREAGE					PRODUCTION						
	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average.*	1938	1939	1940	1941	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average*	1938	1939	1940	1941
Chahar	726											
Suiyuan	381											
Ningsia	24	24	35	33	29	29	745	44	56	54	52	56
Chinghai	23	23	23	23	18	18	353			36	14	26
Kansu	570	570	590	613	577	593	44	762	778	647	628	749
Shensi	843		845	768	753	746	918	918	921	815	867	851
Shansi	1,727						1,796					
Hopei	4,924						6,242					
Shantung	19,415						31,477					
Kiangsu	13,124						22,600					
Anhui	5,994						8,089					
Hunan	11,462	5,628	4,880	4,988	4,945	4,598	14,874	7,205	7,083	6,665	6,576	5,324
Hopei	2,739	1,967	1,954	1,875	2,067	2,011	4,298	3,086	3,205	3,296	3,802	2,541
Szechwan	4,390	4,390	3,812	3,972	4,184	4,114	9,655	9,655	8,408	9,389	8,067	6,824
Yunnan	2,066	2,066	1,801	1,718	1,874	1,908	4,649	4,649	2,838	3,319	4,759	4,323
Kweichow	1,184	1,184	1,316	1,251	1,315	1,313	2,419	2,419	2,316	2,377	2,941	2,737
Hunan	968	968	1,129	1,145	1,210	1,208	1,685	1,685	1,671	2,231	1,994	1,917
Kiangsi	2,700	2,700	2,231	2,165	2,286	2,262	3,789	3,789	3,314	3,098	3,041	3,301
Chekiang	2,590	2,590	1,858	1,888	1,446	1,418	3,349	3,349	1,931	1,863	1,704	1,829
Fukien	784	784	733	768	819	818	1,291	1,291	1,144	1,052	1,286	1,324
Kwangtung	607	607	583	640	716	713	1,040	1,040	1,005	1,163	1,266	1,217
Kwangsi	1,295	1,295	1,178	1,121	1,089	1,119	1,980	1,980	1,800	1,641	1,579	1,695
TOTAL	78,536	23,818	22,368	22,468	23,328	22,868	121,855	39,518	36,470	37,646	38,576	34,714

* Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1938-1941.

TABLE 29.—SWEET POTATOES—ACREAGE AND PRODUCTION, 1938-1941
(Acreage in 1,000 *shih mow*, production in 1,000 piculs)

PROVINCE	ACREAGE					PRODUCTION						
	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average *	1938	1939	1940	1941	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average *	1938	1939	1940	1941
Chahar	34						77					
Suiyuan	5						4					
Ningsia					20						142	
Chinghai	146	146	176	182	184	184	1,183	1,183	1,399	1,273	1,236	1,214
Kansu												
Shensi	246	246	353	342	336	337	2,514	2,514	3,759	3,132	2,818	2,530
Shansi	271						3,046					
Hopei	2,557						30,558					
Shantung	3,410						45,332					
Kiangsu	2,650						38,870					
Anhui	1,235	2,094	2,678	2,798	3,051	3,261	8,116	22,227	35,203	27,871	38,819	31,611
Honan	4,308	950	1,272	1,202	1,263	1,184	45,735	7,996	12,447	10,544	12,201	8,276
Hupei	1,163	6,623	7,752	7,643	8,783	9,311	51,654	51,654	71,178	53,944	63,689	74,069
Szechwan	6,623	386	382	383	394	405	3,356	3,356	3,540	3,192	3,619	3,692
Yunnan	386											
Kweichow	272	272	323	306	359	406	2,058	2,058	3,106	2,939	3,494	3,778
Hunan	2,308	2,308	2,081	2,089	2,102	2,228	24,147	24,147	22,745	23,859	17,642	22,287
Kiangsi	1,378	1,378	1,431	1,461	1,452	1,499	13,310	13,310	17,937	16,152	12,910	16,291
Chekiang	1,395	1,123	1,101	1,191	1,263	1,370	16,170	13,017	13,787	13,954	12,872	14,923
Fukien	1,715	1,715	2,118	2,169	2,252	2,358	22,407	22,407	30,317	29,189	31,173	31,825
Kwangtung	3,511	3,511	3,688	4,083	4,277	4,618	39,453	39,453	42,851	45,927	43,819	50,750
Kwangsi	1,562	1,562	1,838	1,767	1,733	1,780	12,727	12,727	18,281	16,866	12,470	15,831
TOTAL	35,175	22,314	25,193	25,616	27,469	28,941	370,504	216,049	276,550	248,662	256,404	277,096

* Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1938-1941.

TABLE 30.—COTTON (LINT)—ACREAGE AND PRODUCTION, 1938-1941
(Acreage in 1,000 *shih mow*, production in 1,000 piculs)

PROVINCE	ACREAGE					PRODUCTION						
	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average *	1938	1939	1940	1941	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average *	1938	1939	1940	1941
Chahar												
Suiyuan												
Ningsia												
Chinghai												
Kansu	188	188	123	7 141	8 167	8 202	53	53	37	41	51	57
Shensi	4,005	4,005	3,895	3,187	3,671	3,590	856	856	997	862	670	945
Shansi	2,700						647					
Hopei	2,810						2,947					
Shantung	5,615						1,854					
Kiangsu	11,601						3,550					
Anhui	1,861						547					
Honan	7,197	2,030	2,006	1,967	2,415	2,435	1,759	496	296	470	708	557
Hupei	6,218	4,651	4,249	4,080	4,683	4,792	1,826	1,366	1,203	1,609	1,855	1,262
Szechwan	2,468	2,468	2,945	3,650	4,718	4,052	691	691	763	1,280	1,129	952
Yunnan	131	131	217	274	230	232	36	36	62	61	60	62
Kweichow	254	254	263	338	448	465	70	70	64	97	134	15
Hunan	1,402	1,402	1,253	1,374	1,637	1,686	404	404	409	498	526	507
Kiangsi	1,081	1,081	958	1,205	1,500	1,673	277	277	306	361	391	388
Chekiang	1,699	1,437	1,146	1,165	1,309	1,320	560	474	437	422	403	378
Fukien	37	37	54	69	71	66	9	9	13	16	15	16
Kwangtung	44	44	39	44	48	47	8	8	7	7	8	8
Kwangsi	441	441	454	554	609	648	91	91	94	108	127	132
TOTAL	56,752	18,169	17,602	18,055	21,514	21,216	16,185	4,831	4,688	5,833	6,078	5,881

* Adjusted to interior provinces, 1938-1941.

TABLE 31.—PEANUTS—ACREAGE AND PRODUCTION, 1938-1941
(Acreage in 1,000 *shih mow*, production in 1,000 piculs)

PROVINCE	ACREAGE						PRODUCTION					
	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average*	1938	1939	1940	1941	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average*	1938	1939	1940	1941
Chahar	41										1	1
Suiyuan	16										1	2
Ningsia												
Chinghai	1	1	1	2	2	2						
Kansu												
Shensi	132	132	131	157	162	166	241	241	247	276	277	325
Shansi	97						197					
Hopei	3,571						8,516					
Shantung	4,395						12,557					
Kiangsu	2,167						6,352					
Anhwel	1,132	467	581	594	683	661	2,295	1,055	1,333	1,513	1,837	1,455
Honan	2,384	618	633	577	586	620	1,979	1,480	1,830	1,858	1,738	1,345
Hupeh	326	2,416	2,180	2,173	2,349	2,280	5,525	5,525	6,229	5,664	5,716	5,193
Szechwan	2,416	129	134	133	139	131	239	239	279	252	281	251
Yunnan	129											
Kweichow	303	303	280	265	239	238	911	911	876	752	701	688
Hunan	519	519	443	474	502	481	1,094	1,094	882	1,104	1,039	1,045
Kiangsi	730	730	1,082	1,240	1,365	1,408	1,671	1,671	2,833	3,265	3,083	3,703
Chekiang	303	255	227	221	220	208	563	475	510	468	368	421
Fukien	661	661	529	506	531	541	1,375	1,375	1,117	1,073	1,173	1,271
Kwangtung	1,747	1,747	1,690	1,839	1,935	2,027	3,276	3,276	3,184	3,588	3,845	4,214
Kwangsi	1,269	1,269	1,269	1,282	1,349	1,434	2,613	2,613	2,580	2,606	2,739	2,834
TOTAL	22,839	9,247	9,160	9,463	10,062	10,197	54,788	19,956	21,901	22,420	22,799	22,848

* Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1938-1941.

TABLE 32.—SESAME—ACREAGE AND PRODUCTION, 1938-1941
(Acreage in 1,000 *shih mow*, production in 1,000 piculs)

PROVINCE	ACREAGE					PRODUCTION						
	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average*	1938	1939	1940	1941	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average*	1938	1939	1940	1941
Chahar	4						9	2	1	2	1	2
Suiyuan	41	4		3			2					
Ningsia	4											
Chinghai												
Kansu	10	10	14	13	12	12	7	7	12	8	6	7
Shensi	574	574	505	548	654	655	337	337	223	361	392	434
Shansi	629						425					
Hopei	2,737						2,060					
Shantung	2,039						1,978					
Kiangsu	2,046						1,750					
Anhui	2,052						1,557					
Honan	5,846	3,572	3,573	3,949	4,201	3,991	4,660	2,847	1,760	3,422	3,455	3,144
Hupeh	2,057	1,497	1,378	1,521	1,615	1,598	1,739	1,266	822	1,368	1,514	1,011
Szechwan	1,187	1,187	1,536	1,567	1,805	1,741	871	871	1,120	1,280	1,455	1,303
Yunnan	42	42	30	31	30	31	38	38	29	27	28	31
Kweichow	160	160	172	172	157	150	121	121	126	112	111	105
Hunan	317	317	241	232	247	234	177	177	132	146	144	132
Kiangsi	1,318	1,318	1,019	1,110	1,166	1,155	817	817	831	835	710	764
Chekiang	233	163	119	154	156	156	131	91	67	80	76	80
Fukien	55	55	64	71	69	66	25	25	32	33	34	31
Kwangtung	82	82	80	77	74	68	57	57	54	62	53	47
Kwangsi	313	313	323	323	316	323	255	255	242	272	242	260
TOTAL	21,746	9,294	9,057	9,771	10,505	10,183	17,016	6,911	5,451	8,008	8,221	7,351

* Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1938-1941.

TABLE 33—TOBACCO—ACREAGE AND PRODUCTION, 1938-1941

(Acreage in 1,000 *shih mow*, production in 1,000 piculs)

PROVINCE	ACREAGE					PRODUCTION						
	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average*	1938	1939	1940	1941	22 Provinces 1931-1937 Average	15 Interior Provinces 1931-1937 Average*	1938	1939	1940	1941
Chahar	20						22					
Suiyuan	76						105					
Ningsia	13	13	8	8	12	14	21	21	15	19	27	34
Chinghai	341	341	301	317	373	318	444	444	409	393	534	380
Kansu												
Shensi	351	351	393	393	394	343	386	386	515	521	418	410
Shansi	380						442					
Hopei	381						477					
Shantung	782						1,579					
Kiangsu	91						146					
Anhui	321	747	947	916	1,010	880	432	1,147	1,107	1,353	1,720	1,136
Honan	892	282	324	290	270	262	1,369	435	431	540	491	367
Hupeh	314	1,912	1,403	1,484	1,692	1,560	3,164	3,164	2,546	2,905	2,834	2,347
Szechwan	1,912	277	314	341	355	364	352	352	398	411	482	448
Yunnan	277											
Kweichow	540	540	555	572	573	551	1,081	1,081	1,204	1,085	1,242	1,019
Hunan	683	683	656	709	792	730	737	737	611	860	837	775
Kiangsi	212	212	312	326	342	298	277	277	374	435	428	408
Chekiang	243	86	98	124	126	105	377	134	170	205	195	169
Fukien	147	147	171	171	149	140	266	266	322	279	264	252
Kwangtung	194	194	234	202	175	180	410	410	474	458	415	381
Kwangsi	389	389	341	334	363	379	423	423	358	377	392	420
TOTAL	8,559	6,174	6,057	6,187	6,626	6,124	12,994	9,277	8,934	9,811	10,289	8,516

* Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1938-1941.

II. Livestock Production. Statistics concerning livestock production in wartime China are available up to 1941 only. The following 11 tables show the number and value of five kinds of labor animals and six kinds of productive animals from 1937 to 1941.

TABLE 34—WATER BUFFALOES—NUMBER AND VALUE, 1937-1941

(Number in 1,000 heads, value in 1,000 dollars)

PROVINCE	NUMBER						VALUE					
	1937 22 Pro- vinces	1937 15 Pro- vinces*	1938	1939	1940	1941	1937 22 Pro- vinces	1937 15 Pro- vinces*	1938	1939	1940	1941
Chahar	1	1	3	9	1	1	69	69	143	531	114	238
Suiyuan					25	10					6,102	2,971
Ningsia												
Chinghai												
Kansu												
Shensi	7	7	18	5	5	8	310	310	904	287	641	4,670
Shansi	3						135					
Hopei	16						632					
Shantung	11						781					
Kiangsu	906						56,821					
Anhui	792						38,497					
Honan	192				28	29	7,356	3,582	2,233	1,079	3,713	8,202
Hupeh	924				447	501	39,672	21,907	20,153	19,076	59,148	157,619
Szechwan	1,990				1,815	1,836	79,845	79,845	79,243	79,787	479,891	1,587,604
Yunnan	542				504	534	22,134	22,134	20,527	44,826	119,557	269,890
Kweichow	601				465	477	17,448	17,448	17,765	22,848	65,707	214,302
Hunan	1,482				1,131	989	74,036	74,036	55,888	58,443	142,992	302,250
Kiangsi	827				731	764	35,168	35,168	33,496	35,248	92,234	215,505
Chekiang	314				254	185	18,500	11,522	11,522	17,370	39,512	114,455
Fukien	276				201	265	12,876	12,876	9,910	13,456	37,068	126,935
Kwangtung	1,299				1,544	1,339	70,169	70,169	66,730	119,651	353,503	690,661
Kwangsi	1,383				1,019	1,141	64,600	64,600	59,531	88,656	203,550	479,843
Total	1,1574	9,218	8,538	9,337	8,170	8,079	539,049	413,666	380,475	516,258	1,603,732	4,175,145

* Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1937-1941.

TABLE 35—OXEN—NUMBER AND VALUE, 1937-1941

(Number in 1,000 heads, value in 1,000 dollars)

PROVINCE	NUMBER						VALUE					
	1937 22 Pro- vinces	1937 15 Pro- vinces*	1938	1939	1940	1941	1937 22 Pro- vinces	1937 15 Pro- vinces*	1938	1939	1940	1941
Chahar	59						2,465					
Suiyuan	301						11,668					
Ningsia	39	39	27	34	17	14	1,885	1,885	1,558	2,016	1,814	3,539
Chinghai	89	89	59	41	38	41	2,027	2,027	1,494	1,301	2,272	4,608
Kansu	802	802	653	514	519	707	31,717	31,717	27,465	24,463	48,611	184,358
Shensi	914	914	1,079	875	857	897	38,321	38,321	46,244	51,859	130,717	356,085
Shansi	513						20,055					
Hopei	1,167						66,578					
Shantung	2,580						156,913					
Kiangsu	1,267						63,447					
Anhui	1,037						41,623					
Honan	3,130	1,521	1,837	1,752	1,754	1,568	123,432	59,771	67,609	75,654	227,352	456,156
Hubei	1,875	1,037	967	1,077	782	932	53,943	29,857	28,820	29,665	74,186	176,056
Szechwan	824	824	845	899	903	888	21,046	21,046	22,137	31,230	149,946	552,408
Yunnan	485	485	484	875	570	551	11,041	11,041	10,652	38,818	78,722	164,858
Kweichow	568	568	680	567	608	547	12,167	12,167	15,475	17,610	60,094	147,180
Hunan	1,369	1,369	1,459	1,539	1,442	1,319	47,133	47,133	47,421	53,778	137,082	303,129
Kiangsi	1,745	1,745	1,739	1,607	1,551	1,401	47,242	47,242	46,532	44,463	139,058	327,736
Chekiang	890	802	675	678	706	672	36,286	32,715	26,211	29,363	88,921	298,739
Fukien	354	354	329	328	324	333	11,331	11,331	11,865	14,572	49,744	130,493
Kwangtung	1,579	1,579	1,461	1,393	1,375	1,443	55,702	55,702	55,918	62,496	222,661	526,831
Kwangsi	1,485	1,485	1,433	1,557	1,483	1,414	46,184	46,184	46,287	62,450	206,958	414,148
TOTAL	23,081	13,613	13,717	13,736	12,929	12,727	902,806	448,739	455,688	539,738	1,618,133	4,046,324

* Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1937-1941.

TABLE 36.—HORSES—NUMBER AND VALUE, 1937-1941
(Number in 1,000 heads, value in 1,000 dollars)

PROVINCE	NUMBER						VALUE					
	1937 22 Pro- vinces	1937 15 Pro- vinces*	1938	1939	1940	1941	1937 22 Pro- vinces	1937 15 Pro- vinces*	1938	1939	1940	1941
Chahar	45						2,197					
Suiyuan	151						7,530					
Ningsia	17	17	9	8	7	7	936	936	600	487	1,017	3,387
Chinghai	50	50	29	23	28	35	2,845	2,845	1,680	1,748	4,582	14,549
Kansu	151	151	152	151	152	120	9,496	9,496	10,626	12,544	37,174	77,720
Shensi	128	128	78	85	99	83	7,891	7,891	5,553	7,116	24,006	49,242
Shansi	118						5,921					
Hopei	317						19,602					
Shantung	325						21,372					
Kiangsu	109						5,960					
Anhui	203						9,361					
Honan	487	236	146	154	195	129	26,756	12,970	7,176	9,223	32,887	56,751
Hupeh	245	136	156	200	186	171	9,348	5,199	6,282	8,739	20,195	44,364
Szechwan	89	89	113	119	131	114	3,502	3,502	4,447	6,248	34,094	91,313
Yunnan	342	342	427	346	316	365	13,536	13,536	15,196	23,405	68,904	170,342
Kweichow	188	188	165	155	147	154	6,635	6,635	6,410	9,758	28,223	87,209
Hunan	37	37	42	51	46	38	1,525	1,525	1,686	2,406	4,467	9,264
Kiangsi	53	53	31	21	29	32	2,151	2,151	1,151	983	3,862	10,875
Chekiang	3	2	4	12	5	3	167	129	218	607	557	1,091
Fukien	6	6	2	33	18	11	331	331	110	2,146	3,215	5,807
Kwangtung	45	45	30	46	63	37	1,549	1,549	979	1,759	7,573	10,721
Kwangsi	151	151	124	156	90	111	4,695	4,695	4,413	6,644	12,454	36,226
TOTAL	3,260	1,631	1,508	1,560	1,513	1,410	163,309	73,890	66,568	93,813	282,710	668,861

* Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1937-1941.

TABLE 37—MULES—NUMBER AND VALUE, 1937-1941

(Number in 1,000 heads, value in 1,000 dollars)

PROVINCE	NUMBER						VALUE					
	1937 22 Pro- vinces	1937 15 Pro- vinces*	1938	1939	1940	1941	1937 22 Pro- vinces	1937 15 Pro- vinces*	1938	1939	1940	1941
Chahar	46						3,675					
Suiyuan	41						3,221					
Ningsia	8	8	5	7	6	5	710	710	435	638	1,359	3,656
Chinghai	26	26	25	22	16	23	1,888	1,888	2,145	2,230	4,139	15,411
Kansu	160	160	164	142	198	119	13,544	13,544	14,383	16,149	73,264	111,403
Shensi	131	131	85	126	129	138	10,734	10,734	7,456	14,718	44,491	136,711
Shansi	263						21,997					
Hopei	763						78,453					
Shantung	744						67,422					
Kiangsu	99						5,876					
Anhui	178						8,967					
Honan	676	327	175	180	167	138	49,217	23,823	11,235	15,126	43,039	94,425
Hupei	153	84	55	132	93	101	8,136	4,458	2,839	8,542	16,804	37,969
Szechwan	67	42	47	42	76	55	3,220	3,220	2,733	2,849	24,704	64,476
Yunnan	202	202	247	295	183	198	12,049	12,049	14,367	31,556	62,889	149,314
Kweichow												
Hunan	28	28	27	16	15	19	1,607	1,607	1,509	1,462	4,120	15,874
Hubei	12	12	20	18	16	9	651	651	1,077	1,086	1,745	3,062
Kiangsi	14	14	10	7	76	10	616	616	396	434	13,607	5,205
Chekiang	5	1	2	2	2	6	242	37	116	201	1,647	
Fukien	2	2	3	11	3	6	105	105	134	866	966	4,430
Kwangtung												
Kwangsi	4	4	2	4	3	3	141	141	84	159	563	1,131
	2	2	5	11	5	5	103	103	222	756	889	2,249
TOTAL	3,624	1,068	870	1,015	988	835	2,91,874	73,691	59,015	96,687	292,580	636,653

* Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1937-1941.

TABLE 38—DONKEYS—NUMBER AND VALUE, 1937-1941

(Number in 1,000 heads, value in 1,000 dollars)

PROVINCE	NUMBER						VALUE					
	1937 22 Pro- vinces	1937 15 Pro- vinces*	1938	1939	1940	1941	1937 22 Pro- vinces	1937 15 Pro- vinces*	1938	1939	1940	1941
Chahar	104											
Suiyuan	112						2,859					
Ningsia	44	44	32	43	48	35	2,407	1,233	1,058	1,641	4,217	8,779
Chinghai	79	79	66	53	34	45	1,714	1,714	1,923	1,847	2,651	7,938
Kansu	681	681	557	478	599	629	22,391	22,391	22,198	22,226	73,233	193,999
Shensi	359	359	229	294	246	254	12,882	12,882	8,621	15,539	31,304	91,060
Shansi	562						18,807					
Hopei	1,194						46,330					
Shantung	2,026						77,502					
Kiangsu	712						20,022					
Anhui	653						14,847					
Honan	1,900	920	965	1,028	830	764	52,683	25,495	24,454	30,335	75,497	161,644
Hupeh	428	236	191	269	280	225	8,929	4,922	3,868	5,650	10,672	28,784
Szechwan	31	31	31	26	22	38	759	759	782	764	3,121	19,981
Yunnan	88	88	82	111	87	82	1,646	1,646	1,377	3,232	6,886	23,886
Kweichow	6	6	3	3	2	1	210	210	108	99	321	404
Hunan	10	10	16	13	15	7	312	312	602	433	1,194	1,617
Kiangsi	12	12	13	7	44	8	877	377	390	269	4,571	2,115
Chetiang	4	1	3	51	3	2	189	52	2,001	277	459	2,444
Fukien	6	6	2	13	4	7	248	248	97	551	462	
Kwangtung	2	2	5	3	2	3	59	59	176	118	161	909
Kwangsi	5	5		11	3	3	196	196		486	328	963
TOTAL	9,018	2,480	2,192	2,403	2,199	2,103	286,602	72,496	65,654	85,190	214,985	544,832

* Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1937-1941.

TABLE 39.—GOATS—NUMBER AND VALUE, 1937-1941
(Number in 1,000 heads, value in 1,000 dollars)

PROVINCE	NUMBER						VALUE					
	1937 22 Pro- vinces	1937 15 Pro- vinces*	1938	1939	1940	1941	1937 22 Pro- vinces	1937 15 Pro- vinces*	1938	1939	1940	1941
Chahar	169						700					
Suiyuan	539						1,925					
Ningsia	225	225	245	211	131	123	868	868	885	870	1,095	2,602
Chinghai	150	150	180	188	163	171	337	337	550	846	1,267	2,857
Kansu	1,046	1,046	1,452	1,237	1,259	1,513	3,957	3,957	4,039	3,742	9,043	26,297
Shensi	657	657	566	605	562	495	1,916	1,916	2,086	3,013	7,447	12,381
Shansi	1,660						4,790					
Hopei	1,052						4,397					
Shantung	969						4,044					
Kiangsu	1,235						3,865					
Anhui	407						1,250					
Honan	1,529	741	963	732	725	627	5,661	2,667	2,934	2,168	8,304	14,491
Hupen	986	546	394	290	621	471	3,648	2,020	1,497	1,179	7,351	12,520
Szechwan	1,432	1,432	1,939	1,337	1,658	1,644	4,701	4,701	5,948	4,798	20,026	53,364
Yunnan	611	611	643	501	404	474	2,394	2,394	1,942	2,988	7,660	18,183
Kweichow	245	245	177	145	151	151	943	943	666	707	1,802	4,888
Hunan	387	387	348	330	445	408	1,935	1,935	1,651	2,155	4,851	8,253
Kiangsi	157	157	163	143	222	139	776	776	745	815	2,535	4,157
Chekiang	739	375	213	268	205	266	2,557	1,313	679	1,093	2,054	5,521
Fukien	286	286	179	157	181	236	1,573	1,573	1,010	929	3,369	9,645
Kwangtung	439	439	437	694	633	357	2,614	2,614	2,641	6,045	13,341	17,838
Kwangsi	174	174	156	262	77	96	783	783	717	1,730	891	2,896
TOTAL	15,744	8,121	8,065	7,100	7,437	7,171	55,534	28,797	27,990	33,078	91,036	195,893

* Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1937-1941.

TABLE 40.—SHEEP—NUMBER AND VALUE, 1937-1941

(Number in 1,000 heads, value in 1,000 dollars)

PROVINCE	NUMBER						VALUE					
	1937 22 Pro- vinces	1937 15 Pro- vinces*	1938	1939	1940	1941	1937 22 Pro- vinces	1937 15 Pro- vinces*	1938	1939	1940	1941
Chahar	444											
Suiyuan	1,411											
Ningsia	739	739	636	412	223	183	2,730	4,132	4,062	2,793	2,599	5,683
Chinghai	359	359	295	282	305	363	6,836	1,256	1,184	1,580	3,662	9,298
Kansu	2,625	2,625	2,420	2,857	3,095	2,635	9,464	9,464	10,066	14,746	37,613	73,772
Shensi	375	375	375	547	316	297	1,594	1,594	2,588	3,548	4,803	7,680
Shansi	2,138						10,053					
Hopei	789						5,402					
Shantung	1,089						7,450					
Kiangsu	329						1,527					
Anhui	135						703					
Honan	889	431	505	292	481	309	5,064	2,455	2,481	1,430	7,736	10,594
Hupeh	59	33	9	23	9		301	168	61	154	185	
Szechwan	110	110	100	58	172	113	497	497	445	281	2,926	6,110
Yunnan	184	184	184	172	177	228	706	706	685	1,018	3,312	8,126
Kweichow	32	32	69	22	27	38	152	152	296	155	512	1,464
Hunan	9	9	17	9	3	6	74	74	205	86	34	119
Kiangsi	3	3	4	5	5	5	19	19	24	100	100	174
Chekiang	613	129	14	16	14	18	5,570	1,174	109	131	167	417
Fukien	8	8	4	2	1	6	91	91	31	16	13	345
Kwangtung												
Kwangsi	11	11		14	1	2	78	78		137	5	170
				5	5	7			45		54	162
TOTAL	12,411	5,048	4,882	4,711	4,834	4,210	63,699	21,860	22,237	26,120	63,721	124,114

* Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1937-1941.

TABLE 41—HOGS—NUMBER AND VALUE, 1937-1941

(Number in 1,000 heads, value in 1,000 dollars)

PROVINCE	NUMBER					VALUE						
	1937 22 Pro- vinces	1937 15 Pro- vinces*	1938	1939	1940	1941	1937 22 Pro- vinces	1937 15 Pro- vinces*	1938	1939	1940	1941
Chahar	129						1,386					
Suiyuan	282						3,194					
Ningsia	52	52	36	52	43	44	3,057		925	1,296	1,414	3,793
Chinghai	74	74	70	63	70	77	773		1,251	1,095	2,525	5,781
Kansu	984	984	835	717	833	875	14,917	14,917	12,614	15,930	42,602	80,129
Shensi	967	967	1,126	853	794	1,000	12,235	12,235	16,765	20,964	48,273	109,886
Shansi	528						6,059					
Hopei	3,742						45,897					
Shantung	3,506						49,438					
Kiangsu	5,018						83,984					
Anhui	2,802						51,633					
Honan	3,187	1,546	1,674	1,662	1,858	1,782	38,935	15,855	19,924	22,517	67,586	122,400
Hupeh	3,931	2,175	2,364	2,480	2,697	2,394	72,031	39,797	46,098	64,237	159,835	259,029
Szechwan	8,177	8,177	8,431	8,312	9,106	8,540	149,996	149,996	153,758	213,302	699,294	2,247,278
Yunnan	2,761	2,761	2,918	2,456	2,144	2,162	46,241	46,241	45,004	81,752	273,930	465,441
Kweichow	1,422	1,422	1,642	1,744	1,437	1,560	27,972	27,972	32,184	50,926	115,087	256,540
Hunan	5,030	5,030	5,463	4,842	4,949	4,822	126,523	126,523	112,855	114,744	288,705	495,176
Kiangsi	3,800	3,800	3,960	3,950	4,039	3,714	76,879	76,879	76,522	86,318	268,899	475,679
Chekiang	2,718	2,177	1,954	2,100	1,926	1,792	52,137	41,792	34,936	48,227	127,923	247,557
Fukien	1,757	1,757	1,659	1,649	1,564	1,519	39,571	39,571	38,367	43,313	143,747	300,089
Kwangtung	5187	5,187	3,719	4,031	4,216	4,254	121,172	121,172	90,481	144,707	469,839	875,604
Kwangsi	3,650	3,650	3,795	3,533	3,044	3,205	87,974	87,974	87,286	107,399	278,642	540,607
TOTAL	59,704	39,759	39,646	38,444	38,720	37,740	1,109,954	802,704	763,970	1,017,287	2,988,301	6,434,939

* Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1937-1941.

TABLE 42—CHICKENS—NUMBER AND VALUE, 1937-1941

(Number in 1,000 heads, value in 1,000 dollars)

PROVINCE	NUMBER						VALUE					
	1937 22 Pro- vinces	1937 15 Pro- vinces*	1938	1939	1940	1941	1937 22 Pro- vinces	1937 15 Pro- vinces*	1938	1939	1940	1941
Chahar	793						248					
Suiyuan	1,040						310					
Ningsia	186	186					116					
Chinghai	312	312	263	257	192	201	79	116	157	182	231	621
Kansu	3,212	3,212	274	224	295	262	1,414	79	95	123	355	668
			3,054	2,688	3,138	2,789	1,414	1,414	1,301	1,614	3,774	7,276
Shensi	2,747	2,747	3,745	2,382	2,609	2,985	941	941	1,394	1,442	3,597	8,466
Shansi	3,874						945					
Hopei	13,480						4,880					
Shantung	21,355						8,070					
Kiangsu	18,394						11,602					
Anhui	15,832						8,403					
Honan	18,370						5,529					
Hupeh	21,458	8,904	9,565	10,310	9,344	8,353	8,561	2,671	3,116	3,706	8,662	17,554
Szechwan	15,858	11,868	12,773	9,568	8,056	7,748	8,771	4,747	5,492	6,300	14,836	26,556
Yunnan	5,882	5,882	15,627	15,683	17,450	15,757	8,771	8,771	9,674	13,348	44,024	124,721
			6,224	5,685	4,509	4,697	3,237	3,237	3,096	7,394	19,753	33,019
Kweichow	3,748						1,871					
Hunan	16,310	3,748	4,291	4,763	4,320	4,304	10,407	1,871	2,009	3,841	9,358	15,850
Kiangsi	17,526	16,310	20,342	19,877	19,558	17,996	9,669	10,407	12,172	14,304	34,389	52,591
Chekiang	16,444	17,526	18,808	19,823	16,859	15,241	11,392	9,669	10,401	15,107	31,861	52,539
Fukien	6,002	11,105	9,824	10,353	9,851	8,401	4,981	4,981	6,421	8,203	17,580	31,920
		6,002	6,873	6,826	5,265	6,074			5,881	6,520	14,851	44,276
Kwangtung	22,059	22,059	18,648	20,528	21,105	18,949	17,820	17,820	15,028	23,550	75,762	117,322
Kwangsi	16,968	16,968	14,638	13,808	12,698	13,184	12,047	12,047	10,832	14,084	32,196	55,600
TOTAL	241,850	142,687	144,949	142,775	135,244	126,941	130,793	86,433	87,069	119,718	311,229	588,979

* Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1937-1941.

TABLE 43.—DUCKS—NUMBER AND VALUE, 1937-1941
(Number in 1,000 heads, value in 1,000 dollars)

PROVINCE	NUMBER						VALUE					
	1937 22 Pro- vinces	1937 15 Pro- vinces*	1938	1939	1940	1941	1937 22 Pro- vinces	1937 15 Pro- vinces*	1938	1939	1940	1941
Chahar	24						14					
Suiyuan	2						2					
Ningsia	6	6		12	7	7	5	5	6	13	12	35
Chinghai	3	3		5	3	3	2	2	1	4	6	16
Kansu	229	229	218	184	422	182	139	139	158	158	795	887
Shensi	99	99										
Shansi	45						54	54	137	101	339	851
Hopei	480						289	289				
Shantung	2,298						1,071	1,071				
Kiangsu	6,190						4,649	4,649				
Anhui	3,574						2,138	2,138				
Honan	2,283	1,098	1,161	1,056	991	902	796	384	414	464	1,052	2,250
Hupeh	2,481	1,371	1,512	1,945	1,551	1,371	949	521	696	1,261	2,612	5,450
Szechwan	5,304	5,304	5,059	5,231	6,092	4,830	2,094	2,094	2,442	3,083	10,981	29,610
Yunnan	844	844	1,116	679	696	685	411	411	473	784	2,817	4,385
Kweichow	874	874										
Hunan	6,568	874	883	1,206	963	949	313	313	300	782	1,704	3,001
Kiangsi	4,685	6,568	6,669	7,004	6,202	6,482	3,105	3,105	2,887	3,748	8,466	14,173
Chekiang	3,344	4,685	5,045	7,400	6,282	5,895	2,223	2,223	2,512	4,581	10,510	19,514
Fukien	2,321	2,321	2,242	1,117	1,465	1,364	2,244	1,695	1,201	1,980	2,488	5,039
			2,354	3,588	2,585	2,667	1,573	1,573	1,630	2,646	6,059	16,240
Kwangtung	7,424	7,424	6,219	5,110	5,912	5,806	4,252	4,252	3,686	4,295	16,221	29,179
Kwangsi	6,338	6,338	5,303	6,236	5,707	5,085	3,106	3,106	2,863	4,927	11,284	17,119
TOTAL	55,396	39,693	37,976	40,914	39,047	36,405	29,458	19,877	19,406	27,727	75,346	147,449

* Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1937-1941.

TABLE 44.—GEESE—NUMBER AND VALUE, 1937-1941
(Number in 1,000 heads, value in 1,000 dollars)

PROVINCE	NUMBER						VALUE				
	1937 22 Pro- vinces	1937 15 Pro- vinces*	1938	1939	1940	1941	1937 22 Pro- vinces	1938	1939	1940	1941
Chahar	5						4				
Suiyuan	1						2				
Ningsia	2	2	2	6	1	2	3	3	11	3	15
Chinghai	2	2	1	2	2		3	1	2		18
Kansu	53	53	74	65	71	40	56	84	98	207	341
Shensi	7	7	21	9	33	17	11	28	14	126	186
Shansi							5				
Hopei	50						57				
Shantung	355						317				
Kiangsu	709						667				
Anhui	1,447						1,293				
Honan	262	128	76	151	85	65	201	99	137	183	289
Hupeh	309	172	108	110	54	76	296	165	158	172	683
Szechwan	757	513	656	513	702	524	585	580	616	2,445	5,841
Yunnan	163	163	128	59	53	56	215	129	125	343	693
Kweichow	112	112	120	140	124	80	111	122	188	474	564
Hunan	396	396	365	323	406	487	455	444	411	1,153	2,401
Kiangsi	1,028	1,028	798	1,110	1,152	917	997	784	1,288	3,624	5,349
Chekiang	879	784	611	322	493	337	1,018	644	449	1,608	2,455
Fukien	369	369	322	257	350	316	470	370	388	1,335	3,470
Kwangtung	2,203	2,203	1,518	1,309	1,805	2,008	2,751	2,093	2,253	8,840	19,386
Kwangsi	402	402	271	391	390	320	418	296	626	1,424	2,015
TOTAL	9,516	6,528	5,066	4,767	5,721	5,247	9,864	5,736	6,764	21,944	43,706

* Adjusted to interior provinces as in 1937-1941.

AGRICULTURAL POLICY AND ADMINISTRATION

China's wartime agricultural policy is summarized in Article 18 of the *Program of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction*, adopted by the Kuomintang's Extraordinary National Congress on April 1, 1938. It reads:

"The greatest measure of energy shall be devoted to the development of rural economy, the encouragement of cooperative enterprises, the regulation of foodstuffs with regard to their demand and supply, the cultivation of wasteland and the improvement of irrigation installations."

Based on this principle, the Chinese Government has been paying special attention to: (1) the increase of agricultural production, (2) the improvement of the farmers' livelihood, (3) the development of irrigation, (4) the revitalization of rural economy, and (5) land reform.

The highest administrative organ for agriculture and forestry in China is the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry created on July 1, 1940. It has five departments: general affairs, agricultural administration, rural economy, forestry, and fisheries, and animal husbandry. Affiliated is a Land Reclamation Bureau. The department of agricultural administration makes experiments in crop improvement, promotes rural industries, effects land readjustment, enforces insect control, investigates and improves soil and fertilizers, introduces improved seeds and farming implements, directs the work of agricultural organizations and academic institutions, and administers matters pertaining to farming. The activities of the department of rural economy embraces land tenancy reforms, distribution of rural loans, supervision of rural cooperatives, experiments in collective farming, surveys and research in rural economy, and other rural welfare undertakings. The forestry department surveys areas for afforestation, divides forest lands into districts to secure effective control, establishes tourist forest centers, public parks and gardens, gives protection to public and private forests, directs the work of civic and academic forestry organizations, and drafts laws on hunting and policing. The department of fisheries and animal husbandry is in charge of the promotion of veterinary science, improvement of livestock, protection of animals, fowls

and water products, supervision of fishing and animal husbandry organizations.

The Land Reclamation Bureau of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry is in charge of: (1) administration and supervision of public and private reclamation enterprises, (2) investigation and registration of wasteland and cultivable land, (3) readjustment of reclamation districts and work, (4) training and registration of personnel for reclamation, (5) agricultural improvement, irrigation, communications, education, health, public safety, and other administrative measures to be adopted in the reclamation districts, and (6) planning of reclamation work throughout the country.

The work of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry may be classified into five main categories, namely: Agricultural reconstruction, rural rehabilitation, forestry, fisheries and animal husbandry, and reclamation.

The following review is confined to agricultural reconstruction, forestry, fisheries and animal husbandry, and reclamation. Rural economy is to be discussed under a separate heading.

1. *Agricultural Reconstruction.*—Agricultural reconstruction covers five main items, namely: The increase of food production, the increase of the production of cotton and other industrial raw materials, the development of irrigation, the promotion of agricultural extension work, and the opening of national model farms.

Responsible for the increase of food production throughout China is the Food Production Increase Commission of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, with the assistance of the National Agricultural Research Bureau and the National Animal Husbandry Research Bureau. Provincial reconstruction commissioners are appointed superintendents for the execution of food production increase measures in their respective provinces, with two deputies. One of the deputies is the head of the provincial agricultural improvement organ, and the other is appointed by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry to take charge of the technical side of the matter and to represent the Ministry in his province. *Hsien* magistrates are responsible for the work in their respective districts with reconstruction department chiefs and agricultural promotion institute directors as assistants. Students and teachers of agricultural and animal

husbandry schools are requested to participate in the movement by rendering technical help.

Taking *hsien* as the basic unit in the process, the chief aim is to achieve self-sufficiency in food in every district. The principles for increasing food production, as outlined by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, are:

- (1) Special attention should be given to districts producing insufficient foodstuffs for their own consumption;
- (2) *Hsien* self-sufficiency in food production should be attained;
- (3) Places close to the front are not to be included in the food production increase program to avoid any possibility of the harvest falling into enemy hands;
- (4) Districts near communications and transportation centers should produce more foodstuffs to meet the demand of large urban populations.

Two methods are used to increase food production: Increase of the acreage of cultivated land and increase of production of individual farm units. The following items are included in the two methods:

1. The increase of rice production

- (a) Turning glutinous rice fields into ordinary rice planting,
- (b) Promotion of improved rice seeds,
- (c) Promotion of rice crops that can be planted twice a year,
- (d) Promotion of rice crops that give two crops from one planting,
- (e) Promotion of dry crops.

2. The increase of wheat production

- (a) Utilization of vacant land in summer,
- (b) Reclamation of wasteland,
- (c) Promotion of improved wheat seeds.

3. Insect and disease control

- (a) Prevention of damage to rice crops,
- (b) Prevention of damage to wheat crops,
- (c) Prevention of damage to miscellaneous crops,
- (d) Prevention of damage to store-houses.

4. Use of fertilizers

- (a) Use of bone meal,
- (b) Use of human manure,
- (c) Use of green manure.

5. Improvement in irrigation systems

- (a) Repair of water reservoirs and dykes,
- (b) Construction of new canals.

6. Protection of farm animals

- (a) Prevention of cattle plague,
- (b) Raising more cattle.

7. Crop reports.

Food production increase measures were not practised on a large scale until 1940. In 1941, the acreage of cultivated land was increased by 57,299,011 *shih mow*, 26,453,511 *shih mow* more than the expected increase of 30,845,500 *shih mow*, while the production increased by 93,425,887 piculs, 61,738,387 piculs more than the expected 31,690,500 piculs. Kwangsi led the 17 provinces participating in the program by applying food increase measures to 8,282,114 *shih mow* of land. Kiangsi ranked second, Chekiang third, and Szechwan fourth. In increasing the production, Kwangtung yielded the largest increased amount of 22,131,914 piculs. Fukien came second, Kwangsi third, and Szechwan fourth.

The amount of the increased food production in 1941 approximated six per cent. of the total food production in 15 Free China provinces. Details may be seen in the following two tables:

TABLE 45.—RESULTS OF FOOD INCREASE MEASURES IN 1941
A. Acreage in *shih mow*

PROVINCE	Winter Ploughing	Utilization of Vacant Land in Summer	Reclamation of Wasteland	Reduction of Acreage for Non-essential Crops	Turning Glutinous Rice Fields into Ordinary Rice	Use of Improved Rice Seeds	Promotion of Rice Crops Planted Twice a Year	Promotion of Rice Crops From One Planting	Promotion of Improved Wheat Seeds	Promotion of Improved Seeds for Miscellaneous Cereals.	Insect and Disease Control	Use of Fertilizers	Improving Irrigation	Total
Szechwan	1,382,593		1,902,099		400,000	52,098	2,500	8,814	88,059		2,044,234	26,326	351,759	6,058,482
Kweichow	631,742	2,568,164	165,950		580,053	90			960	3,874	31,262	326,361	30,000	4,338,256
Yunnan		109,781	91,198	8,112	39,108	920		2,798	371		50,000		76,922	379,210
Kwangsi	6,456,038	472,265	474,336		367,027	14,618		24,575			46,124	147,236	179,895	8,282,114
Kwangtung	3,616,785		157,527	2,000	187,200	116,327			15		110,000	6,888	6,080	4,202,807
Hunan	7,835,156		36,046		824,888	882,540	864,361	119,239				473,392		5,035,637
Hupoh	187,599	16,430									134,379	43,443		386,901
Kiangsi	16,861	1,920,000	1,483,000	17,000	655,190	680,000			43,000			9,700	2,656,000	7,480,751
Chekiang	4,276,516		116,629		700,000	40,836	51,801		27,912		938,400	751,210	20,180	6,913,484
Fukien	3,228,802		1,924,279		133,446	10,080					2,130			5,298,687
Honan		445,894	311,312	295,148	18,536				6,021			1,031,885	13,580	2,122,316
Anhui		133,921			336,026	414,280		108,810	81,970			9,440	415,448	1,499,895
Shensi	1,353,818	43,666	7,501	54,937	13,065	9,178			182,719	14,774	352,000	136,748		2,168,406
Kansu											2,766,109		18,860	2,766,109
Ningsia			91,140											110,090
Shansi			250,866											250,866
Sikang			15,000											15,000
Total	22,985,910	5,710,111	6,826,883	377,197	4,254,539	2,320,917	918,662	264,236	431,027	18,648	6,454,638	2,967,629	3,768,814	57,299,011

Source: The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry.

TABLE 46.—RESULTS OF FOOD INCREASE MEASURES IN 1941

B. Production in Piculs

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Province	Winter Ploughing	Utilization of Vacant Land in Summer	Reclamation of Wasteland	Reduction of Acreage for Non- essential Crops	Turning Chutinous Rice Fields into Ordinary Rice Planting	Use of Improved Rice Seeds	Promotion of Rice Crops Giving Two Crops a Year	Promotion of Rice Crops Giving One Planting	Promotion of Improved Wheat Seeds	Promotion of Improved Seeds for Miscellaneous Cereals	Insect and Disease Control	Use of Fertilizers	Improving Irriga- tion	Total	Percentage In- crease
Szechwan	2,331,200	4,950,847	8,059,847		108,000	30,780	5,000	4,470	40,904	27,992	748,463	13,163	508,619	12,780,596	13.69
Kweichow	1,073,961	346,414	346,414		156,614	45			204		8,517	130,544	66,000	6,761,228	7.24
Yunnan		211,422	450,743		10,559	616		1,379	241		4,725		76,922	782,704	0.84
Kwangsi	8,129,325	5,228,830	474,886	26,087	99,097	82,500		14,795			82,880	72,200	251,100	14,435,063	15.41
Kwangtung	21,783,618		157,527	2,000	50,540	90,546					30,000	3,444	12,235	22,131,914	23.70
Hunan	1,896,570		27,281		222,720	564,823	1,296,542	71,544	3		217,384	236,696		4,533,566	4.68
Hupoh	22,323										62,450	10,680		130,128	0.14
Kiangsi	30,012	1,920,000	1,923,000	17,000	176,901	340,000			30,000		218,134	4,850	1,612,800	5,832,697	6.24
Chekiang	4,058,449		116,629		189,000	24,502	77,702		25,679		342,208	300,484	12,318	5,146,971	5.53
Fukien	2,138,528		14,236,566		36,030	3,009								16,415,133	17.38
Honan		470,127	296,766	217,952	90,727			43,817	2,168			515,942	13,580	1,501,540	1.61
Anhui		203,200	7,501	54,937	3,528	4,891			126,066			4,720	415,448	1,507,912	0.81
Shensi	1,123,669	43,666										68,374		1,484,368	1.59
Kansu													18,750	391,319	0.43
Ningsia		281,229	91,140											75,259	0.08
Shansi			75,259											45,000	0.05
Sikang			45,000												
Total	42,620,745	13,344,016	26,743,009	317,986	1,148,725	1,141,715	1,379,244	136,005	225,415	42,766	1,972,212	1,361,077	2,987,972	93,425,887	
Percentage Increase	45.62	14.23	28.63	0.34	1.23	1.22	1.47	0.15	0.24	0.05	2.11	1.46	3.20		100-100

Source: The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry.

The increase of the acreage of cultivated land for 1942 was set by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry at 49,532,500 *shih mow*, while the production was to be increased by 45,063,500 piculs. Provinces engaged in the program for the increase of food production in 1942 were Szechwan, Sikang, Hunan, Kweichow, Yunnan, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Chekiang, Fukien, Kiangsi, Hupeh, Anhwei, Honan, Kansu, Ningsia, Chinghai, Shansi, Shensi, and Suiyuan. Twenty-four *hsien* around Chungking and the area surrounding Tzechung in central Szechwan were designated as special areas for the increase of food production to produce the maximum amount of foodstuffs for consumption in Chungking and other cities.

The following two tables show the expected increase of foodstuffs in 1942 :

TABLE 47—EXPECTED AMOUNT OF CEREALS TO BE INCREASED IN 1942

Region	Piculs
Szechwan	4,702,000
Chungking Area	2,137,000
Kweichow	2,897,900
Yunnan	1,593,400
Kwangsi	4,174,900
Hunan	5,982,500
Kwangtung	3,399,200
Kiangsi	3,057,000
Fukien	3,524,100
Chekiang	3,861,000
Anhwei	564,000
Shensi	4,985,000
Hupeh	1,059,000
Kansu	437,000
Sikang	615,000
Honan	926,000
Ningsia	473,500
Shansi	225,000
Suiyuan	225,000
Chinghai	225,000
TOTAL	45,063,500

TABLE 48—CLASSIFICATION OF METHODS FOR INCREASING FOOD PRODUCTION IN 1942: THEIR ACREAGE AND PRODUCTION

Method	Acreage (<i>shih mow</i>)	Production (piculs)
Increase of unhusked rice	9,271,500	4,448,600
Increase of Wheat and miscellaneous cereals	29,227,000	33,387,000
Disease and insect control	5,545,000	2,748,000
Use of fertilizers	4,499,000	3,079,900
Development of irrigation	990,000	990,000
Production through improved animal husbandry		410,000
TOTAL	49,532,500	45,063,500

Up to September, 1942, measures for increasing food production in 1942 had covered an area of 50,392,484 *shih mow* of land, 860,482 *shih mow* more than the expected increase of 49,532,000 *shih mow*. The increase of production by September amounted to 46,502,195 piculs, 1,438,695 piculs more than the expected amount. The acreage is not expected to be increased any further, or to a great extent, because both winter and summer crops in 1942 had been harvested by September. The production will be more as the final estimate has not yet been completed.

Like 1941, winter plowing constitutes the major part of food increase measures in 1942, covering an area of 39,975,695 *shih mow* of land with an increased output of 42,348,628 piculs by September. (See Table 49.)

For technical improvement of Chinese farming, the National Agricultural Research Bureau of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry makes experiments in plant breeding, propagation of improved seeds, insect and disease control, and the study of soils and fertilizers.

Work has been proceeding in Szechwan, Hunan, Yunnan, Kweichow, and Kwangsi on experimental rice breeding. Twenty-six kinds of improved rice seeds introduced by the Bureau can yield an average increased production of 30 per cent. By using them, one *shih mow* of land can produce 3.8 piculs of unhusked rice,

TABLE 49—RESULTS OF FOOD INCREASE MEASURES IN 1942 (SEPTEMBER)

(Acreage in *shih mow*, Production in piculs)

VINCE	WINTER PLOWING		UTILIZATION OF VACANT LAND IN SUMMER		RECLAMATION OF WASTELAND		REDUCTION OF ACREAGE FOR NON-ESSENTIAL CROPS		PLANTING OF MISCELLANEOUS CEREALS		USE OF IMPROVED WHEAT SEEDS		TURNING GLUTINOUS RICE FIELDS INTO ORDINARY RICE PLANTING		USE OF IMPROVED RICE SEEDS		PROMOTION OF RICE CROPS PLANTED TWICE A YEAR		PROMOTION OF IMPROVED SEEDS FOR MISCELLANEOUS CEREALS		USE OF BONE MEAL		USE OF HUMAN MANURE		USE OF GREEN MANURE		DISEASE CONTROL FOR WHEAT		INSECT CONTROL FOR RICE		INSECT AND DISEASE CONTROL FOR MISCELLANEOUS CEREALS		IMPROVING IRRIGATION		TOTAL		PROVINCE
	Acreage	Production	Acreage	Production	Acreage	Production	Acreage	Production	Acreage	Production	Acreage	Production	Acreage	Production	Acreage	Production	Acreage	Production	Acreage	Production	Acreage	Production	Acreage	Production	Acreage	Production	Acreage	Production	Acreage	Production	Acreage	Production	Acreage	Production			
Szechwan	3,004,199	3,004,199			3,000	3,000			15,500	7,750	503,971	125,992	17,096	5,128	180,000	90,000	10,128	30,317	673	671	3,793	1,892			26,116	13,058	17,815	1,782	6,160	616	520	26	117,920	39,139	3,727,559	3,237,961	Szechwan
Chungking Area	971,420	971,420	12,704	12,704	224,025	224,025	17,280	17,280			6,000	1,200	560	168	670	335					6,168	3,084							6,160	616	78,372	39,156	1,418,159	1,315,825	Chungking Area		
Yunnan	10,453,740	11,855,758	109,067	54,533	105,054	105,054	212,980	212,980	5,000	2,500			4,170	1,551																			10,462,417	11,859,529	Yunnan		
Kweichow	1,869,201	1,869,201			370	370					1,203	241			13,421	6,711																	2,001,456	1,896,945	Kweichow		
Kwangtung	6,040,000	6,040,000			34,153	34,153	3,840	3,840			2,000	200	4,850	1,455	123,000	61,500					932	466	6,680	3,340	83,590	41,795	17,382	1,738	221,385	22,139			6,537,812	6,210,626	Kwangtung		
Hunan	4,866,305	4,866,305			92,837	92,837			832	416			9,372	2,802	39,020	19,510					1,180	590	4,246	2,123									5,014,092	4,984,643	Hunan		
Hupeh	6,136,463	6,136,463			62,975	62,975			33,675	16,787			120,788	36,236	100,596	50,298					4	2												6,677,551	6,525,911	Hupeh	
Kiangsi	276,540	1,210,186									1,000	400			50,000	25,000																	287,540	1,211,586	Kiangsi		
Fukien	1,186,736	1,186,736			2,790	2,790											42,200	48,400	200	200					126,096	63,084	3,732	663			10,088	16,690	1,370,320	1,322,610	Fukien		
Anhui	2,170,907	2,170,907			5,000	7,500					122,605	61,303			57,947	28,973	4,662	9,324			400	200												2,383,790	2,294,907	Anhui	
Shensi	349,428	400,784	7,174	6,957	23,537	23,537					442	221	226,833	61,224	874	381									64,484	25,917	39,081	8,838	3,186	637			741,482	545,109	Shensi		
Shansi	1,176,418	1,176,418	155,984	155,984	57,599	57,599					39,213	2,943									358	179	1,701,266	850,633									1,370,320	1,322,610	Shansi		
Ninghsia	1,473,420	1,473,420			3,147	3,147					439,690	109,609	3,230	969	2,741	1,370																			439,690	109,609	Ninghsia
Suiyuan	920	920	38,207	38,207	4,787	4,787	40,314	60,471	4,225	2,112	75,000	7,500	24,863	7,459	8,700	4,350					3,576	269	2,844	213	1,853	139	2,028,488	152,137			1,097,140	82,286	2,100	1,050	384,451	301,491	Suiyuan
TOTAL	39,975,695	42,348,628	492,259	368,385	813,256	863,014	274,414	294,571	59,132	29,565	1,246,750	316,875	411,762	116,992	579,969	289,928	56,990	88,041	65,786	33,202	16,411	6,682	1,888,695	958,194	308,120	142,545	2,384,876	214,219	287,745	28,775	1,097,660	82,312	432,964	320,267	50,392,484	46,502,195	TOTAL

Source: The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry.

eight *tau* more than its usual production. Improved corn seeds, producing 45 per cent more than ordinary seeds, were introduced in 1942 by the Bureau's experimental stations in Yunnan and Hunan, while experiments are being made on corn, soy beans, potatoes and kaoliang in Kweichow, Yunnan and Hunan. The Bureau's improved wheat seeds can yield 35 per cent more than ordinary wheat seeds. The *Chung Nung* (National Agricultural) No. 28 improved wheat seeds not only produce more but can resist strong wind.

Planted wherever there is enough water, rice that may be planted twice a year can yield two piculs more of unhusked rice per *shih mow* than ordinary rice. Rice that gives two harvests from one planting is called in China "*chia sen tao*" or "reborn rice." The plants rebud after once being cut and grow again. Nine more *tau* of unhusked rice can be harvested from each *shih mow* of land. Such rice can be planted wherever better soil, abundant water and higher temperature prevail. Dryland rice planting is also promoted to supplement rice shortage in case of famine.

For the increase of the production of cotton, the National Agricultural Research Bureau has been making experiments on the propagation of improved seeds and insect control in Szechwan, Honan, Shensi, Kwangsi, Kweichow, Yunnan, Kiangsi, Hunan, Sikang, Hupeh, Kansu and Ninghsia. American cotton seeds were used on 1,359,875 *shih mow* of land, while insect control was extended to 152,546 *shih mow* from January to July, 1942. Insect control covered 416,254 *shih mow* of cotton fields in 1941. Work is also being done for the increase of the production of silk and other raw materials.

The development of irrigation in China is jointly administered by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, the National Water Conservancy Commission and the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks. Regulations governing the development of irrigation may be summarized as follows:

- (1) The National Water Conservancy Commission and the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks shall jointly decide whether the development of irrigation projects is needed in specified localities. The Joint Board will extend irrigation loans only upon the recommendation of the

National Water Conservancy Commission.

- (2) The local governments may apply for loans from the Joint Board for the development of irrigation through the National Water Conservancy Commission.
- (3) The National Water Conservancy Commission is responsible for the supervision of the construction of irrigation projects and their operation after the completion of engineering work.
- (4) A 5-year irrigation loan program has been mapped out. In accordance with the plan, the Central Government is to appropriate \$15,000,000 in each of the first two years and \$10,000,000 in each of the last three years for the development of irrigation projects.
- (5) To popularize the development of irrigation, the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry is to construct model projects.

Since the war began in 1937, the Chinese Government has completed sufficient irrigation projects to water more than 2,000,000 *shih mow* of land in Free China. Work has been extended to more projects in order to benefit about 10,000,000 *shih mow* of land. The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry has completed an inspection of the country and found out that more projects should be immediately developed to water 10,000,000 *shih mow* of land which may yield an increased production of 15,000,000 piculs of cereals. (See Tables 50 and 51.)

TABLE 50—THE DEVELOPMENT OF IRRIGATION SINCE THE OUTBREAK OF THE WAR

(Unit: *shih mow*)

PROVINCE	Completed	Under Construction	Under Survey
Szechwan	269,279	194,425	1,028,920
Yunnan	2,000	59,760	590,400
Kweichow	11,930	4,630	199,830
Sikang			155,600
Kwangtung		4,400	691,560
Kwangsi	100,266	136,800	463,470
Hupei	13,420	15,000	68,565
Hunan		2,100	96,000
Kiangsi	104,928	167,960	262,685
Chekiang	96,380		
Fukien	2,733	6,340	66,430
Shensi	1,452,557	1,330,000	357,300
Kansu	39,600	382,000	1,133,500
Chinghai			1,180,600
Honan	79,834		1,098,700
Shansi			69,600
TOTAL	2,172,927	2,333,415	7,463,160

Source: The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry.

TABLE 51—IRRIGATION PROJECTS INITIATED IN 1941

Locality	Name of Project	Source of Water	Area to be Irrigated (<i>shih mow</i>)	Construction Cost (dollars)	State of Progress
Lanchow, Kansu	Huanghui Canal	Huang River	25,000	1,183,651	Completed.
Lintao, Kansu	Puchi Canal	Tao River	35,000	477,660	Under Construction.
Tali, Chaoyi, Shensi	Lohui Canal	Lo River	500,000	3,900,000	To be Completed in Spring, 1943.
Chowchih, Shensi	Heihui Canal	Hei River	140,000	826,674	Partly Completed.
Mienhsien, Shensi	Hanhui Canal	Han Kiang	100,376	1,629,407	Completed.
Paocheng, Shensi	Paohui Canal	Pao River	130,000	1,330,000	6/10 Completed.
Mienyang, Szechwan	Lungui Canal	Fow River	14,500	1,039,000	Completed.
Meishan, Szechwan	Lichuan Canal	Lichuan Kiang	18,000	439,000	Completed.
Kingtang, Kwanghan, Szechwan	Peitseh Canal	Pei River	6,000	950,000	Completed.
Ya'an, Sikang	Chingyi Canal	Chingyi Kiang	2,800	200,000	9/10 Completed.
Hungya, Szechwan	Huaki Canal	Huakiho	34,500	5,000,000	7/10 Completed.
Mienyang, Szechwan	Fowwong Canal	Fow River and Anchangho	9,000	1,570,000	5/10 Completed.
Suining, Szechwan	Nanpei Dam	Fow River	33,500	5,278,000	Preliminary Work Completed.
Omei, Szechwan	Hsiungkung Dam	Fuwen Kiang	3,000	320,000	Preliminary Work Completed.
Iliang, Yunnan	Wenkung Canal	Yangtsunghai	30,000	1,200,000	4/10 Completed.
Mileh, Yunnan	Chuyuan Dam	Tienki	22,760	3,000,000	Partially Completed.
Tingfan, Kweichow	Santu and Laokungpo	Siaolungchu Canal	3,420	90,000	6/10 Completed.
Anlung, Kweichow	Potanghaizze	Huangshang Kiang	4,000	259,700	Partially Completed.
Tienlung, Kwangsi	Huangshangkang	Haiyuen	40,000	860,000	Preliminary Work Completed.
Szelo, Kwangsi	Haiyuen ...	Shih Kiang	15,000	110,000	5/10 Completed.
Kungcheng, Kwangsi	Shihkiang	Pulu Kiang	30,000	500,000	7/10 Completed.
Lipu, Kwangsi	Pulukiang	Yu Kiang	10,000	265,000	Completed.
Tienyang, Kwangsi	Napo	Shapuh	20,000	140,000	Partially Completed.
Liucheng, Kwangsi	Shapuh	Shapuh	6,700	475,425	3/10 Completed.
Liuchow, Kwangsi	Fengshanho	Fengshanho	29,700	570,000	8/10 Completed.
Lushan, Honan	Chungho Canal	Shanbo	8,580	45,842	Partially Completed.
TOTAL			1,271,836	31,659,359	

The Government is extending loans to practically every province for the development of irrigation. Up to August, 1942, the development of irrigation projects may be described as follows:

(1) *Kansu*. Beginning from April, 1941, irrigation enterprises have been handled by the Kansu Water Conservancy, Forestry and Animal Husbandry Company, jointly organized by the Kansu Provincial Government and the Bank of China. Irrigation projects completed under the Company's program include Huanghui and Puchi canals, watering 60,000 *shih mow* of land. Projects under construction are Taohui, Siahui, Peiwan and Neihui canals to water 103,000 *shih mow* of land. Projects to be constructed include Yungfeng and Sinlan canals with an aggregate capacity of watering 153,000 *shih mow* of land. A number of other canals have been surveyed.

In connection with its program for the economic development of the Northwest, the Central Government has decided to allot \$100,000,000 for a 10-year irrigation project in the Kansu Corridor, where 126 canals already exist, benefiting 2,067,000 *shih mow* of land.

(2) *Shensi*. Among the existing irrigation systems, the two largest are the Kinghui and Weihui canals, the former watering 709,557 *shih mow* of land and the latter watering 600,000 *shih mow*. Projects completed in 1941 under the direction of the King-Lo Engineering Bureau of Shensi include Lohui and Heihui canals, of which branch channels are still being constructed. The Shensi provincial government has been improving Fenghui, Tinghui, Paohui, Suhui and Hanhui canals, which can water 333,000 *shih mow* of land.

(3) *Szechwan*. Irrigation systems completed from January to August, 1942, in Szechwan number five, watering altogether 160,000 *shih mow* of land. The Szechwan provincial government, in October, 1942, launched an irrigation plan calling for the construction of 17 canals at an aggregate cost of \$100,000,000 to water 193,064 *shih mow* of farms in 17 *hsien*. The largest of these projects is in Pabsien, bordering the municipality of Chungking, to water 20,000 *shih mow* of land. Details of these projects may be seen in the following table:

TABLE 52—NEW IRRIGATION PROJECTS IN SZECHWAN

(October, 1942.)

<i>Hsien</i>	Capacity (<i>shih mow</i>)	Cost	Estimated Increase in Harvest	Estimated Increase in Land Value
Pabsien	20,000	\$10,000,000	\$6,500,000	\$20,000,000
Peipei	1,000	1,231,000	511,000	1,000,000
Huayang	16,000	15,070,000	6,880,000	23,000,000
Kwanhsien	7,900	6,271,000	4,127,000	7,900,000
Lokiang	7,000	2,612,000	2,394,000	7,000,000
Tzetung	7,800	5,102,000	4,200,000	3,900,000
Loshan	14,000	830,000	3,925,000	7,000,000
Chiakiang	4,000	1,715,000	2,812,000	4,000,000
Kunglai	8,000	3,170,000	3,785,000	6,500,000
Tehyang	50,000	1,117,000	1,140,000	15,000,000
Changyang	6,000	2,000,000	1,400,000	5,000,000
Kiangyu	6,000	1,500,000	1,200,000	5,600,000
Neikiang	22,514	4,731,000	4,500,000	11,262,000
Fengchieh	10,250	6,010,000	6,901,000	7,675,000
Kienwei	10,000	6,400,000	3,660,000	10,000,000
Santai	1,600			
Santai	1,000			
TOTAL	193,064	\$67,879,000	\$53,998,000	\$136,837,000

(4) *Sikang*. There is one canal under construction in Sikang. Survey has been completed for the construction of three dams.

(5) *Yunnan*. Four new dams are being built in Yunnan with an aggregate capacity of watering 92,760 *shih mow* of land. Survey has been completed for the construction of five more canals, while survey has been started on two other projects.

(6) *Kweichow*. Five new systems are under construction, to water nearly 20,000 *shih mow* of land.

(7) *Kwangsi*. Kwangsi is building seven canals in 1942 to water 179,500 *shih mow* of land.

(8) *Honan*. Two new canal systems are scheduled to be completed in 1942 with an aggregate capacity of watering 12,580 *shih mow* of land. Work has been started for the construction of two more canals to water 265,000 *shih mow* of land. Survey of four new projects to water 230,000 *shih mow* of land is under way.

(9) *Other Provinces*. Other provinces are constructing small irrigation projects with financial assistance from the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks. The National Water Conservancy Commission and the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry make continuous surveys in various provinces to find

out the needs and to plan for the construction of more irrigation systems. The National Water Conservancy Commission is in charge of the construction of big irrigation systems, while the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry is promoting smaller projects. Both are financed by the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks.

Agricultural extension in China is new, but it has been given primary attention by agricultural authorities. Before the formation of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, the Executive Yuan appointed a commission to take charge of agricultural extension. The commission was placed under the direct control of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry in March, 1942.

This commission has assisted in organizing agricultural extension committees in ten Free China provinces and is in direct control of 16 *hsien* experimental areas, scattered throughout the interior. It is also in charge of the increase of agricultural production, the training of agricultural personnel, and the investigation and research of related problems.

Closely connected with agricultural extension work is the opening of model farms by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. There are at present four national farms, details of which can be seen in the following table:

TABLE 53—A LIST OF NATIONAL FARMS

(October, 1942)

National Farm	Location	Date of Opening	Area Reclaimed (<i>shih mow</i>)
1st Farm	Ichang, Hunan	February, 1941	7,000
2nd Farm	Opien, Szechwan	February, 1941	1,368
3rd Farm	Pingpa, Kweichow	April, 1941	4,600
4th Farm	Yingtak, Kwangtung	1942	1,024.6
TOTAL			13,992.6

Of the 1st National Farm, 4,388 *shih mow* is planted with regular crops, such as rice, cotton, corn and sweet potatoes. The 2nd National Farm was amalgamated with the Leimapingo Reclamation Area in January, 1942. Of

the 3rd National Farm, 1,419 *shih mow* is planted with regular crops, 531 *shih mow* under forest, and 1,714.64 *shih mow* planted with miscellaneous crops. The 4th National Farm grows beans, sweet potatoes, cotton, tung oil and tea trees.

These national model farms are being cultivated with scientific methods. The management is on a large scale with a view to achieving the utmost at low production cost. The educational value to the farmers is centered around the large-scale management on a cooperative basis.

For the propagation of improved seeds, the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry has opened two stations. One of them is at Kukong, Kwangtung, created in February, 1941. In 1941, 1,460 *shih mow* of improved rice seeds, five *shih mow* of improved sesame seeds and 350 *shih mow* of improved seeds of miscellaneous cereals were raised. In 1942, 2,885 *shih mow* was planted, including more than 5,000 catties of improved rice seeds.

The other station was opened at Wukung, Shensi, in March, 1941. One thousand five hundred eight *shih mow* of improved seeds was planted in 1941,

and 1,450 *shih mow* in 1942. Seeds are also to be loaned to farmers.

II. Forestry. Forestry administration may be reviewed along three lines, namely, the protection of natural forests, the development of timber forests, and the development of provincial and private forests.

China has 1,819,875,940 *shih mow* (299,800,000 acres) of forest area, 8.4 per cent of the total land area, according to an estimate made by Dr. D. Y. Lin in 1936. Heilungkiang has the largest forest area of 264,209,607 *shih mow*. Szechwan ranks second, with 204,872,625 *shih mow* of forest land. Sinkiang comes third and Kirin fourth.

The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, beginning from 1940, has selected a number of forest areas to be called "nationally-owned forests," for each of which an administrative bureau has been established. There are seven such bureaus and their distribution is as follows:

TABLE 54—A LIST OF ADMINISTRATIVE BUREAUS FOR THE CONTROL OF
NATURAL FORESTS.

(October, 1942.)

Forest Bureau	Location	Date of Inauguration	Area of Natural Forest (Square Kilometers)
Chingling National Forest Administrative Bureau	Chowchih, Shensi	August, 1941	12,615
Taoho National Forest Administrative Bureau	Minhsien, Kansu	July, 1941	31,530
Minkiang National Forest Administrative Bureau	Lifan, Szechwan	July, 1941	2,197
Tatuho National Forest Administrative Bureau	Opien, Szechwan	July, 1941	1,080
Chingyikiang National Forest Administrative Bureau	Tienchuan, Sikang	February, 1942	763.5
Kingshakiang National Forest Administration Bureau	Likiang, Yunnan	June, 1942	Under Survey
Chilienshan National Forest Administration Bureau	Kiuchuan, Kansu	April, 1942	Under Survey

The prohibition of deforestation is the general policy for the protection of these natural forests. Registration is required for the ownership of private forests in these areas, for legitimate felling and related enterprises.

In the Chingling National Forest Area, there are 666 registered private forests and 58 timber felling agents. Survey has been completed on 1,087,500 *shih mow* of natural forests in this area. Researches on the soil, timber, botanical pathology and seeds are being made.

Preliminary survey has been completed in the Taoho and Minkiang forest areas.

There are 72 timber merchants in the former and nine in the latter.

The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry has mapped out plans for the development of timber forests, which produce lumber for military, industrial, communication and general construction uses. The Ministry establishes model timber forest areas and encourages private dealings in the enterprise. Four model timber forest areas have been created as shown in the following table:

TABLE 55—MODEL TIMBER FORESTS IN FREE CHINA

(October, 1942.)

Timber Forest	Location	Time of Establishment	Kinds of Timber and Its Used
1st Timber Forest	Chenyuan, Kweichow	April, 1941	Tung Oil and fir trees for manufacturing oil and paper.
2nd Timber Forest	Lunghsien, Shensi	March, 1941	Walnut and chestnut trees for military engineering.
3rd Timber Forest	Lochang, Kwangtung	March, 1941	Camphor and dwarf nettle trees for medical use.
4th Timber Forest	Mengtzu, Yunnan		Cinchona and rubber trees for medical and industrial uses.

The First Timber Forest Area at Chenyuan consists of 83 *shih mow* of seedlings, of which 14 *shih mow* is planted with 195,000 tung oil and fir seedlings. An afforestation area of 15 square kilometers has been selected near the experimental station for the planting of 20,000 trees, including 8,700 tung oil and fir trees, covering an area of 691 *shih mow*.

The Lunghsien Timber Forest Area covers more than 200 *shih mow* of land, on which 101,185 seedlings are being grown. More than 200,000 trees are to be planted in 1942.

The nurseries of the Lochang Timber Forest Area cover 160 *shih mow*.

Camphor, dwarf nettle and tung oil seedlings number 178,080. In 1942, 18,800 camphor trees, 2,100 tung oil trees, and 164,000 red pines were to be planted. A total of 433,000 young seedlings are to be raised. The afforestation area occupies 63,000 *shih mow* of land.

The 4th Timber Forest Area is still in a preparatory stage.

Another important project of the forestry authorities is to supervise provincial and *hsien* governments to promote afforestation work in their respective areas as a step to encourage the people to engage themselves voluntarily in tree planting. Up to August,

1942, 15 Free China provinces had achieved the following results in forestry under the direction of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry:

TABLE 56—RECORD OF FOREST SEEDLINGS AND PLANTING WORK IN FREE CHINA
(August, 1942)

PROVINCE	Area of Nurseries (<i>shih mow</i>)	No. of Seedlings	No. of Trees Planted
Chekiang	1,008	14,330,078	85,779,494
Yunnan	1,000	9,315,000	65,223,900
Ningsia	527	3,778,650	16,762,204
Kwangtung	5,382	4,757,984	48,570,243
Honan	4,047	13,792,169	19,966,936
Hupeh	256	3,197,838	845,673
Chinghai	268	36,600	3,433,190
Szechwan	2,247	18,402,587	...
Kwangsi	3,937	145,706,454	113,889,512
Kweichow	2,577	14,124,182	200,000
Hunan	1,632	31,685,650	516,099,487
Kiangsi	2,136	12,000,000	11,511,318
Shensi	945	20,398,490	10,664,525
Kansu	1,225	5,068,204	680,708
Fukien	132	1,949,926	10,075,410
TOTAL	27,319	298,543,862	903,702,591

The investigation and research of forestry in China is placed in the hands of the National Forestry Research Bureau of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, created in August, 1941. Large-scale investigations and surveys are being made in the border regions in Szechwan, Hunan and Kweichow. Chemical research of lumber is also in progress.

III. *Animal Husbandry and Fisheries.* The most important work that the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry has been undertaking in animal husbandry is the control of epizootic diseases. The National Animal Husbandry Research Bureau of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry

has formed a mobile epizootic prevention corps to go to any locality where animal diseases are serious, particularly where control of cattle rinderpest is needed. Special attention has been given to Szechwan, Kweichow, Hunan, Hupeh and Yunnan. A veterinary station has been established in the area bordering Szechwan, Hupeh, Kweichow and Hunan, where cattle plague often breaks out.

A Northwest Epizootic Prevention Bureau has been set up to take care of animal diseases in the northwestern provinces. Three American veterinary surgeons are assisting in protecting animals for stage transportation in the Northwest. Special attention is directed to Shensi, Kansu, Ningsia and Chinghai.

The National Animal Husbandry Research Bureau has opened two centers for the manufacture of preventive serums and vaccines, one in Jungchang, Szechwan, and the other in Meitan, Kweichow. The two centers produced a total of 417,360 c.c. of serums and vaccines in the six months from October, 1941, to April, 1942. The Northwest Epizootical Prevention Bureau controls one station for the manufacture of preventive serums and vaccines with an output of 86,974 c.c. from October, 1941, to May, 1942. Service has been extended to the farmers free of charge.

On the constructive side, the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry has seven cattle breeding centers for animal improvement. The seven centers cover approximately 300,000 *shih mow* of land in Szechwan, Kweichow, Kwangsi, Hunan, Kiangsi, Honan and Shensi. Thirty-six crossing test stations have been established under these centers. More than 1,000 cattle have been selected as breeding stock.

For horse breeding, the National Animal Husbandry Research Bureau has opened a breeding center in Meih sien, Shensi, with two crossing stations at Wukung and Hingping.

A Northwest Sheep's Wool Improvement Bureau has been established in Kansu to introduce new methods to the wool-producing provinces of Kansu, Chinghai and Ningsia. Nine promotion stations and one mobile service corps have been formed to direct sheep breeding, to prevent diseases and to improve the technical side of the enterprise, benefitting 7,498 sheep breeding families and saving 42,523 sheep and goats in six months up to July, 1942. One hundred and fifty New Zealand sheep were imported to make crossing tests. At Suanwei, Yunnan, the National Animal Husbandry Research Bureau operates a Southwest Sheep Improvement Station, aiming at breeding better stock. Studies of native grass are also being made for the purpose of improving pastures.

The blockade of China's coastal lines has forced the Chinese agricultural authorities to turn their attention to fishery administration to the development of fresh-water fisheries. A fry fish station was first established at Pahsien, Szechwan, with an experimental station at Kiangtsin, a Yangtze river city. There are two fry fish stations along the upper reaches of the Pearl

River. Their work is confined to: (1) raising fish fry, (2) raising fish roe by artificial methods, (3) opening model ponds for fish culture, (4) directing private fishery enterprises, (5) investigation and research in fisheries, and (6) training fishery workers.

In 1941, these stations gathered altogether 12,400,000 fish fry, raising 100,000 fishes, selling 234,000 fish fry and 4,055 catties of fish, and giving out 1,010,000 fish fry for promotion purpose.

Work scheduled for 1942 includes:

- (1) Increasing fishery production in the Chungking area. Fifteen million fish fry have been collected and 8,000,000 of them have been given to various fish raising agencies.
- (2) Promoting fisheries in various provinces. A station for distributing fish fry has been set up at Hengyang, Hunan, to take charge of fishery extension in Hunan, Kiangsi, Hupeh, and Fukien.
- (3) Developing fresh-water fisheries in Kweichow with the co-operation of the Keichow provincial government.
- (4) Helping in transporting fish from Hunan and Hupeh to Szechwan. Carp and other fry transported to Chungking *via* Wanh sien in six months up to August, 1942, number 14,000.
- (5) Training more workers for raising fresh-water fishes.

IV. Reclamation. The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, through the Land Reclamation Bureau, controls ten national reclamation areas in Free China. For each area there is an administrative bureau under the joint control of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry and related Central Government organs. These reclamation areas are:

1. Huanglungshan Reclamation Area, North Shensi. Reclamation work began under the direction of the Shensi provincial government in 1938. The Central Government took it over in 1939. The area consists of six villages, covering 5,000,000 *shih mow* of land, of which 500,000 *shih mow* is cultivable, leaving an ample space for animal breeding and afforestation. The progress in this

area may be seen in the following comparison:

YEAR	No. of Farmers	Area Reclaimed (<i>shih mow</i>)
1939	8,000	
1940	23,532	140,000
1941	26,200	
1942 (July)	29,500	171,886

Of the cultivated land in the Huanglungshan Reclamation Area, 134,954 *shih mow* is planted with regular crops. Educational, health and other facilities for the welfare of the settlers include two elementary schools, one child welfare institute, one clinic, 96 mutual aid societies, 65 credit cooperatives, 16 productive and transportation cooperatives, and one consumer's cooperatives.

2. Liping Reclamation Area, Shensi. Established in 1940, this area consists of seven villages with a total of 200,000 *shih mow* of cultivable land. Up to July, 1942, there were 5,043 refugee-farmers cultivating 39,709 *shih mow* of land, of which 33,098 *shih mow* is planted with regular crops. There are two primary schools, one clinic, 26 credit cooperatives, two consumer's cooperatives and a number of mutual aid societies. Both this area and the Huanglungshan Reclamation Area produce abundant medical herbs.

3. Anfu Reclamation Area, Kiangsi. This area was opened in September, 1941, composed of six reclamation districts. Up to July, 1942, there were 2,030 farmers, tilling a total of 104,958 *shih mow* of land.

4. Minhsien Reclamation Area, Kansu. This area covers 100,000 *shih mow* of land. Half of the land is cultivated by natives, while the other half is used by refugee-settlers. Ten thousand *shih mow* has been selected for experimental purpose with 504 farmers. At Tienshui, near the reclamation area in the same province, 580 wounded soldiers are cultivating 3,580 *shih mow* of land, of which 815 *shih mow* is planted with regular crops.

5. Sichang Reclamation Area, Sikang. This area covers 606,220 *shih mow* of wasteland. Its cultivation is still in an experimental stage. Up to July, 1942, there were only 247 settlers tilling 1,910 *shih mow* of land.

6. Tungshian Experimental Reclamation Area, Szechwan. Composed of five reclamation districts, this area was opened in September, 1941. Part of the land is cultivated by soldiers. By July, 1942, preliminary work had been completed for 3,122 *shih mow* of land, of which 1,330 *shih mow* is under cultivation.

7. Leimapingo Reclamation Area, Szechwan. This area was converted from the 2nd National Farm in March, 1942. By July, 90 settlers were working on 1,527 *shih mow* of land. The number of farmers is expected to be increased to 600 by the end of 1942. Commercial interests have been invited by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry to help develop this area.

8. Kingfushan Experimental Reclamation Area, Szechwan. This area was brought under the control of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry in March, 1942. It occupies 199,000 *shih mow* of wasteland, divided into three reclamation districts. Up to July, 1942, this area absorbed 771 persons cultivating 2,880 *shih mow* of land.

9. Hosi Experimental Reclamation Area, Kansu. This area is situated in Kansu Corridor, west of the Yellow River, established in July, 1942. Before the end of 1942, this area expects to absorb 400 refugees and 600 soldiers as settlers.

10. Talungshan Reclamation Area, Kweichow. This area contains 140,000 *shih mow* of cultivable land in Tungjen, scheduled to be formally inaugurated in September, 1942.

Besides the administration of the above-mentioned 10 national reclamation areas, the Land Reclamation Bureau of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry has adopted measures for the encouragement of and assistance to private reclamation projects. In 1941, the provincial governments of Shensi, Kiangsi, Fukien and Shansi received a grant of \$1,000,000 each for the promotion of reclamation projects as part of relief work. For technical guidance and supervision, the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry sends officials to practically all Free China provinces. Provincial and

hsien agricultural personnel is required to render technical help.

Preparations are under way for postwar reclamation work in interior provinces. It is planned to settle 1,500,000 soldiers and their families on 18,000,000 *shih mow* of land in Kansu, Chinghai, Ningsia and Suiyuan in the Northwest, and Szechwan, Sikang and Yunnan in the Southwest. Programs are also being mapped out to develop the Northeast through reclamation.

The Ministry is conducting investigations throughout the country regarding the acreage of wasteland and areas already under cultivation. Survey has been completed in 204 localities, covering an area of more than 20,000,000 *shih mow* of wasteland. Areas of wasteland under cultivation, according to reports from 14 provinces, total 831,987 *shih mow* with 94,351 refugee-settlers.

LAND AND FARM ECONOMY

I. *Land Tenure and Tenancy.* Private land ownership is still the rule of the

system of land tenure in China, while inheritance is still the chief method of securing ownership. Dr. Sun Yat-sen's principle of enabling those who till the land to be its owners does not aim to abolish the system of private land ownership, but may affect it in such a way that big landlords may find it unprofitable to own more land than they actually need.

Farm tenancy, however, still presents many problems in China. According to investigations made by the National Agricultural Research Bureau, there was in 1941 a total of 63 per cent of farmers in 15 interior provinces who were tenant-farmers and part-owners. There was only 37 per cent of independent farmers. In 22 provinces as a whole, there was 53 per cent of farmers who were tenants and part-owners. There was only 47 per cent of independent farmers. In other words, almost two thirds of Chinese farmers rented land from others, to whom they must pay heavy rents. (See Tables 57, 58 and 59.)

TABLE 57—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF FARMERS IN CHINA

(A) TENANT FARMERS

PROVINCE	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941
Chahar	38	39	42	27	35	31					
Suiyuan	28	25	26	19	27	31	32				
Ningsia				30	30	20	18	21	16	10	15
Chinghai	20	20	18	20	23	22	19	18	18	21	24
Kansu	21	24	28	20	19	18	19	16	22	18	18
Shensi	25	27	27	20	20	18	18	22	25	22	23
Shansi	18	18	18	14	16	16	15				
Honan	13	13	13	11	13	10	11				
Shantung	14	14	13	9	10	10	10				
Kiangsu	34	34	37	32	31	30	34				
Anhwei	45	46	45	41	44	42	37				
Honan	22	23	26	20	20	20	20	29	26	26	20
Hupei	40	42	38	39	38	41	36	39	42	35	42
Szechwan	56	58	59	58	53	51	52	50	49	48	48
Yunnan	35	36	39	41	38	36	42	37	41	40	36
Kweichow	39	45	42	43	43	45	44	41	43	38	41
Hunan	47	49	49	46	47	50	44	43	39	42	42
Kiangsi	46	46	46	30	35	40	38	41	41	35	36
Chekiang	48	48	45	47	48	47	45	44	43	38	41
Fukien	40	41	42	43	41	44	42	43	41	41	41
Kwangtung	57	57	58	49	43	46	47	42	42	38	46
Kwangsi	40	42	40	41	38	38	34	29	32	35	31
Weighted Average (22 provinces)	31	31	32	29	29	30	30	30*	30*	29*	29*
Weighted Average (15 provinces)							37	38	38	36	36

*Weighted on the basis of investigations made in 15 provinces in those respective years and the investigations made in 1937 in Chahar, Suiyuan, Shansi, Hopei, Shantung, Kiangsu and Anhwei.

TABLE 58—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF FARMERS IN CHINA

(B) INDEPENDENT FARMERS

PROVINCE	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941
Chahar	36	34	32	48	36	43					
Suiyuan	53	55	55	61	59	52	57				
Ningsia				61	61	66	68	66	65	74	74
Chinghai	61	59	59	55	51	50	51	61	58	61	51
Kansu	59	56	53	62	61	64	61	66	59	62	61
Shensi	52	50	51	58	58	62	61	57	55	58	57
Shansi	61	61	60	66	64	61	65				
Hopei	67	67	68	68	67	72	70				
Shantung	67	68	70	72	74	75	75				
Kiangsu	40	40	37	40	42	45	39				
Anhwei	34	35	36	32	34	35	40				
Honan	56	56	53	56	59	59	58	45	48	51	59
Hupei	30	28	30	33	31	33	39	37	36	40	35
Szechwan	25	23	22	20	28	29	24	28	28	31	29
Yunnan	38	37	33	28	34	39	32	34	32	34	36
Kweichow	38	33	33	32	31	27	32	34	33	35	34
Hunan	28	26	26	24	23	22	27	26	27	28	29
Kiangsi	24	24	24	35	29	27	27	26	29	29	27
Chekiang	21	21	22	20	20	20	25	21	21	23	18
Fukien	27	26	27	25	27	25	26	27	25	26	25
Kwangtung	17	17	18	21	25	21	21	23	22	24	21
Kwangsi	32	31	31	32	34	39	41	44	41	41	44
Weighted Average (22 provinces)	46	46	45	46	47	46	46	46*	46*	47*	47*
Weighted Average (15 provinces)							37	35	35	37	37

*Weighted on the basis of investigations made in 15 provinces in those respective years and the investigations made in 1937 in Chahar, Suiyuan, Shansi, Hopei, Shantung, Kiangsu and Anhwei.

TABLE 59—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF FARMERS IN CHINA

(C) PART-OWNERS

PROVINCE	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941
Chahar	26	27	26	25	29	26					
Suiyuan	19	20	19	20	14	17					
Ningsia	9	9	14	14	13	19	16	11
Chinghai	19	21	23	25	26	28	30	21	24	18	25
Kansu	20	20	19	18	20	18	20	18	19	20	21
Shensi	23	23	22	22	22	20	21	21	20	20	20
Shansi	21	21	22	20	20	23	20				
Hopei	20	20	19	21	20	18	19				
Shantung	19	18	17	19	16	15	15				
Kiangsu	26	26	26	28	27	25	27				
Anhwei	21	19	19	27	22	23	23				
Honan	22	21	21	24	21	21	22	26	26	23	21
Hupei	30	30	32	28	31	26	25	24	22	25	23
Szechwan	19	19	19	22	19	20	24	22	23	21	23
Yunnan	27	27	28	31	28	25	26	29	27	26	28
Kweichow	23	22	25	25	26	28	24	25	24	27	25
Hunan	25	25	25	30	30	28	29	31	34	30	29
Kiangsi	30	30	30	35	36	33	35	33	30	36	37
Chekiang	31	31	33	33	32	33	30	35	36	37	41
Fukien	33	33	31	32	32	31	32	30	34	33	34
Kwangtung	26	26	24	30	32	33	32	35	36	38	33
Kwangsi	28	27	29	27	28	23	25	27	27	24	25
Weighted Average (22 provinces)	23	23	23	25	24	24	24	24*	24*	24*	24*
Weighted Average (15 provinces)							26	27	27	27	27

*Weighted on the basis of investigations made in 15 provinces in those respective years and the investigations made in 1937 in Chahar, Suiyuan, Shansi, Hopei, Shantung, Kiangsu and Anhwei.

Ever since the founding of the Chinese Republic in 1912, the number of tenant-farmers has been on an increasing scale. It has been due to: (1) the increase of production, (2) the development of commercial economy and the invasion of rural society by commercial groups

followed by commercial capital in the form of large-scale purchases of land by merchants, (3) the pressure of high-interest loans, and (4) high rents. As a result, landownership became more and more concentrated in the hands of a small section of the people.

Since the war began in 1937, the number of tenant-farmers in the 15 interior provinces has been first increasing and then decreasing. The slight decrease of the number of tenant-farmers was due to several reasons: First, the position of the tenants has been much alleviated following the rise of the prices of agricultural products. Their purchasing power has been increasing. Second, the tenants have had more chances to earn a living as laborers on transportation, communication, or war projects. Conscription and labor services have also produced effects on the supply of farm labor. Third, following the stabilization of the war situation, many refugee-farmers have returned to their native places to till their own lands.

No drastic measures were adopted for land tenure reform until recently when the Government began to solve the increasingly acute land problem. The *Land Law*, promulgated by the National Government in 1930 and enforced in 1936, stipulates:

- (1) That the tenant has first choice to the land he rented in case the original owner sells it;
- (2) That if the original owner is absent from his land, the tenant may buy the land in accordance with law after the latter tills it for ten or more years;
- (3) That land rent should not exceed 37.5 per cent of the main produce of the land;
- (4) That the farmers individually or collectively may make use of uncultivated public land, but they are not allowed to own it;
- (5) That the rate of taxation on improved farm land should be one per cent of its value, that on the unimproved land from 1.5 to 10 per cent;
- (6) That the tenant has the right to extend the term of contract indefinitely unless the owner takes back the land for his own operation at the expiration of the contract;
- (7) That the tenant is free to make any improvement on the land and he will be compensated for it by the owner;

- (8) That the tenant cannot be evicted unless he does not pay the rent for two years or he has not cultivated the land for one whole year without an acceptable reason.

II. Systems of Paying Land Rent.

There are three systems of paying land rent, namely, cash rent, crop rent and share rent. When a tenant rents his land by paying a fixed amount of money per *shih mow* to his landlord, it is cash rent. If he pays a fixed amount of cereals produced on the land, it is crop rent. If he divides the crops raised on his rented land with his landlord at a fixed ratio, it is share rent.

Investigations regarding the systems of paying rent have not been made in wartime. The latest study was made in 1934 by the National Agricultural Research Bureau. The results still prevail despite the war because during wartime there have been no drastic land changes.

According to the investigations, the most prevalent system of paying rent in China is crop rent, comprising 50.7 per cent of the total. Share rent comes second, while cash rent has the lowest ratio.

Cereals to be presented to the landlords as rent vary from place to place. In Central and South China, they are mostly rice and wheat. In North China, they are wheat, millet, kaoliang, and corn. The kinds and amount of cereals given in share rent also vary in accordance with crop conditions and the productivity of the land. The crop and share rent varies from 30 to 70 per cent of the total production. In general, if the tenants are not provided with anything but the land, the landowners get from 40 to 60 per cent of the production under the crop and share rent systems.

Figures in Table 61 cannot be interpreted on their face value, for conditions vary greatly from place to place. Tenant farmers in many Central and South China provinces only have to supply labor, while some North China farmers have to build their own houses and supply all cattle, horses, implements.

seeds and other necessities. (See Tables 60, 61 and 62.)

TABLE 60—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THREE KINDS OF RENTING SYSTEMS

PROVINCE	Number of <i>Hsien</i> Reported	Cash Rent	Crop Rent	Share Rent
Chahar	6	18.7	51.6	29.7
Suiyuan	9	31.2	23.1	45.7
Ningsia	5	46.1	18.5	35.4
Chinghai	7	10.6	53.8	35.6
Kansu	21	14.3	51.2	34.5
Shensi	51	15.1	59.0	25.9
Shansi	78	27.0	46.3	26.7
Hopei	107	52.3	21.6	26.1
Shantung	83	30.4	30.5	39.1
Kiangsu	48	27.6	52.9	19.5
Anhwei	42	14.1	52.5	33.4
Honan	71	16.5	39.5	44.0
Hupei	28	20.2	58.0	21.8
Szechwan	58	26.4	57.8	15.8
Yunnan	31	14.0	61.1	24.9
Kweichow	21	9.6	39.9	50.5
Hunan	39	7.4	74.2	18.4
Kiangsi	24	7.1	80.1	12.8
Chekiang	44	27.2	65.7	7.1
Fukien	28	19.2	55.5	25.3
Kwangtung	39	23.9	58.4	17.7
Kwangsi	39	6.3	65.2	28.5
Average	879	21.2	50.7	28.1

TABLE 61—MODEL RENT PER SHIH MOW AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE AVERAGE LAND VALUE

PROVINCE	Cash Rent	Crop Rent	Share Rent
Chahar	2.9	4.4	6.9
Suiyuan	6.4	14.4	12.0
Ningsia			
Chinghai			
Kansu	11.4	12.0	13.7
Shensi	10.1	13.0	12.6
Shansi	6.2	5.9	6.2
Hopei	7.3	7.6	8.1
Shantung	16.0	18.8	20.8
Kiangsu	8.7	7.8	12.8
Anhwei	9.4	9.4	16.4
Honan			
Hupei	8.3	6.8	13.6
Szechwan	11.4	14.5	16.9
Yunnan	13.9	16.6	16.8
Kweichow	6.2	13.4	12.1
Hunan	17.4	17.4	28.5
Kiangsi	19.2	18.1	36.8
Chekiang	9.6	10.3	13.2
Fukien	17.8	19.9	21.0
Kwangtung	17.0	19.0	15.4
Kwangsi			
TOTAL	11.0	12.9	14.1

TABLE 62—SHARE RENT—PERCENTAGE OF CROPS SHARED BY LANDOWNERS

PROVINCE	Below 30%	30—40%	40—50%	50—60%	60—70%	Above 70%
Chahar	10.0		70.0	10.0		
Suiyuan		31.2	43.7	6.3	12.5	6.3
Ningsia	77.8		22.2			
Chinghai		22.7	59.2	9.1	4.5	4.5
Kansu		34.1	53.7	4.9	4.9	2.4
Shensi	1.8	16.3	70.3	8.1	3.5	
Shansi		8.0	52.1	24.8	14.3	0.8
Hopei	1.7	5.4	60.8	6.9	16.0	9.2
Shantung		5.7	69.8	3.4	9.4	11.7
Kiangsu		23.8	63.1	11.3	1.8	
Anhwei	2.2	26.4	58.6	10.7	2.1	
Honan	0.9	4.0	68.3	11.0	13.6	2.2
Hupeh		30.3	60.7	5.4	3.6	
Szechwan		1.2	45.8	28.9	21.7	2.4
Yunnan		7.9	89.5		2.6	
Kweichow	4.2	27.1	60.4	6.2		2.1
Hunan		14.3	60.4	16.5	5.5	3.3
Kiangsi	3.5	24.1	62.1	6.9	3.4	
Chekiang		25.5	66.0	6.4	2.1	
Fukien	5.4	25.8	37.6	19.3	9.7	2.2
Kwangtung		15.8	73.7	8.8	1.7	
Kwangsi	1.2	16.7	69.0	10.7	2.4	
TOTAL	1.5	12.7	61.7	10.7	9.4	4.0

III. *Farm Organization.* Farm organization in China is characterized by: (1) the prevalence of minute holdings of land, (2) abundant labor supply, and (3) lack of capital which in turn keeps the Chinese family farm prevailing throughout the centuries.

On the family farm, it is usually found that five or six persons work on an area of from 10 to 20 *shih mow* of land with the help of one or two animals. They may also engage themselves in

handicrafts for additional income or for home consumption.

The *morcellement* of land is a distinct feature of Chinese farm management, which is generally regarded as the root of poverty in rural China. The size of farms is extremely small. Perhaps it is the smallest in the world, with the possible exception of Japan.

The latest survey concerning the size of farms in China was made in 1934

by the National Agricultural Research Bureau. Like the statistics on renting systems, this survey still represents the present situation.

According to reports from 891 *hsien* in 22 provinces, 35.8 per cent of farms consist of 10 or less than 10 *shih* *mow* of land. 25.2 per cent of farms has 11.20 *shih*

mow, 14.2 per cent. 21-30 *shih* *mow*, 16.5 per cent 31-50 *shih* *mow*, and only 8.3 per cent has more than 50 *shih* *mow* of land. Central and South China farms have even a smaller size than those in North China, since crop conditions and growing seasons are comparatively favorable. (See Tables 63, 64 and 65.)

TABLE 63—THE SIZE OF FARM AREA IN CHINA
(A) 22 PROVINCES

PROVINCE	No. of <i>Hsien</i> Reported	PERCENTAGE OF FARMS IN THE FOLLOWING SIZE-GROUPS.				
		1—10 <i>shih</i> <i>mow</i>	11—20 <i>shih</i> <i>mow</i>	21—30 <i>shih</i> <i>mow</i>	31—50 <i>shih</i> <i>mow</i>	Above 50 <i>shih</i> <i>mow</i>
Chahar	6	14.3	18.5	16.1	28.4	22.7
Suiyuan	11	4.6	5.2	10.3	21.6	58.3
Ningsia	6	15.6	13.6	11.0	32.2	27.6
Chinghai	7	20.8	22.4	16.6	27.2	13.0
Kansu	21	21.6	18.2	15.5	25.8	18.9
Shensi	51	24.8	19.9	15.9	25.7	13.7
Shansi	78	18.4	18.6	16.5	28.1	18.4
Hopei	107	26.4	23.1	18.0	22.9	9.6
Shantung	85	39.3	23.4	14.9	16.4	6.0
Kiangsu	48	40.5	31.2	11.9	11.3	5.1
Anhwei	42	35.3	27.6	14.2	14.4	8.5
Honan	73	29.3	23.2	17.1	20.8	9.6
Hupeh	28	49.9	33.9	8.9	5.1	2.2
Szechwan	59	39.2	33.6	14.2	8.5	4.5
Yunnan	31	58.0	29.7	6.8	3.4	2.1
Kweichow	21	49.7	30.8	11.0	5.5	3.0
Hunan	39	48.4	33.7	10.2	5.2	2.5
Kiangsi	24	47.2	33.5	10.7	5.2	3.4
Chekiang	45	53.5	31.4	8.4	4.7	2.0
Fukien	29	62.2	25.7	6.1	4.0	2.0
Kwangtung	39	62.1	26.5	6.5	3.1	1.8
Kwangsi	41	63.0	23.9	7.5	3.7	1.9
Weighted Average	891	35.8	25.2	14.2	16.5	8.3

TABLE 64—THE SIZE OF FARM AREA IN CHINA

(B) 12 NORTHERN PROVINCES

PROVINCE	Number of <i>Hsien</i> Reported	PERCENTAGE OF FARMS IN THE FOLLOWING SIZE-GROUPS						
		1-10 <i>Shih Mow</i>	11-20 <i>Shih Mow</i>	21-30 <i>Shih Mow</i>	31-40 <i>Shih Mow</i>	41-50 <i>Shih Mow</i>	51-100 <i>Shih Mow</i>	Above 100 <i>Shih Mow</i>
Chahar	6	14.3	18.5	16.1	15.3	13.1	10.0	12.7
Suiyuan	11	4.6	5.3	10.1	11.1	10.6	16.1	42.2
Ningsia	6	15.6	13.6	11.0	18.1	13.0	8.2	20.5
Chinghai	7	20.8	22.4	16.6	14.8	12.4	8.3	4.7
Kansu	21	21.6	18.2	15.5	14.1	11.7	10.4	8.5
Shansi	78	18.4	18.6	16.5	15.3	12.7	10.8	7.7
Hopei	107	26.4	23.1	18.0	13.3	9.6	6.6	3.0
Shantung	85	39.3	23.4	14.9	10.0	6.4	4.5	1.6
North Shensi	44	22.3	18.5	16.4	14.7	13.1	9.0	6.0
North Kiangsu	13	24.7	22.3	17.9	14.5	10.4	6.7	3.5
North Anhwei	9	27.1	22.4	16.7	12.8	10.4	7.7	2.9
North Honan	60	28.0	21.0	18.0	13.0	10.0	7.0	3.0
Weighted Average	447	27.1	21.5	16.8	13.1	10.0	7.2	4.3

TABLE 65—THE SIZE OF FARM AREA IN CHINA

(C) 14 SOUTHERN PROVINCES

PROVINCE	Number of <i>Hsien</i> Reported	PERCENTAGE OF FARMS IN THE FOLLOWING SIZE-GROUPS						
		1-5 <i>Shih Mow</i>	6-10 <i>Shih Mow</i>	11-15 <i>Shih Mow</i>	16-20 <i>Shih Mow</i>	21-30 <i>Shih Mow</i>	31-50 <i>Shih Mow</i>	Above 50 <i>Shih Mow</i>
South Shensi	7	24.9	22.1	17.9	14.5	11.0	7.0	2.6
South Kiangsu	35	20.2	26.2	20.3	14.2	9.6	6.2	3.3
South Anhwei	33	18.3	20.5	6.4	13.4	13.1	10.7	7.6
South Hunan	13	16.1	17.7	15.1	14.9	15.5	12.6	8.1
Hupeh	28	24.9	25.0	19.7	14.2	8.9	5.1	2.2
Szechwan	59	20.3	18.9	17.2	16.4	14.2	8.5	4.5
Yunnan	31	33.2	24.8	18.3	11.4	6.8	3.4	2.1
Kweichow	21	27.3	22.4	16.0	14.8	11.0	5.5	3.0
Hunan	39	22.6	25.7	18.9	14.8	10.2	5.3	2.5
Kiangsi	24	22.1	25.1	19.3	14.2	10.7	5.2	3.4
Chekiang	45	30.1	23.4	18.7	12.7	8.4	4.7	2.0
Fukien	29	34.3	27.9	16.2	9.5	6.1	4.0	2.0
Kwangtung	39	34.6	27.5	15.4	11.0	6.5	3.1	1.9
Kwangsi	41	38.1	24.9	13.8	10.1	7.5	3.7	1.9
Weighted Average	444	25.7	23.8	17.6	13.4	10.0	6.1	3.4

IV. Farm Prices and Purchasing Power. Chinese Farmers are far better off today than they were before the outbreak of the war in 1937, for their purchasing power has been increasing steadily. They are now able to pay off the high-interest debts that have been the greatest handicap to better farming ever since 1921, when the prices of agricultural products began to slump. After the adoption of the legal tender in 1935, the situation improved slightly. The war has brought China's industrial enterprises to the interior where, as a consequence, rural economy has been revitalized with an increasing demand

for farm products for both industrial and consumption purposes.

The farmers now have more money. They are wearing better clothes, eating better food and enjoying better living conditions. Take farmers near Chungking, for instance. They can exchange one picul of rice for 100 feet of blue shirting, almost ten ploughs, over 100 catties of salt, or one-third of a buffalo. Even in the second half of the year, when all crops have been harvested and agricultural prices begin to drop, they are not short of money. (See Tables 66 and 67.)

TABLE 66—FARM PRICE QUOTATIONS OF 11 IMPORTANT COMMODITIES IN EIGHT LOCALITIES IN DECEMBER, 1941

(Unit: Dollars)

COMMODITIES SOLD BY FARMERS—	Pahsien, Szechwan	Jungchang, Szechwan	Loshan, Szechwan	Pishan, Szechwan	Tsingning, Kansu	Wuchuan, Kweichow	Lingling, Hunan	Yingtak, Kwangtung
Wheat (each picul)	365.40	394.60	279.20	370.00	80.00	142.00	140.00	39.50
Rice (each picul)	351.80	307.90	279.20	370.00		198.80	114.00	98.80
Cotton (each picul)	1,005.60	1,340.80			610.00	712.30	460.00	
Hog (each head)	300.00	450.00		780.00	180.00	400.00	150.00	300.00
COMMODITIES BOUGHT BY FARMERS—								
Kerosene (each catty)	41.90		20.95	24.00				12.98
Blue Shirting (each foot)	2.25	1.40		1.40	1.10	1.00	0.96	3.22
Salt (each catty)	2.26	2.50	1.68	2.80	3.00	3.35	5.70	3.11
Matches (10 packages)	2.00	3.50	3.00	1.50	11.00	2.00	5.00	5.00
Tea (each catty)		7.00	4.19	5.50	18.00	3.35	1.44	0.87
Buffalo (each head)	1,100.00	1,450.00	1,200.00	1,000.00		500.00	440.00	320.00
Plough	45.00	10.00		45.00	3.00	10.00	5.00	3.50

Source: The National Agricultural Research Bureau

TABLE 67—FARM PRICE QUOTATIONS OF 11 IMPORTANT COMMODITIES IN EIGHT LOCALITIES IN JULY, 1942

(Unit: Dollars)

COMMODITIES SOLD BY FARMERS—	Jungchang, Szechwan	Loshan, Szechwan	Pishan, Szechwan	Lintao, Kansu	Weinan, Shensi	Wuchuan, Kweichow	Hengyang, Hunan	Yingtak, Kwangtung
Wheat (each picul)	254.20	320.00	370.00	129.10	319.00	113.60	213.40	138.30
Rice (each picul)	418.40	320.00	450.00			213.00	320.00	90.00
Cotton (each picul)		1,900.00			550.00	1,005.60	800.00	
Hog (each head)	850.00		1,170.00	500.00	190.00	800.00	600.00	600.00
COMMODITIES BOUGHT BY FARMERS—								
Vegetable Oil (each catty)	7.00	8.00	8.40	4.19		4.61	4.40	6.92
Blue Shirting (each foot)	3.50		2.50	1.37	2.55	2.00	4.70	6.44
Salt (each catty)	4.00	3.20	3.70	1.51	3.00	6.54	10.00	7.35
Matches (10 packages)	6.00	6.00	5.00	4.00	7.00	7.00	16.00	15.00
Tea (each catty)		5.00	14.00		60.00	6.70	6.00	4.60
Buffalo (each head)	3,000.00	3,000.00	1,600.00		16.00	1,000.00	860.00	800.00
Plough	18.00		50.00	7.00		14.00	18.00	10.00

Source: The National Agricultural Research Bureau

Before 1937, farm prices in interior China were on an upward trend. Following the outbreak of hostilities, prices obtained by the farmers fluctuated in accordance with crop conditions. Violent changes happened in 1939, when farm prices registered a 50 per cent increase throughout the country, particularly in Szechwan and Sikang. Yaan, eastern Sikang, saw an increase of 80 per cent. Prices paid by the farmers presented no obvious changes before 1937. The effect of the war was felt, however, as early as January, 1938, when most of the government and public organizations moved westward. In 1939, index numbers of prices paid by the farmers increased by 60 to 80 per cent. Prices doubled in some localities. In such circumstances, the purchasing power of the farmers naturally decreased as the prices received by the farmers rose slower than those paid by them. The year 1939 clearly demonstrated this. To give but a few examples: At Liangshan, eastern Szechwan, the farmers' purchasing power in 1939 was reduced by 50 per cent compared with 1937. In Jungchang and Chusien, the reduction was 45 per cent.

The farmers' purchasing power began to rise in 1940, when food prices started to mount with an accelerating speed. In 1941, the farmers had more money than in pre-war days. The first seven months of 1942 saw a still greater increase in their purchasing power, as prices received by the farmers were higher than those paid by them. It decreased slightly, however, in the summer of 1942, after the summer crops had been harvested. (See Tables 68, 69 and 70.)

TABLE 68—INDEX NUMBERS OF FARM PRICES RECEIVED BY FARMERS IN 14 PROVINCES

(1937=100; Weighted Geometric Average)

YEAR	Szechwan	Jungchang, Szechwan	Loشان, Szechwan	Hweili, Sikang	Wuchow, Kweichow	Mengt'z, Yunnan	Kueibei, Hupei	Hengyang, Hunan	Lingling, Hunan	Kanhsien, Kiangsi	Nanping, Fukien	Yingtak, Kwangtung	Hochih, Kwangsi	Ningsia, Sining	Chinghai, Kansu	Lintao, Kansu	Tsingning, Kansu	Hengshan, Shensi	Weinan, Shensi
1938	105	105	104	135	82	127	153	108	116	88	100	113	128	90	111	111	109	91	80
1939	127	99	107	201	108	305	250	148	181	116	130	107	173	77	117	126	151	147	109
1940	370	385	462	607	292	853	441	278	283	334	410	258	401	108	205	197	202	311	196
1941																			
1942	2076	2012	2275	1161	1287	1219	1012	793	874	1043	1142	778	1043	437	631	585	698	812	570
January	3149	3310	3314	2991	3235	1758	2313	1946	1992	1404	1817	1260	2840	736	690	877	1255	1264	1357
February	3173	3314	3501	3035	3413	2164	2409	2032	2139	1407	1908	1260	3052	776	714	1041	1449	1370	1375
March	3454	4439	4194	3100	3809	3636	2972	2204	2528	1555	1935	1566	3376	714	756	1268	1423	1567	1788
April	3941	4277	4455	2595	4145	4989	2991	2255	2729	1572	1920	1548	3450	689	1164	1366	1476	1570	1671
May	4089	4233	4237	3171	4720	5768	3606	2736	3089	1590	1668	2366	3946	767	1294	1324	1507	1563	1888
June	4183	3963	4053	3537	4349	5432	3179	2900	3665	1682	1691	2519	4337	860	1547	1335	1565	1545	1375
July	3954	3931	4529	2879	3780	5799	3540	3228	3045	1561	1638	1920	4293	855	1814	1440	1599	1560	1861

Source: The National Agricultural Research Bureau

TABLE 69—INDEX NUMBERS OF FARM PRICES PAID BY FARMERS IN 16 PROVINCES

(1937=100; Weighted Geometric Average.)

YEAR	Pishan, Szechwan	Jungchang, Szechwan	Loshan, Szechwan	Hweili, Sikang	Wuchow, Kweichow	Mengt'sz, Yunnan	Kueibeng, Hupei	Hengyang, Hunan	Lingling, Hunan	Kanhsien, Kiangsi	Nanping, Fukien	Yingtak, Kwangtung	Hochih, Kwangsi	Ningsia, Shing, Chinghai	Lintao, Kansu	Tsingning, Kansu	Hengshan, Shensi	Weihsai, Shensi
1938	124	116	122	131	107	141	132	142	114	111	114	109	133	118	122	144	129	169
1939	148	180	191	183	149	289	224	204	194	140	144	159	169	132	141	172	142	243
1940	264	590	723	494	289	730	471	403	369	310	350	363	358	192	292	347	287	499
1941	561	1752	2057	1141	730	1389	899	1007	765	662	947	910	718	600	745	839	669	1206
1942	939	2865	3053	1829	1838	2425	1493	1932	1710	1027	1624	1347	1649	778	999	1061	1016	1800
January	980	3210	3159	1961	1986	2523	1406	2473	1735	1137	1778	1271	1862	904	1028	1139	1109	1926
February	1051	3507	4012	2118	2291	2528	1707	2571	1774	1224	1865	1942	2088	1081	1101	1334	1454	2584
March	1166	3954	4290	2300	2668	3814	1983	2576	2011	1453	2007	2074	2242	1152	1391	1526	1630	2694
April	1458	4770	4893	2418	3110	3989	2067	2875	2117	1618	2047	2736	2463	1148	1482	1495	1711	2743
May	1487	4237	5463	2745	3103	4259	2216	3333	2623	1789	2153	2948	3254	1265	1684	1520	1463	2859
June	1569	4399	5861	2938	3130	4438	2795	3627	3117	1896	2347	2930	3148	1169	1884	1652	1638	3045
July.																		

Source: The National Agricultural Research Bureau

TABLE 70—INDEX NUMBERS SHOWING FARMERS' PURCHASING POWER IN 14 PROVINCES

(1937=100; Weighted Geometric Average.)

YEAR	Pishan,	Jungchang,	Loشان,	Hweili,	Sikang,	Wuchow,	Mengt'sz,	Yunnan,	Kueibeng,	Hupeh,	Hengyang,	Lingling,	Hunan,	Kanhsien,	Nanping,	Yingtak,	Kwangtung,	Hochih,	Ningsia,	Sinling,	Chinghai,	Lintao,	Kansu,	Tsingning,	Hengshan,	Shensi,	Weihsai,
1938	87	91	85	103	77	77	106	90	116	112	76	102	93	79	88	104	86	96	76	95	71	91	76	71	47	47	47
1939	74	55	56	110	72	72	117	106	112	94	69	93	88	83	90	67	102	102	58	83	83	73	100	104	45	45	45
1940	81	65	111	123	78	78	117	117	94	113	79	77	77	108	117	71	112	112	55	71	71	57	89	105	39	39	39
1941	130	115		141	145	145	145	88	113	113	79	114	114	158	124	85	145	145	73	85	85	70	119	121	47	47	47
1942—																											
January	121	116	109	164	172	172	72	72	155	155	101	97	123	137	112	94	94	160	95	69	69	83	132	124	75	75	75
February	120	119	111	155	172	172	106	106	171	171	82	123	123	124	107	102	102	164	86	69	69	91	145	124	71	71	71
March	120	127	105	146	186	186	131	131	166	166	86	142	142	127	104	81	81	162	66	69	69	95	130	106	69	69	69
April	125	108	87	126	155	155	131	131	156	156	87	135	135	108	96	75	75	154	61	84	84	90	124	106	62	62	62
May	120	89	104	131	152	152	148	148	174	174	75	146	146	98	81	76	76	160	67	87	87	89	109	109	51	51	51
June	116	94	85	129	140	140	123	123	146	146	87	140	140	94	79	85	85	135	68	91	91	88	107	98	43	43	43
July	99	87	77	132	118	118	131	131	127	127	89	129	129	82	70	66	66	136	93	96	96	87	111	107	61	61	61

Source: The National Agricultural Research Bureau

The year 1937 was chosen as the base period for the compilation of the index numbers because all localities selected were behind the war zone where the Japanese attack in North China in 1937 was little felt. Furthermore, farm prices are characterized by strong seasonal variations, unlike manufactured products in the urban districts. For instance, the 1937 winter crops were planted in September or October, 1936, and harvested in April or May, 1937. Any price fluctuations before the harvest were, therefore, partly affected by the conditions of the last crop in 1936. The same is true with the summer crops. Forty-six kinds of commodities are chosen to represent those sold by the farmers (crops and livestock products) and those bought by them (farm-using and home-using commodities).

V. Land Administration and Finance. China's land administration was not given a sound structure until June, 1942, when the National Land Administration was formally inaugurated under the Executive Yuan in accordance with a resolution adopted at the Ninth Plenary Session of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang.

After the establishment of the National Government at Nanking in 1927, land administration was handled by the land administration department of the Ministry of Interior. The organization of the committee on land problems jointly by the Ministries of Interior and Finance and the defunct National Economic Council in 1924 and the technical committee on land affairs of the Central Political Council in 1936 aimed chiefly at research and planning. The inauguration of the National Land Administration indicates the determination of the National Government to enforce Dr. Sun Yat-sen's policy of the equalization of land-ownership. Provincial land bureaus have been created in ten Free China provinces, while land administration departments have been added to the *hsien* government structure.

The National Land Administration is charged with the mission of carrying out Dr. Sun's land policy, with its watchword of the equalization of land-ownership. Dr. Sun's method for the realization of this principle includes :

- (1) That landowners make their own land value assessments.
- (2) That the government levy one per cent in accordance with

the assessments with slight variations to meet local social and financial needs.

- (3) That the government may buy back the land if the assessments made by the landowners are deemed too low.
- (4) That after the land values have been fixed, all increases in land values, or that is, from heavier taxation, should revert to the community, because the increases are due to the improvements made by society and to the progress of industry and commerce.
- (5) For the administration of farmland, the government should adopt measures to enable those who till the land to become its owners. Such measures may include the cultivation of wasteland and the limitation of the profits of the landowners through better protection of the tenant and independent farmers.

The National Land Administration is composed of four departments, namely, general affairs, land deeds, land value and land titles. The land deeds department is in charge of land survey, registration, investigation, replatting, and other matters pertaining to the record of land deeds. The land value department is in charge of the fixation of land values, land value assessments, the estimation of the value of improved land, the fixation of land value tax rates, and other matters pertaining to land value. The land titles department is in charge of the readjustment of land titles, the settlement of disputes over land titles, land expropriation, the control over land utilization, direction of land finance, and other matters pertaining to land titles.

The highest principles governing wartime land administration are outlined by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek in his *Outline for the Enforcement of Land Policy in Wartime*, adopted by the Ninth Plenary Session of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang in December, 1941. The Outline aims at :

- (1) The control of production through the collection of land value tax and land increment duties. The collection may be in kind. Readjustments are also to be made regarding the apportionment of profits between the

landowners and tenant-farmers in order to stabilize the livelihood of the farmers.

- (2) The control of landownership through land expropriation to meet the nation's wartime needs and promote public welfare. Measures are to be adopted to prevent the concentration of landownership in the hands of a small section of the people.
- (3) The control of land utilization to increase the production of needed materials.
- (4) The control of wasteland to exploit natural resources and to assisting in the relief of refugees.

The full text of the Outline follows :

OUTLINE FOR THE ENFORCEMENT OF LAND POLICY IN WARTIME

(Proposed by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek and adopted by the 9th Plenary Session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, in December, 1941)

The equalization of landownership is the main method of realizing Tsungli's (Dr. Sun Yat-sen) Principle of the People's Livelihood and should be put into practice. The land problem has become more important since the war began. It is our urgent duty to decide how to readjust the distribution of land and how to utilize it in order to meet wartime needs. The following Outline has been mapped out after consultations with organizations concerned, to be submitted to the session for adoption.

1. The Outline is mapped out for meeting wartime needs and enforcing our Party's land policy.

2. The organization in charge of land administration should strengthen the work of readjusting the record of land deeds and complete it in a fixed period of time.

3. Landowners should make their own land value assessments, in accordance with which a tax of one to two per cent will be levied. The tax will be progressive up to five per cent. Land increment value duties should be collected at a progressive rate upon the increase of land value.

4. For the supply of army rations and civilian consumption of food, land value tax on farm land may be collected in kind. During the period of the collection

in kind, the cereals should be turned over to the Central Government, which in turn will appropriate 50 per cent of the amount of cash previously collected in the *hsien* (or municipality) to the *hsien* (or municipal) government as subsidy.

5. For the realization of wartime economic policy or for the construction of public utilities, privately-owned land may be requisitioned at any time in accordance with the land value assessments made by the owners. Part of the price may be paid in state-issued land bonds.

6. The rate of land rent for privately-owned land should not exceed ten per cent of the assessment value made by the owners.

7. Land utilization is subject to limitation by the Government. The Government may restrict the kinds of crops to be cultivated on privately-owned farm land to meet the needs of the people's livelihood.

8. In principle, farm land should be tilled by the owners themselves. From now on, the transfer of land titles should be such that those who receive the land should be limited to actual tillers of the soil. The Government may buy back land whose transfer of land titles is not in accordance with this *Outline* and resell it to tenant farmers who may pay for it in instalments over a comparatively long period of time.

9. The organ in charge of land reclamation may open reclamation regions on wasteland which can be managed on a large scale, and supply the refugees from war areas, or those from the rear capable of tilling, with farm tools to settle on such cultivable land. The Government may levy a high land tax on privately-owned wasteland and at the same time order it to be utilized within a definite period. The Government may buy back such land, at a set price, with land bonds if the land is not utilized within the fixed period.

10. The organ in charge, of legislative affairs, using this *Outline* as a basis, should immediately enact regulations governing the enforcement, and the Central Government should, within a definite time, create an organ for land administration to enforce such regulations.

The work of the National Land Administration since its formal inauguration in June, 1942, has been confined to three aspects, namely, the

readjustment of the structure of provincial land administration, land replatting and readjustment of titles, and the protection of tenant-farmers. The collection of land value tax has begun in leading Free China cities.

With a limited machinery and personnel, the various provincial land bureaus, under the supervision of the National Land Administration, are conducting land replatting as a step to the readjustment of land titles. Work has been started in eighteen counties in Szechwan, seven counties in Kwangtung, three counties in Kwangsi, twelve counties in Hunan, and four counties each in Shensi, Kansu, Yunnan, Kweichow, Fukien and Kiangsi, totalling 64 counties. Peipei, an experimental district north of Chungking, has been designated as an experimental area for land replatting.

For the readjustment of land titles, the Executive Yuan has adopted *Regulations Governing the Readjustment of Land Titles*. The main points of these regulations are:

- (1) The procedure for the readjustment of the record of land titles is: (1) land survey, (2) land registration, and (3) fixing land values.
- (2) Land value assessments should be made simultaneously with land registration as a preliminary step toward the collection of land value tax.
- (3) The regulations are to be applied first in provincial capitals, municipalities, trading and communication centers, and places specified as having a tendency of a sudden rise of the land value.

Under the National Land Administration is the Land Value Assessment Bureau, formerly subordinate to the Ministry of Interior. The first and second periods of land value assessments had been completed, covering 124 municipalities and *hsien* in 13 provinces. Work was scheduled to begin in 24 more districts in October, 1942.

For the administration of land value assessments, the National Government promulgated *Regulations Governing Land Value Assessments in Time of Emergency* on December 11, 1941. The main points of these regulations are:

- (1) The procedure of land value assessments includes: (1) land

survey, (2) the fixing of a standard price, (3) land value assessments to be made by the owners, and (4) the compilation of land value records.

- (2) The standard price is to be fixed by a special committee composed of representatives of local authorities and local civic leaders.
- (3) Land value assessments should be neither 20 per cent. higher nor 20 per cent. lower than the standard price.
- (4) The standard price is to be used as the price of the land of those who do not make assessments.
- (5) The assessments are to be used as a standard for the collection of land value tax and land increment value duties immediately after the completion of the land value assessment procedure.
- (6) The collection of farm tax is to be abolished wherever the collection of land value tax is instituted.
- (7) Land value assessments are to be made once every five years with exceptions whenever violent changes in land prices occur.
- (8) Land registration undertaken to facilitate the collection of farm tax is to be abolished wherever land value assessment is introduced.

The Ministry of Finance has been conducting land registration for the purpose of the effective collection of farm tax. It had been completed in 328 *hsien* in 16 provinces by August, 1942, and 461 more *hsien* were covered at the end of 1942. As a result of the work in 1941, the acreage of registered farm land increased by 233 per cent and the amount of farm tax by 164 per cent. In many provinces, farmers pay \$0.33 for one *shih mow* of land as farm tax after the conclusion of the registration instead of \$0.48, the previous tax rate. New rates for the collection of farm tax after the registration increase the Government's revenue without increasing the burden of the people.

The program for land registration and the collection of farm tax will be abolished when the program of land value assessments is completed and the collection of land value tax is introduced.

The collection of land value tax has been made the chief task in 1942-1943 for the newly-created National Land Administration. The original plan mapped out by the Ministry of Interior estimated that the new tax would bring in receipts amounting to \$300,000,000 in the first year.

By October, 1942, the collection of land value tax had been instituted in Lanchow, Tienshui, Pingliang and Lintao in Kansu; Kukong, Namhsung, Linhsien, Chihing and Juyun in Kwangtung; Hengyang, Shaoyang and Siangtan in Hunan; Sian Sienyang, Paoki and Fengsiang in Shensi; and Chungking in Szechwan.

The Municipal Government of Chungking began to collect land value and land increment value taxes in July, 1942. During the last five years of the war Chungking witnessed a boom in land value due to growing industrial prosperity and increasing population. Between 1939 and 1941, the prices of land increased by from 15 to 20 times, varying from place to place. The aggregate value of the 110,000 *shih mow* of land in the old city area of the wartime capital was estimated at only \$200,000,000 in 1938. It mounted to \$500,000,000 in 1939, \$910,000,000 in 1940 and \$1,300,000,000 in 1941. It is still soaring.

Taking the increased value as the basis for taxation, the Municipal Government of Chungking levies 1.6 per cent on the land in the city area and 1.2 per cent on the land in the suburbs. Heavy rates will be imposed on unimproved land: two per cent. on such land in the city and 1.5 per cent. in the suburbs. Still heavier taxes will be collected from wasteland: 3.5 per cent. in the city and 3 per cent. in the suburbs.

For the protection of and assistance to tenant and independent farmers, the Central Government is deliberating on measures of giving farmers or farmers' cooperatives uncultivated land. The *Land Law* provides that the tenants have priority in buying land if it is for sale. Measures protecting the tenants include compulsory reduction of ground rent and limitation of the landowners' right to change or dismiss tenant-farmers. One of the recent examples of the creation of independent farmers is found in Kansu, where the Huanghui Canal was recently completed. The farmers are given 25 *shih mow* of land to be paid for in five years beginning

with the third year of ownership. The Huanghui Canal waters 300,000 *shih mow* of formerly poor-irrigated land. According to the regulations governing the distribution of the land, the 25 *shih mow* must be owned as one whole unit and must not be divided up by the family who owns it.

Handling land finance is the land finance department of the Farmers' Bank of China, founded in April, 1941, with a view to helping the enforcement of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's policy of the equalization of landownership. The *Regulations Governing the Administration of Land Finance by the Farmer's Bank of China* were promulgated on September, 1941. The full text reads:

REGULATIONS GOVERNING THE ADMINISTRATION OF LAND FINANCE BY THE FARMERS' BANK OF CHINA

(Promulgated by the National Government on September 9, 1941)

Article I. The present Regulations shall be enacted in accordance with the provisions of Article XI of the *Farmers' Bank of China Act*.

Article II. The Farmers' Bank of China shall be in charge of the administration of land finance for the purpose of assisting the Government in enforcing the policy of the equalization of landownership.

Article III. Land financial affairs shall be as follows:

- (1) The extension of loans for the purchase of land according to land value assessments made by the owners. Loans extended to land administrative organs for the purchase of falsely-assessed land in areas where the collection of land tax is enforced belong to this category.
- (2) The extension of loans for land expropriation. Loans extended to the state for the requisition of privately-owned land belong to this category.
- (3) The extension of loans for land replatting. Loans extended to land administrative organs for land replatting belong to this category.
- (4) The extension of loans for land improvement. Loans extended to the Government-owned wasteland or for long-term irrigation projects and loans extended to tenants or hired farmers cultivating

government-owned wasteland according to law belong to this category.

- (5) The extension of loans for the assistance of independent farmers. Loans extended to the Government for the purchase of land to create independent farmers and loans extended to farmers for the purchase or redemption of land to be cultivated by themselves, or loans extended to farmers for the expropriation of land approved by the Government according to law belong to this category.

Article IV. The land financial fund of the Farmers' Bank of China shall be ten million dollars (\$10,000,000), which shall be allotted in one appropriation from the portion of the capital of the bank subscribed by the Ministry of Finance. Whenever necessary, the fund may be increased upon the approval of the Ministry of Finance.

Article V. The accounting system of land financial affairs of the Farmers' Bank of China shall be entirely independent.

Article VI. The Farmers' Bank of China, for the administration of land financial affairs, may issue land bonds, the regulations governing the issuance of which shall be separately enacted according to law.

Article VII. The Farmers' Bank of China shall establish a committee for the scrutinization of land financial affairs to be under the Board of Directors.

Article VIII. The Farmers' Bank of China, in accordance with the present Regulations, shall enact detailed regulations governing land financial affairs to be subject to the approval of the Ministry of Finance.

Article IX. The present Regulations shall be enforced upon the date of promulgation.

With \$10,000,000 capital, the land finance department of the Farmers' Bank of China has undertaken the task of a full-fledged land credit bank. Land bonds issued by the Bank are as valuable as banknotes and can be used in investing in government enterprises and paying anything due to the Government.

The *Farmers' Bank of China Land Bonds Act* was promulgated on March 26, 1942. The gist of the act is as follows:

- (1) Land bonds shall be secured on the capital of the land finance department of the Farmers' Bank of China and the mortgages on land credited to the department.
- (2) The amount of land bonds issued shall not exceed the amount of land credit loans.

- (3) The bonds shall be in the denominations of \$50, \$100, \$500, \$1,000 and \$5,000, and may either be registered or unregistered.

- (4) The interest of land bonds may be lower than that of land credit loans, but the difference shall not be two per cent. lower.

- (5) The interest of land bonds shall not be paid less than once each year.

- (6) The amount of land bonds to be repaid shall not be less than 80 per cent of the repaid land credit loans. The loans shall be repaid five years after the issuance.

- (7) Land bonds may be used as mortgages and securities in government affairs.

- (8) The issuance of land bonds shall be approved by the Ministry of Finance.

For 1942, the Farmers' Bank of China issued \$100,000,000 worth of land bonds with interest of six per cent, two per cent lower than the land credit loans. The bonds will be repaid in instalments in 15 years. They will be used in two ways: First, they will be used in payment for the purchase of land as a result of land expropriation and government assistance to independent and tenant-farmers. Second, they will be used in the open market as a means to absorb cash for land replanting and utilization.

For the present, the Government is concentrating its attention on land purchase as a result of low or false assessments, land expropriation and help to independent and tenant-farmers. The bonds issued in 1942 will be first used in Szechwan, Kwangsi, Kansu, Hunan and Fukien. Experiments have been conducted in Chungking, Pehsien, Peipei (Szechwan), Kweilin and Lanchow to help those who cultivate their own land. The Government can create more such independent farmers by reselling to the tenants the land it has bought back.

The issuing of land bonds in China is more or less similar to that in the United States, Britain, Germany and France with, however, a few modifications. One of the differences is that the Chinese land bonds will be used for the Government to buy back the land if the landowners make their assessments too low. This can be found only in China, constituting one of the striking features

of Dr. Sun's Principle of the People's Livelihood.

The Farmers' Bank of China is promoting the organization of land credit cooperatives in Szechwan, Kansu, Kwangsi, Hunan and Fukien, to extend loans to the peasants to buy or redeem land in order to enable them to become landowners themselves. Land credit cooperatives aim to organize tenants and farmers with no land to till. Through the cooperation of the China International Famine Relief Commission, these farmers are to be educated, organized and given loans to purchase land. Land credit cooperatives handle the purchasing for the farmers and give technical advice.

Seven farmers can organize a land credit cooperative which can borrow money from the Farmers' Bank at a low rate of interest. The loans may be repaid in fifteen years by instalments. Cooperative farms may be started by land credit cooperatives, if individual farmers are not able to buy a certain piece of land or if the land is too large for any single person or family to till. The idea of organizing land credit cooperatives is to increase the numbers of farmers who till their own land, one of the functions that the land finance department of the Farmers' Bank of China is performing.

The work of the land finance department of the Farmers' Bank of China is still in a preliminary stage. Branch offices of the bank in Chungking, Chengtu, Kwangsi, Kwangtung, Fukien, Kiangsi, Hunan, Hupeh, Kansu, and Shensi have created land finance divisions, while Chekiang, Kweichow, Sikang and Chinghai branches are investigating land and financial conditions in their respective provinces in preparation of establishing land finance divisions.

The work which has been carried on thus far may be summarized as follows:

1. *Chungking.* A total of \$3,000,000 in land bonds has been loaned to the Municipal Government of Chungking for land expropriation in the city area to build fire lanes to prevent the spreading of fires.

2. *Szechwan.* Peipei, a town north of Chungking, has been selected as a model district for the creation of independent farmers. With the cooperation of the Municipal Bureau of Peipei, land survey has been completed and plans have been made for

the establishment of farm units to be given to the farmers after the completion of procedures for land expropriation. A sum of \$2,000,000 has been appropriated for this purpose. Land replatting has been proceeding in the municipal area.

Loans for assistance to independent farmers have been extended in Pahsien with the cooperation of the China International Famine Relief Commission, totalling \$1,000,000. The Hsien government of Pahsien is negotiating for the granting of \$3,800,000 for land replatting.

The Szechwan provincial government has designated Penghsien and Mienyang in the western part of the province as experimental districts for assistance to independent farmers.

3. *Kansu.* The Kansu provincial government, after the completion of the Huanghui Canal, has borrowed \$4,000,000 from the Farmers' Bank of China, of which \$800,000 is in land bonds. The money was used for the purpose of helping farmers who wanted to purchase land in the area which the new irrigation project benefits. For soil improvement, the provincial government also borrowed \$2,000,000.

4. *Kwangsi.* The Kwangsi provincial government has designated Watlam, Chuanghsien and Kweiping as experimental districts for helping independent farmers. Work will be extended to Chungshan, Kungcheng, Linkwei and Maping. Special attention will be given to the extension of loans for the farmers to redeem their mortgaged land.

The Municipal Government of Kweilin has borrowed \$2,140,000 from the Bank for city land replatting as a step toward building more roads.

5. *Kwangtung.* The Municipal Government of Shaokwan Kukong has adopted the system of land nationalization in the municipal area. The Farmers' Bank is giving financial assistance to this experiment in expropriating all the land. Farmland replatting is being carried on in Linyang and Yeungshan, while measures will be adopted for the assistance of independent farmers in Namhsing, Linhsien and Chihing.

6. *Kiangsi.* Negotiations have been proceeding for the thorough enforcement of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's policy of assistance to independent farmers between the local government and the Farmers' Bank. Work will be started first in Kanhsien, Nankang, Sinfeng, Lungnan and Tayu.

7. *Fukien*. Farmland replatting has been progressing in Lungyen, southwestern Fukien, which was overrun a few years ago by the communists. Loans for helping independent farmers and land improvement total \$67,700,000, of which \$63,000,000 is in land bonds.

8. *Hupei*. The Hupei provincial government is borrowing \$2,000,000 from the Farmers' Bank for assistance to independent farmers.

VI. *Rural Finance*. Most important among measures that the Chinese Government has adopted in revitalizing rural economy in the interior are the extension of agricultural loans and the promotion of rural cooperatives.

The administration of the extension of rural credits is placed in the hands of the rural finance department of the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks. Rural credits were not extended on a large scale until 1940, when five financial agencies, namely, the Agricultural Credit Administration, the Central Trust, the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications, and the Farmers' Bank of China, participated in the matter. The Farmers' Bank of China took the lead by extending 35 per cent. of the loans in 1940. The Bank of China extended 25 per cent, the Bank of Communications and the Central Trust 15 per cent. each, and the A.C.A. 10 per cent. (See Table 71.) In January, 1941, rural credit affairs of the A.C.A. were absorbed by the Farmers' Bank of China. From July, 1942, the Farmers' Bank of China has been designated as the sole agent for the extension of rural loans. Other banks concluded their dealings in rural credits in August, and handed over such affairs to the Farmers' Bank in accordance with instructions from the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks.

For the extension of rural loans in 1942, the Joint Board promulgated the *Fundamentals Governing the Extension of Agricultural Loans in 1942*. The main points of these regulations are:

- (1) The extension of rural loans should be governed by two principles, namely, to observe a policy of retrenchment and to extend the loans for the purpose of directly increasing agricultural production.
- (2) Encouragement should be given to cooperative banks and societies to increase their capital.
- (3) The extension of loans should emphasize: (1) that the loans are given to the farmers without any misuse, (2) that the extension suits seasonal changes and fits for the increase of agricultural production, (3) that the procedure should be simple.
- (4) Loans should be extended to war areas and border regions.
- (5) Special attention should be given to the extension of loans for the construction of irrigation projects.
- (6) Loans may be given in kind, such as improved seeds and farm tools and instruments.

Regulations governing the actual extension of rural loans may be summarized as follows:

- (1) The various provinces are to be divided into a number of areas for the four financial agencies to grant loans separately. Exceptions may be made for those areas where the participation of two or more agencies is needed.
- (2) The Farmers' Bank of China is to extend 45 per cent of the loans, the Bank of China 25 per cent, the Bank of Communications and the Central Trust 15 per cent. each.
- (3) Contracts are to be concluded between the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks and the various provincial governments for details in extending rural credits in the respective provinces.
- (4) Loans are to be extended to (1) registered farmers' associations such as mutual aid societies and cooperatives, (2) agricultural improvement organs, schools and research institutes, and (3) registered farm, forestry and animal husbandry establishments.
- (5) Loans are to be classified as follows: (1) loans for agricultural production, (2) loans for the construction of irrigation projects, (3) loans for agricultural extension, (4) loans for the increase of agricultural by-products, and (5) loans for agricultural transportation and marketing.

- (6) Savings movement should be simultaneously promoted.
- (7) In extending loans to the co-operatives, a monthly interest rate of one per cent. is to be charged. The cooperatives in turn charge the farmers 1.2 per cent. monthly interest.
- (8) Loans are to be repaid in instalments in from one to ten years.

Farms loans extended in 1941 by the Farmers' Bank of China, the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications and the Central Trust amounted to \$498,561,000, according to a report made by the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks. Total loans outstanding at the end of the year reached \$465,306,000, a 50 per cent. increase over 1940. Loans extended in 1941 exceeded the originally fixed amount of \$447,215,000 by \$51,346,000. The credits spread over 948 *hsien* in 19 provinces, benefiting approximately 6,000,000 farmers through 100,000

cooperatives. Szechwan got the largest amount of \$157,526,000, 31.6 per cent. of the total loans issued. Hunan ranked second with Kwangsi, Kansu and Shensi following. The Farmers' Bank gave the largest amount of \$259,260,000 or 52 per cent. of the total. (See Tables 72 and 73.)

Loans for the increase of agricultural production took the major part of the credits. This category covered, however, a wide sphere, including loans for the increase of agricultural by-products, for the tenant-farmers to purchase land, and for agricultural supply and transportation. In fact, irrigation loans as a single item amounted to \$30,368,698, while the amount set aside for irrigation loans in 1941 totalled \$62,200,000. Irrigation projects completed in 1941 as a result of the financial assistance from the government banks numbered 1,801, big and small, benefiting 391,090 *shih mow* of farms. Two hundred and fifty-eight more are scheduled to be completed in 1942 to water 1,936,743 *shih mow* of land. (See Tables 74 and 75.)

TABLE 71—DISTRIBUTION OF AGRICULTURAL LOANS IN 1940

(Unit : Dollars)

PROVINCE	Central Trust	Bank of China	Bank of Communications	Farmers' Bank	A. C. A.*	Total	Percentage
Szechwan	5,150,000	20,893,000	6,841,709	31,484,000	16,377,676	80,746,385	88.54
Sikang				847,000		847,000	0.40
Kweichow	650,000	281,000	40,000	7,527,000	5,725,589	14,223,589	6.79
Kwangsi	131,000	3,280,000	574,999	2,680,000	5,912,798	12,578,797	6.00
Ningsa	30,000	100,000	30,000	248,000		406,000	0.19
Yunnan		4,052,000	8,152	3,235,000	578,881	7,874,033	3.76
Hunan		7,89,000	1,322,600	4,894,000	4,199,742	218,306,34	8.74
Kiangsi	15,000	1,320,000	103,600	8,668,000	1,278,840	11,385,440	5.43
Kwangtung		218,000	118,444	268,000		604,444	0.29
Chekiang		2,030,000	647,041	2,196,000		4,873,041	2.33
Honan		1,252,000		2,610,000	713,531	4,575,531	2.18
Shensi		650,000	1,924,093	8,803,000	1,774,69	13,51,783	6.28
Kansu		1,440,000		8,271,000		9,711,000	4.64
Kiangsu		1,628,000	83,545	250,000		1,961,545	0.94
Anhwei		1,223,000		7,216,000		8,439,000	4.03
Hopei		1,414,000				1,414,000	0.68
Suiyuan		57,000				57,000	0.03
Shantung		3,226,000				3,226,000	1.54
Hupei		196,000	220,000	6,352,000	1,293,635	8,061,635	3.85
Fukien				1,192,000		1,192,000	0.57
Shansi		200,000		2,000		202,000	0.10
Other Provinces			665,602			665,602	0.32
Szechwan-Kweichow-Shensi-Hunan Area	5,000,000					5,000,000	2.39
TOTAL	10,976,000	51,350,000	12,579,785	96,741,000	37,855,382	209,502,167	100.00
PERCENTAGE	5.24	24.51	6.000	46.18	18.07	100.00	

* Agricultural Credit Administration. Its figures represent loans outstanding at the end of October, 1940, after which date the department of rural credit extension was transferred to the Farmers' Bank of China.

TABLE 72—DISTRIBUTION OF AGRICULTURAL LOANS IN 1941

(Unit: 1,000 Dollars)

ORGANIZATION	Loans Granted	Percentage	Total Loans Outstanding	Percentage
Central Trust	15,896	3.2	26,856	5.8
Bank of China	195,153	39.1	181,830	39.1
Bank of Communications	28,252	5.7	36,240	7.8
Farmers' Bank	259,260	52.0	220,380	47.3
TOTAL	498,561	100.0	465,306	100.0

Source: The Joint Board of the Four Government Banks.

TABLE 73—DISTRIBUTION OF AGRICULTURAL LOANS BY PROVINCES IN 1941

(Unit: 1,000 Dollars)

PROVINCE	Loans Extended	Percentage	Total Loans Outstanding	Percentage
Szechwan	157,526	31.6	147,777	31.8
Sikang	11,091	2.2	7,782	1.7
Kweichow	18,148	3.6	20,751	4.5
Yunnan	33,658	6.8	29,145	6.3
Kwangsi	50,791	10.2	47,867	10.3
Kwangtung	12,994	2.6	9,068	1.9
Hunan	56,300	11.3	45,989	9.9
Hupei	4,657	0.9	9,826	2.1
Kiangsi	19,895	4.0	20,175	4.3
Anhwei	8,300	1.7	14,404	3.1
Kiangsu	396	0.1	2,079	0.4
Chekiang	28,061	5.6	21,379	4.6
Fukien	3,737	0.7	3,492	0.7
Honan	8,770	1.8	7,456	1.6
Hopei			1,414	0.3
Shantung			3,226	0.7
Shensi	36,489	7.3	24,139	5.2
Kansu	44,281	8.9	45,843	9.9
Ningsia	1,514	0.3	1,048	0.2
Suiyuan	1,103	0.2	780	0.2
Shansi	850	0.2	1,002	0.2
Others			664	0.1
TOTAL	498,561	100.0	465,306	100.0

Source: The Joint Board of the Four Government Banks.

TABLE 74—CLASSIFICATION OF AGRICULTURAL LOANS IN 1941

(Unit: \$1,000)

ORGANIZATION	Loans Extended	Percentage	Loans Out- standing*	Percentage
Central Trust	9,436	2.6	25,949	4.5
Bank of China	155,048	43.3	230,584	39.4
Bank of Communications	28,682	8.0	44,639	7.6
Farmers' Bank of China	165,023	46.1	283,732	48.5
TOTAL	358,189	100.0	584,904	100.0

* 1940—August 1942.

Source: The Joint Board of the Four Government Banks.

TABLE 75—IRRIGATION PROJECTS FINANCED BY THE FOUR GOVERNMENT BANKS

PROVINCE	Projects Completed in 1941	Farms Benefited (<i>shih mow</i>)	Projects Completed in 1942	Farms Benefited (<i>shih mow</i>)
Szechwan	1,646	232,046	7	206,000
Kweichow	4	11,900	6	102,880
Yunnan			5	92,760
Kwangsi	27	49,700	5	135,800
wangtung			1	15,000
Hupeh			3	50,000
Kiangsi	123	88,864	1	44,000
Anhwei			212	68,927
Honan	1	8,580	3	269,000
Shensi			5	570,376
Shensi		...	5	570,376
Kansu			10	382,000
TOTAL	1,801	391,090	258	1,936,743

Source: The Joint Board of the Four Government Banks.

Aiming at increasing agricultural production, more loans are to be extended in 1943 for the development of irrigation, according to principles laid down by the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks. In extending loans, preference is given to those cooperatives and other farmers' organizations which are soundly organized. Rural savings business is simultaneously promoted, while rural cooperative banks are being strengthened by enlarging the membership and increasing the capital. Special attention is directed to the extension of agricultural loans to the war areas and border regions.

From January to August, 1942, rural loans extended by the four government financial agencies totalled \$358,189,000. Total loans outstanding at the end of August, 1942, amounted to \$584,904,000. New loans since August, 1942, have been handled solely by the Farmers' Bank of China, which has been leading all the banks in granting rural loans since the outbreak of the war in 1937. (See Tables 76, 77, 78 and 79.)

Handling irrigation projects financed by the government banks are either the provincial irrigation loan commissions organized by the Joint Board and the provincial governments, or the provincial water conservancy bureaus under the supervision of the Joint Board. Projects concerning two or more provinces will be undertaken by the National Water Conservancy Commission.

TABLE 76—DISTRIBUTION OF RURAL LOANS, JANUARY—AUGUST, 1942

(Unit: 1,000 Dollars)

PURPOSE	Loans Extended	Percentage
Agricultural Production	463,030	92.9
Irrigation	30,369	6.1
Agricultural Extension	4,162	0.8
Land Reclamation	1,000	0.2
TOTAL	498,561	100.0

Source: The Joint Board of the Four Government Banks.

**TABLE 77—DISTRIBUTION OF AGRICULTURAL LOANS BY PROVINCES
JANUARY—AUGUST, 1942**

(Unit: \$1,000)

PROVINCE	Loans Extended Jan.—Aug. 1942	Percentage	Loans Outstanding	Percentage
Szechwan	109,939	30.7	207,486	35.5
Sikang	7,597	2.1	10,232	1.7
Kweichow	8,478	2.4	17,432	3.0
Yunnan	21,527	6.0	33,552	5.7
Kwangsi	35,525	9.9	62,682	10.7
Kwangtung	7,937	2.2	7,866	1.4
Hunan	44,613	12.5	57,289	9.8
Hupei	4,116	1.2	12,244	2.3
Kiangsi	14,761	4.1	24,659	4.2
Anhwei	7,537	2.1	15,451	2.6
Kiangsu	15		2,564	0.4
Chekiang	12,110	3.4	21,222	3.6
Fukien	5,499	1.5	6,523	1.1
Honan	8,989	2.5	12,560	2.2
Hopei			1,845	0.3
Shantung			3,289	0.6
Shensi	35,052	9.8	44,291	7.6
Kansu	29,250	8.2	37,792	6.5
Ningsia	4,026	1.1	2,911	0.5
Suiyuan	1,218	0.3	1,349	0.2
Shansi			1,001	0.2
Others			664	0.1
TOTAL	358,189	100.0	584,904	100.0

Source: The Joint Board of the Four Government Banks.

**TABLE 78—CLASSIFICATION OF AGRICULTURAL LOANS
JANUARY—AUGUST 1942**

(Unit: \$1,000)

PURPOSE	Loans Extended	Percentage
Agricultural Production	266,391	74.4
Irrigation	49,916	13.9
Agricultural Extension	5,782	1.6
Agricultural Marketing	24,354	6.8
Land	386	0.1
War Area	7,555	2.1
Border Region	2,770	0.8
Others	1,035	0.3
TOTAL	358,189	100.0

Source:—The Joint Board of the Four Government Banks.

TABLE 79—IRRIGATION LOANS TO BE EXTENDED IN 1942

PURPOSE	Loans Extended by Joint Board	Appropriations by Provincial Governments	TOTAL
For new projects	\$47,120,000	\$11,080,000	\$58,200,000
For projects not completed in 1941	17,080,000	2,020,000	19,100,000
Loans outstanding at the end of 1941	13,676,302	6,400,000	20,076,302
TOTAL	\$77,876,302	\$79,500,000	\$97,376,302

Source: The Joint Board of the Four Government Banks.

The Joint Board of the Four Government Banks is giving loans to 317 co-operative banks in 13 provinces. The total capital of these banks amounted to \$59,302,493, of which \$44,648,970 came from the Farmers' Bank of China, the Bank of China, the Bank of Com-

munications and the Central Trust. In addition to the subscribed capital, the four organs have approved the granting of a loan of \$157,324,000 to these cooperative banks, of which \$95,387,320 has already been appropriated. (See Table 80.)

TABLE 80—DISTRIBUTION OF COOPERATIVE BANKS FINANCED BY GOVERNMENT BANKS
(December, 1941)

PROVINCE	Number of Cooperative Banks	Total Capital	Capital Allotted or Collected by the Four Financial Agencies
Szechwan	117	\$30,326,901	\$24,345,250
Kweichow	52	5,226,612	4,860,815
Kwangsi	43	4,323,270	4,155,644
Hunan	26	2,599,060	2,410,580
Kansu	19	2,050,000	1,663,518
Shensi	16	1,600,000	1,456,340
Sikang	10	1,000,000	690,850
Chekiang	15	4,278,650	1,775,393
Fukien	2	1,600,000	491,850
Kiangsi	2	5,000,000	1,850,000
Hupei	6	600,000	556,760
Honan	2		
Yunnan	7	700,000	391,970
TOTAL	317	\$59,304,493	\$44,648,970

Source: The Joint Board of the Four Government Banks.

Of the 317 cooperative banks there are one municipal cooperative bank (Chungking) and four provincial cooperative banks (Szechwan, Kiangsi, Chekiang and Fukien). All others are *hsien* cooperative banks. About 100,000 cooperatives have dealings with them.

There were 172,295 rural cooperatives in China as at the end of September, 1942, with a membership of 10,473,500 and an aggregate capital of \$76,826,364, an increase of about ten per cent over 1941. During the past twelve years, the number and membership of rural cooperative societies increased by more than 100 times. (See Table 81.)

TABLE 81—DEVELOPMENT OF RURAL COOPERATION IN CHINA SINCE 1931

YEAR	Societies	Membership	Capital
1931	2,796	56,432	
1932	3,978	151,212	
1933	3,087	184,587	
1934	14,649	557,521	
1935	26,224	1,004,402	
1936	37,318	1,645,470	
1937	46,983	2,139,634	
1938	64,565	3,112,629	
1939	91,426	4,366,752	
1940	146,297	7,572,107	\$ 25,523,300
1941	155,647	9,373,676	48,302,078
1942			
September	172,995	10,473,550	76,826,364

Source:—The Cooperative Bureau of the Ministry of Social Affairs.

The administration of the cooperatives is handled by the Cooperative Bureau of the Ministry of Social Affairs. Provincial cooperative affairs are handled either by provincial cooperative bureaus or by reconstruction departments. Special sections are created under *hsien* governments to take care of the direction and supervision of the cooperative movement in the rural districts. Cooperative banks act as financial agencies for the promotion of cooperative organizations.

Eighty-two per cent of these societies is in the form of credit cooperatives. Cooperatives for agricultural production rank second. An outstanding feature in the development of cooperatives in 1941 and 1942 is the formation of town, village and *pao* cooperative societies under the New *Hsien* System. According to regulations governing the enforcement of the new administrative program for local government, to be completed by the end of 1942, each *pao* should organize at least one cooperative society. At the end of 1941, there were 7,141 New *Hsien* System cooperative societies with a total membership of 1,092,988. (See Tables 82, 83, 84 and 85.)

TABLE 82—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RURAL COOPERATIVES

(September 1942)

PROVINCE	Credit	Supply	Agricultural Production	Industrial Production	Marketing	Consumers'	Utility	Insurance
Chekiang	39.3	3.6	44.0	3.9	6.7	2.3	0.1	0.1
Anhui	65.7	1.8	13.6	6.6	8.5	3.7	0.1	
Kiangsi	79.4	0.7	2.0	8.2	4.3	5.2	0.1	0.1
Hupeh	72.3	0.1	23.1	0.8	2.1	1.6		
Hunan	92.6	0.1	2.6	2.3	0.9	1.5		
Szechwan	96.1	0.1	3.2		0.1	0.4	0.1	
Sikang	88.2	0.3	5.9	1.9	0.3	2.9	0.5	
Honan	50.6	2.5	11.6	21.7	3.5	6.2	3.8	0.1
Shensi	90.4	0.2	1.9	6.5	0.1	0.9		
Kansu	96.0	0.1	0.4	2.7	0.1	0.6	0.1	
Fukien	82.0	0.1	5.3	5.3	6.0	1.3		
Kwangtung	69.0	0.2	22.2	6.9	0.3	1.3	0.1	
Kwangsi	3.0		22.0	25.0		50.0		
Yunnan	89.4	1.1	4.5	4.4	0.1	0.4	0.1	
Kweichow	88.4	0.1	1.7	9.1	0.1	0.6		
Ningsia	98.6		1.4					
Suiyuan				50.0		50.0		
Chungking				14.0	0.1	85.9		
TOTAL	82.9	0.6	6.6	5.2	1.9	2.2	0.3	0.1

Source: The Cooperative Bureau, of the Ministry of Social Affairs.

TABLE 83—CLASSIFICATION OF COOPERATIVE LOANS

(Unit: Dollars : September, 1942)

PROVINCE	Total Loans Outstanding	Credit	Supply	Agricultural Production	Industrial Production	Marketing	Consumers'	Utility	Ordinary	Others
Chekiang	25,187,169	1,311,153	1,767,303	13,967,975	989,906	1,642,184	3,013,972	69,793	1,674,016	750,867
Anhui	2,403,692	231,670	113,880	1,275,422	339,000	216,760	159,160			67,800
Kiangsi	8,303,879	1,638,148	70,081	368,987	3,084,019	994,444	2,058,840	14,614	33,693	41,053
Hupei	13,425,414	6,179,911	59,393	4,976,451		278,129	38,551		1,802,558	90,421
Hunan	55,543,091	28,093,364	30,710	26,339,945	679,922	148,150	251,000			
Szechwan	32,614,563									32,614,563
Sikang	4,472,221									4,472,221
Honan	11,481,629	3,144,046		8,267,583	70,000	219,880				15,166,574
Shensi	19,302,081	3,915,627								1,585,072
Kansu	28,504,083	24,886,892	32,000	443,100	1,171,950	13,000	334,569	37,500		
Fukien	11,882,061	3,471,599		5,539,662	2,553,773	166,609	90,165			60,253
Kwangtung	33,241,792	4,246,546		24,665,530	1,687,733	69,000				3,172,983
Kwangsi	35,190,419	20,605,140	118,115	8,218,530	980,840	1,916,186	185,744	2,000		3,163,864
Yunnan	16,866,679									16,866,679
Kweichow	18,111,987	17,423,686	3,322	280,614	268,273	641	135,451			2,965,725
Ningsia	2,965,725									
Suiyuan	72,350	40,000		32,350						
Chungking	1,719,861				449,391		1,270,470			
TOTAL	321,288,696	115,187,782	2,194,804	93,776,149	12,274,807	5,664,983	7,537,922	123,907	3,510,267	81,018,075

Source: The Cooperative Bureau of the Ministry of Social Affairs.

TABLE 84—DISTRIBUTION OF RURAL COOPERATIVES IN FREE CHINA

(December, 1941)

PROVINCE	Total	Ordinary Coops	New Hsien SYSTEM COOPS		OTHERS		COOP UNIONS	
			Village or Town	Pao	Mutual Aid Societies	Prepara- tory Societies	Chu Unions	Hsien Unions
Chekiang	5,709	3,416	319	761		1,130	64	19
Anhwei	7,792	6,329	215	750	275		213	10
Kiangsi	10,753	9,852	214		269		355	63
Hupeh	11,926	8,125	26	195	2,203	1,311	65	1
Hunan	17,755	14,482	8	502	514	2,222	25	2
Szechwan	23,599	21,288	54	66		2,013	178	
Sikang	1,162	1,055		5		100	1	1
Honan	9,747	8,346	10		672	687	31	1
Shensi	11,542	7,309		230	3,392	598	7	6
Kansu	6,659	6,659						
Fukien	5,882	4,807	141	488	268		171	7
Kwangtung	6,339	993	108	1,819		3,412	1	1
Kwangsi	19,066	9,492	17	719	4,940	3,896		2
Yunnan	6,450	6,450						
Kweichow	10,427	9,717	47	102	519		27	15
Ningsia	359	300	2	57				
Suiyuan	299	2	14	272	11			
Chungking	181	171				7	1	2
TOTAL	155,647	118,798	1,175	5,966	13,063	15,376	1,139	130

Source: The Cooperative Bureau of the Ministry of Social Affairs.

TABLE 85—CLASSIFICATION OF RURAL COOPERATIVES IN FREE CHINA*

(December, 1941)

KINDS	Societies	Members	Capital
Ordinary Cooperatives	118,798	6,767,765	33,824,906
Credit	100,969		
Supply	656		
Producers'	12,599		
Marketing	2,115		
Consumers'	2,082		
Utility	371		
Insurance	6		
New Hsien System Cooperatives	7,141	1,092,988	9,233,206
Village or Town	1,175	580,339	5,842,955
Pao	5,966	512,649	3,390,251
Others	28,439	1,512,923	1,268,745
Cooperative Unions	1,269	20,697**	3,975,221
Chu Unions	1,139	17,330**	2,300,183
Hsien Unions	130	3,367**	1,675,038
TOTAL	155,647	9,373,676	48,302,078

* Figures for 18 interior provinces.

** Group Members.

Source: The Cooperative Bureau of the Ministry of Social Affairs.

The Cooperative Bureau of the Ministry of Social Affairs is endeavoring to achieve the results as required by the *Outline for the Organization of Cooperative Societies in Hsien and Administrative Units below Hsien*, promulgated in August, 1940, as a part of the New Hsien System. Special attention has been paid to the development of cooperatives for agricultural production. The main points of the *Regulations Governing the Promotion of Cooperatives for Agricultural Production*, are :

- (1) Besides investigation, planning and research, organs in charge of cooperative enterprises in various ranks of local governments should direct and supervise the organization of cooperative farm and cooperative societies. Cooperatives for the production of specified agricultural products and for the processing of agricultural products may be established whenever necessary.
- (2) Organs in charge of cooperative enterprises, in cooperation with agricultural improvement and research organs, should establish model cooperative farms.
- (3) Organs in charge of cooperative enterprises should assist in the organization of farmers' cooperatives and in land replatting as a step toward creating more independent farmers.
- (4) Cooperatives for agricultural production should pay adequate attention to the utilization of all available materials and to the increase of agricultural by-products.
- (5) Organs in charge of cooperative enterprises should from time to time readjust the prices of agricultural products.
- (6) Close cooperation should be maintained between agricultural production cooperatives and other kinds of cooperatives, particularly in meeting the needs of each other.
- (7) Organs in charge of cooperative enterprises should promote and direct insurance cooperatives for the protection and breeding of farm animals.

Considerable work has also been done in border regions and war areas. Organs have been created in Suiyuan, Ningsia, Chinghai and Sikang for the development of cooperative farms and societies. Credit cooperatives are to be organized first. Special cooperative enterprises committees have been created in various war zones for the development of rural cooperation and the extension of rural credits. Even in Shantung, the development of cooperative enterprise has not been stopped.

For the development of cooperative finance, the Cooperative Bureau, in collaboration with the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks, has been making preparations for the establishment of a Central Cooperative Bank. More than 400 provincial, municipal and *hsien* cooperative banks have been created.

A set of regulations has been adopted by the Central Government to guide cooperation between the Cooperative Bureau and the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks. The main points of these regulations are :

- (1) The Joint Board should use the reports on the development of cooperative enterprises in various provinces from the Cooperative Bureau as reference in the extension of rural loans.
- (2) The Cooperative Bureau should provide information from time to time for the Joint Board regarding the development of cooperative enterprises.
- (3) For the development of rural cooperatives in coordination with the extension of rural loans, the rural finance department of the Joint Board may offer suggestions to the Cooperative Bureau.
- (4) The Joint Board should supply a sufficient amount of credits for organs in charge of provincial and municipal cooperative enterprises to effectively carry out their programs.
- (5) The Joint Board may participate in the training of cooperative personnel.

CHAPTER XVI

PRICE AND COMMODITY CONTROL

Wartime price and commodity control in China may be roughly divided into four stages. The first stage covered the period from the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war in July, 1937, until January, 1938, when the Ministry of Economic Affairs was inaugurated. The second stage extended from February, 1938, to November, 1939, when the Government began to control the production and supply of important commodities. The third stage began in December, 1939, three months after the beginning of the European war, and ended in June, 1941, when the Government adopted stricter food control measures. The fourth stage commenced with July, 1941.

Commodity prices have been rising ever since the war broke out in 1937, especially after the Chinese abandoned Ichang in June, 1940. Government measures for the control of the supply and prices of commodities have undergone numerous changes, climaxed with the enforcement on May 5, 1942, of the *National General Mobilization Act* and its by-laws, when all materials relating to national defense and the people's livelihood were put under strict government control.

THE RISE OF COMMODITY PRICES

The rise of commodity prices in wartime

China has been parallel with the change of the war situation. It may be divided into six periods. They are:

I. From July, 1937 to February, 1938. In this period, the prices of commodities for both export and import fluctuated with but slight increases. The Government adopted measures for the control of the financial market as the seacoast was blockaded by the enemy and the Chinese foreign trade suffered a serious setback, resulting in the sudden disruption of both export and import. The Ministry of Finance promulgated the *Regulations Governing Financial Stabilization in Time of Emergency* on August 15, 1937, two days after fighting began in the Shanghai area, for the purpose of arresting the outflow of capital and stabilizing the circulation of money. Commodity prices rose only slightly despite the fall of Shanghai and Nanking. In some places prices even dropped. In Shanghai, for instance, index numbers of commodity prices decreased from 114.2 in December, 1937, to 112.8 in January, 1938. In Foochow, they decreased from 118.9 in September, 1937, to 104.8 in February, 1938. The base number of these indexes was 100 in January-June, 1937.

The following table shows the fluctuation of prices in the first period :

TABLE 1.—PERCENTAGE OF INCREASE OF INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES IN FOUR CITIES FROM JULY, 1937, TO FEBRUARY, 1938

	Chungking	Shanghai	Wuchow	Foochow
Total increase	20.6	9.7	3.0	2.8
Average monthly increase	2.6	1.2	0.4	0.3

II. From March, 1938, to December, 1938. In this period, the prices of ordinary commodities rose violently, but - those of agricultural products decreased. Due to activities in the

black market of foreign exchange following the establishment of puppet banks in North China, commodity prices increased from 15 per cent in February to 40 per cent in December. The increase may be seen in the following table :

TABLE 2.—PERCENTAGE OF INCREASE OF INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES IN FOUR CITIES FROM JULY, 1938, TO FEBRUARY, 1938

	Chungking	Shanghai	Wuchow	Foochow
Total increase	37.6	20.3	14.9	15.3
Average monthly increase	3.4	1.9	1.4	1.4

Despite the enemy's intensified blockade, the amount of goods imported through Hongkong and Canton was still considerable. But the prices of agricultural products sharply decreased, bearing

some effect on the agricultural production in the interior and reducing the farmer's purchasing power. The decrease of the prices of rice, wheat and soy beans in Chungking may be described as follows:

TABLE 3.—THE WHOLESALE PRICES OF RICE, WHEAT AND SOY BEAN IN CHUNGKING

	(Unit: dollars per picul)							
	March, 1937	June, 1937	September, 1937	December, 1937	March, 1938	June, 1938	September, 1938	December, 1938
Rice	13.30	13.30	11.37	11.07	11.67	11.40	8.90	8.60
Wheat	9.17	8.95	7.27	7.30	7.53	6.47	4.80	6.50
Soy beans	9.27	9.35	9.52	7.10	8.33	7.23	7.30	8.73

On October 6, 1938, the National Government promulgated the *Regulations Governing the Control of Agricultural, Mining, Industrial and Commercial Enterprises*, empowering the Ministry of Economic Affairs to fix an appropriate standard for the control of specified enterprises and commodities in accordance with the selling prices and legitimate profit. On October 9, a Price Valuation Committee was formed in Chungking indicating that the Government had been paying due attention to the rising commodities prices.

III. From January, 1939, to September, 1939. In this period, commodity prices rose swiftly due to the loss of

Canton and Hankow in the previous year. The Canton-Hankow railway lost its function of transporting export and import goods, while shipping along the Yangtze river was rendered more difficult than before. Both international and inland transportation began to rely entirely on airplanes, trucks, junks, human and animal power. Not only did transportation rates increase, but also the quantity transported was considerably reduced. The result was a further rise of commodity prices. Due to repeated bumper crops, however, the prices of agricultural products continued to slump and consequently the farmers' purchasing power became lower and lower. The following statistics show such tendency:

TABLE 4.—THE FARMER'S PURCHASING POWER IN FIVE LOCALITIES IN 1939 (1937=100)

	Jungchang, Szechwan	Hengyang, Hunan	Lintao, Kansu	Junghsien, Kwangsi	Wuchwan, Kweichow
1938	91	76	91	107	77
March, 1939	60	76	91	134	75
June, 1939	54	77	85	104	81
September, 1939	49	73	61	68	82
December, 1939	53	65	59	73	68

During the period, the basic policy relating to price and commodity control was to promote production. The Agricultural Production Promotion Commission of the Executive Yuan was very active, while the Ministry of Economic Affairs exerted much effort to removing factories from coastal regions and reopening them in the interior.

The Regulations Governing the Valuation of Commodities and the Suppression of

Speculation and Manipulation in Time of Emergency were promulgated in February, 1938. With these regulations as a basis committees on the valuation of the price of commodities were formed by the Government as a measure to check the rising commodity prices.

The price fluctuation in this period may be seen in the following figures:

TABLE 5.—PERCENTAGE OF INCREASE OF INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES IN FOUR CITIES FROM DECEMBER, 1938, TO SEPTEMBER, 1938

	Chungking	Shanghai	Wuchow	Foochow
Total increase	66.0	90.9	49.0	52.6
Average monthly increase	6.6	9.0	4.9	5.3

IV. From October, 1939, to June, 1940. In this period, food prices soared and other commodity prices rose with unabated speed. The Government concentrated its efforts on regulating the prices.

Shortly after the outbreak of the European war in September, 1939, the rate of foreign exchange of the Chinese

dollar was increased, resulting in a temporary stability of the price situation. The prices continued to rise only a few weeks afterwards, however, due to the further disruption of foreign trade and the increase of prices in foreign countries.

The price level in this period was as follows:

TABLE 6.—PERCENTAGE OF INCREASE OF INDEX NUMBERS OF
WHOLESALE PRICES IN FOUR CITIES
FROM OCTOBER, 1939, TO JUNE, 1940

	Chungking	Shanghai	Wuchow	Foochow
Total increase	95.6	65.9	101.8	99.9
Average monthly increase	10.6	7.3	11.3	11.1

The rise of food prices began to have far-reaching effects on the people's livelihood. The following statistics show the rise of food prices in this period:

TABLE 7.—THE RISE OF FOOD PRICES
(Unit: dollars per picul)

	Chengtu	Chungking	Kweiyang	Kweilin	Lanchow
Rice					
October, 1939	15.94	12.58	31.30	32.23	35.00
January, 1940	20.88	12.19	48.70	31.90	40.00
April, 1940	28.36	23.23	66.00	...	35.00
July, 1940	41.25	50.67	86.30	...	40.00
Wheat					
October, 1939	10.50	9.73	49.30	30.83	20.00
January, 1940	17.50	12.59	50.00	35.12	22.25
April, 1939	26.32	16.76	62.70	...	20.00
July, 1940	35.00	35.40	68.30	...	23.33
Wheat Flour					
October, 1939	17.20	15.87	42.00	35.62	42.05
January, 1940	20.80	19.34	41.00	42.46	52.84
April, 1940	30.00	26.96	60.00	...	54.55
July, 1940	46.00	56.82	73.00	...	50.75

The important measures adopted by the Ministry of Economic Affairs relating to price and commodity control in this period can be seen in the promulgation of the *Regulations Governing the Suppression of Profiteering in Daily Necessities* and the *Regulations Governing the Purchase and Sale of Daily Necessities at Equitable Prices* on December 5, 1939.

V. From July, 1940, to May, 1941. In this period, the cost of living rose sharply and the Government began to adopt food control measures.

The violent increase of food prices in this period was partly due to comparatively poor harvests in 1940 and partly

due to speculation and manipulation of foodstuffs by unscrupulous merchants.

After the fall of Ichang in June, 1940, the transportation of rice from Hunan became difficult, causing further increase of food prices. The rise of the cost of living is usually slower than the rise of commodity prices. But in this period, the rise of the living cost was even quicker than the rise of commodity prices; hence, the consumers, especially those with limited incomes, suffered the most.

The closure of the Burma road and the Japanese military occupation of northern Indo-China in the autumn of

1940 caused further rise of commodity prices in China. The loss of Shaohing, Ningpo and Foochow in April, 1941, rendered domestic trade increasingly

difficult. The supply of cotton yarn and piece goods became scarce. The price index numbers rose as shown in the following table :

TABLE 8.—PERCENTAGE OF INCREASE OF INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES IN FOUR CITIES FROM JUNE, 1940, TO MAY, 1941

	Chungking	Shanghai	Wuchow	Foochow
Total increase	142.6	68.6	114.6	153.6
Average monthly increase	11.9	5.7	9.5	12.8

(*Statistics of Foochow ended in April, 1941.)

The measures that the Government took in this period centered around food control and the regulation of food prices. The inauguration of the National Food Administration marked the Government's determination to check profiteering and speculation in foodstuffs.

The formation of the Economic Council under the Executive Yuan in February, 1941, as the highest organ for the control of prices and commodities indicated that the Government was undertaking a wholesale program for wartime economic control.

VI. From June, 1941 to the present: In this period, the Government has been strengthening measures for the control of every important material for the use of national defense and the stabilization of the people's livelihood.

The stabilization of food prices since June, 1941, is chiefly due to the thoroughgoing readjustment of food control and administration following the establishment of the Ministry of Food. The bumper harvest of 1941 was another important factor. The Third National Financial Conference held in June, 1941, adopted a resolution to enforce the collection of land tax in kind which, together with the compulsory purchase of foodstuffs from landowners by the Government, ensures the supply of army rations and food for civilian consumption.

The outbreak of the Pacific War in December, 1941, turned the situation in favor of China, but caused another jump of commodity prices.

Shortly before the outbreak of the Pacific War, the Economic Council of the Executive Yuan adopted a set of regulations governing price stabilization. With these as a basis, the Government established the Commodity Administration under the Ministry of Economic Affairs for the coordination of price and

commodity control as a step to meet the pressing situation after the loss of Hongkong as an outlet of China's foreign trade and the spreading of the war to the southern Pacific. The enforcement of the *National General Mobilization Act* in May and the reorganization of the Economic Council into the National General Mobilization Council brought the entire nation under full mobilization, marking the intensified effort of the Government to control price fluctuations and the supply of important commodities for both military and non-military purposes.

CONTROL MEASURES

Price and commodity control in wartime China are confined to four main fields: (1) control of national defense materials, (2) control of goods for export, (3) control of daily necessities, and (4) food control.

Government organs in charge of price and commodity control are as follows :

- (1) The Ministry of Finance : (a) The Foreign Trade Commission. Under the Commission are the China National Tea Corporation, the Foo Shing Trading Corporation, the Universal Trading Corporation and other organs. (b) The Salt Administration and its subsidiary organs. (c) Tobacco, sugar and match monopoly administrations and their subsidiary organs.
- (2) The Ministry of Economic Affairs : (a) The National Resources Commission. Under the Commission are the Tungsten Control Administration, the Antimony Control Administration, the Szechwan-Sikang Copper Control Administration, the Tin Control Administration, the Mercury Control Administration, and a number of other industrial and mining units.

(b) The Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration (c) the Commodity Administration. Under the Administration are the Agricultural Credit Administration, the Bureau for the Purchase and Sale at Equitable Prices, the Coal Control Administration, and Vegetable Oil Control Administration. The Commodity Administration was dissolved in December, 1942. Its functions were taken over separately by the Ministries of Finance and Economic Affairs.

(3) The Ministry of Food: (a) Provincial and municipal food administrations and food administrative departments of hsien governments. (b) Other subsidiary organs.

(4) The Transportation Control Administration of the National Military Council.

In charge of the planning and co-ordination of price and commodity control, aside from other affairs it undertakes, is the National General Mobilization Council, reorganized in May, 1942, from the Economic Council of the Executive Yuan after the enforcement of the *National General Mobilization Act*.

The following is a review of the four stages of price and commodity control in the past five years:

I. From July, 1937, to January, 1938. In this period, the Government devoted its entire effort to the readjustment of the production and supply of commodities to cope with the changed situation as a result of the outbreak of the war.

Based on the *Fundamentals Governing the Increase of Production and the Readjustment of Trade*, the National Military Council in September, 1937, established three commissions for the control of agricultural products, industry and mining, and trade. The purposes of creating these commissions were: (1) To avoid the interruption of agricultural, mining, industrial and commercial enterprises as a result of the spread of hostilities; (2) to avoid financial difficulties facing these enterprises; (3) to avoid transportation difficulties, and (4) to avoid unnecessary losses.

Perhaps the most important measure that the Government adopted in this period was the removal of factories from the war areas to the interior, thus greatly

increasing the productive power of the interior. With government assistance, more than 450 industrial plants have been moved to southwestern and northwestern provinces.

On December 22, 1937, the National Government promulgated the *War-time Regulations Governing the Control of Agricultural, Mining, Industrial and Commercial Enterprises*, which empowered the National Military Council to control all economic affairs. The regulations were later revised into the *Regulations Governing the Control of Agricultural, Mining, Industrial and Commercial Enterprises in Time of Emergency*, promulgated in October, 1938. The Ministry of Economic Affairs was inaugurated in January, 1938, and since then it has been responsible for the enforcement of these regulations which stipulate:

- (1) That the Ministry of Economic Affairs may exercise control over all industrial materials and the manufactures thereof.
- (2) That the Ministry of Economic Affairs may fix equitable prices for the purchase and sale of all kinds of goods, and adopt measures for the readjustment of the supply and demand of commodities and the suppression of profiteering and speculation.
- (3) That the Ministry of Economic Affairs may prohibit the export and import of certain commodities.
- (4) That penalties may be imposed on those who violate the regulations. (See Appendix.)

II. From February, 1938, to November, 1939. In this period, the Government exercised more rigid control over the prices and supply of commodities following the creation of the Ministry of Economic Affairs. The three commissions for the readjustment of agricultural products, industry and mining, and trade were reorganized into the Agricultural Credit Administration, the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration, and the Foreign Trade Commission. The former two are now under the Ministry of Economic Affairs and the third is under the Ministry of Finance.

Export articles, such as tung oil, tea, hog bristles and minerals, were put under state control.

Liquid fuel and cement were also put under government control. On May 22,

1938, the Executive Yuan promulgated a set of regulations governing the control of liquid fuel, which stipulates:

- (1) Registration and approval must be first gained before liquid fuel can be purchased.
- (2) The Liquid Fuel Control Commission may fix the prices of all kinds of oil and may order the registration of private oil in stock.
- (3) The purchase and sale of liquid fuel are to be conducted through the Liquid Fuel Control Commission.
- (4) The use of alcohol and other substitutes for gasoline is to be popularized.
- (5) The distribution of oil is first to meet the needs of national defense, then to meet the needs of productive enterprises, and lastly to meet general demands.

The *Regulations Governing the Control of Cement* were promulgated on May 22, 1939. The Ministries of Economic Affairs, Military Affairs and Communications jointly formed a Cement Control Commission to control the production and distribution of this construction material. This commission was dissolved in January, 1942. Its functions were taken over by the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration. Cement is to be first used for military and communication purposes.

In February, 1939, the *Regulations Governing the Valuation of Commodities and the Suppression of Speculation and Manipulation in Time of Emergency* were promulgated by the Executive Yuan. The main points of these regulations are:

- (1) Local authorities should create commodity valuation committees to be composed of representatives of organs concerned, chambers of commerce and trade guilds.
- (2) In setting commodity prices, attention should be given to the interest of both producers and consumers in accordance with the following principles:
 - (a) Average prices in 1934-1936 should be taken as the standard for the valuation of those commodities whose production and transportation costs have not or only

slightly been affected by the war.

- (b) Wartime production and transportation costs plus legitimate profit should be taken as the standard for the evaluation of those commodities affected by the war.
- (c) Capital required for the production plus legitimate profit should be taken as the standard for the evaluation of those commodities the cost of production of which cannot be easily calculated.

(3) Penalties may be imposed on those who violate these regulations. (See Appendix.)

On May 16, 1939, the Ministry of Economic Affairs issued a circular order to local governments of various grades urging them to organize commodity valuation committees within the shortest possible time. Commodities specified for control by local valuation committees in accordance with the above-mentioned regulations were mostly daily necessities, such as food, cotton piece goods, matches and coal.

The Government adopted the *Regulations Governing the Prohibition of Enemy Goods* and the *Regulations Governing the Purchase and Rescue of Materials in War Area* in October, 1938. Enemy goods or goods produced in enemy-controlled regions were prohibited from import. The purchase of materials in war areas has been placed in the hands of the Foreign Trade Commission, the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration, the Agricultural Credit Administration, war area party and political affairs commissions, and organs concerned, with the assistance of military and administrative organs in the war areas.

III. From December, 1939, to June, 1941. This period was characterized by the adoption of the system of government purchase and sale of daily necessities at equitable prices and the strengthening of the suppression of profiteering, climaxed with the creation of the Economic Council of the Executive Yuan.

On December 5, 1939, the Ministry of Economic Affairs promulgated the *Regulations Governing the Purchase and Sale of Daily Necessities at Equitable*

Prices and the Regulations Governing the Suppression of Profiteering in and Hoarding of Daily Necessities, indicating that the Government had begun to take both political and economic measures in regulating commodity prices.

The main points of the *Regulations Governing the Purchase and Sale of Daily Necessities at Equitable Prices* are:

- (1) The Ministry of Economic Affairs, for the stabilization of commodity prices and meeting the people's needs, may create a bureau for the purchase and sale of daily necessities at equitable prices to take charge of matters relating to the purchase and sale of daily necessities at equitable prices in northwestern and southwestern provinces.
- (2) Daily necessities are confined to food, clothing, etc., and are to be specified by the Ministry of Economic Affairs.
- (3) The following principles are to be followed in purchasing and selling commodities at equitable prices:
 - (a) In purchasing commodities, the lowest price level should be maintained in order to protect the interest of the producers.
 - (b) In selling the goods, the highest price level should be fixed in order to protect the interest of the consumers.
 - (c) In purchasing and selling daily commodities, the Government should not compete with legitimate private enterprises and merchants.
 - (d) Stabilization of the prices and supply should be the policy of the purchase and sale operations. Violent price changes and irrational profits should be avoided.
- (4) Profits to be made out of wholesale prices of commodities should not exceed five per cent; those out of retail prices should not exceed 20 per cent.
- (5) Funds for the purchase of daily necessities by the bureau are to be appropriated by the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks. (See Appendix.)

The Bureau for the Purchase and Sale of Daily Necessities at Equitable Prices

was established on December 12, 1939. Its capital was set at \$20,000,000, while the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks extended to the Bureau a loan of \$40,000,000. The Bureau at first entrusted several organizations, such as the Agricultural Credit Administration, the Fuel Control Administration, and China Native Products, Inc., to purchase cotton, cotton yarn and piece goods, rice, coal and other daily articles. In February, 1940, sales offices were opened in Chungking. Since July, 1940, the Bureau has been engaged in purchasing through its own agents in various places, and connections have been made with all kinds of co-operative societies. Beginning from January, 1941, the Bureau has been responsible for controlling a portion of daily commodities in addition to mere purchase and sale. The first job it undertook was the registration of daily necessities in stock in Chungking and the control of cotton yarn.

The *Regulations Governing the Suppression of Profiteering* promulgated by the Ministry of Economic Affairs were later revised into the *Regulations Outlawing the Hoarding of and Profiteering in Important Daily Necessities in Time of Emergency*, enforced by order of the National Government on February 3, 1941.

These regulations provide that the Ministry of Economic Affairs may exercise control over foodstuffs, clothing, fuel and other important daily necessities. Merchants or other people engaged in profiteering and hoarding are to be punished according to law. The Ministry of Economic Affairs may order the sale of commodities in stock at equitable prices after registration and investigation concerning private goods in stock, and the amount of production and supply of commodities available.

According to these regulations, "hoarding" includes: (1) purchase and storing of the specified goods in large quantities by persons who are not merchants, or merchants who are not engaged in purchasing and selling such goods, (2) purchase and storing of such commodities by dealers for the purpose of profiteering or hoarding, and (3) purchase and storing of such commodities by agents with fictitious names without any actual buyers or sellers. Any action involving hoarding of goods, by not offering the same for sale or offering for sale at prices above the margin of authorized profit, is considered "profiteering." (See Appendix.)

In enforcing the above-mentioned regulations, chambers of commerce and trade guilds are required to assist the Government, thus necessitating the control of industrial and commercial enterprises and organizations. The Executive Yuan promulgated the *Regulations Governing the Compulsory Participation in and Restriction of Withdrawals from Trade Guilds in Time of Emergency* on October 11, 1940, and the *Regulations Governing the Control of Industrial and Commercial Enterprises and Organizations in Time of Emergency* on June 17, 1941. These Regulations stipulate that dealers engaged in essential enterprises and commodities should form trade guilds and participate in chambers of commerce, subject to the control of the Ministry of Economic Affairs. The regulations also fix the functions of the chambers of commerce and trade guilds so as to assist the Government in carrying out orders and regulations concerning price and commodity control and to direct and supervise their respective members in following and observing laws and regulations concerning the control of industrial and commercial enterprises. (See Appendix.)

During this period, the Government paid special attention to the control of iron and steel, and liquid fuel. In accordance with a set of regulations governing the control of iron and steel promulgated on January 24, 1940, the Ministry of Economic Affairs, in cooperation with the Ministry of Military Affairs organized the Iron and Steel Control Commission on February 2, 1940, to control the production, supply and prices of iron and steel. The control covers raw and refined iron and steel and the manufactures thereof as well as scrap iron. The Commission is empowered to fix prices of iron and steel in accordance with the production cost plus legitimate profit. The distribution of iron and steel is entirely under government control. Under the Commission is the Native Iron Control Administration, charged with the control of the production, transportation and supply of iron produced by native methods.

Further measures were adopted in this period for the control of oil. According to the regulations governing the control of liquid fuel, the purchase and sale, transportation and stock of oil should be registered with the Liquid Fuel Control Commission. "Private oil," which is not registered and liable to be

confiscated, includes: (1) oil purchased or sold without licence from the Liquid Fuel Control Commission, (2) oil stored without licence from the Liquid Fuel Control Commission, (3) oil transported without licence from the Liquid Fuel Control Commission, and (4) oil originally purchased for military or other legitimate uses but later resold.

Food prices began to rise in the spring of 1940 and by September the prices had reached as high as from 20 to 30 times in various localities as compared with the prices in 1937. The National Government, in August, 1940, created the National Food Administration, which was reorganized into the Ministry of Food in July, 1941. (See below, *Food Control*.)

The Executive Yuan during this period took an important step in strengthening the economic warfare in war areas. In June, 1940, economic commissions were organized in all war areas. Among other functions these commissions take charge of: (1) preventing materials from falling into enemy hands, (2) preventing the inflow of enemy goods, (3) supervising and assisting metallurgical works in the war areas, (4) suppressing the import of prohibited goods and controlling export goods, (5) promoting agricultural production and readjusting agricultural loans in war areas, (6) purchasing and transporting materials in war areas, (7) supplying the public with daily necessities, (8) supplying and storing needed raw materials, and (9) investigating and regulating commodity prices in war areas. Meanwhile, commodity control administrations have been organized in provinces in or close to war areas. Their duty is to assist in economic blockade against the enemy, and to control the production, transportation, supply and consumption of important commodities.

The organization of the Economic Council of the Executive Yuan in February, 1941, marked the progress toward the fourth stage in China's wartime commodity and price control, when the Government will have complete control over the production, transportation, supply and consumption of important commodities.

The Economic Council of the Executive Yuan was formally inaugurated on February 8, 1941, composed of the

President and Vice-President of the Executive Yuan, the Minister of Finance, the Minister of Economic Affairs, the Minister of Military Affairs, the Minister of Communications, the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, the Minister of Social Affairs, the Secretary-General and the Director of the Political Affairs Department of the Executive Yuan, the Chief of Staff and the Deputy Chief of Staff of the National Military Council, the Minister of the Board of Military Operations of the National Military Council, the Minister of the Board of Supplies and Transport of the National Military Council, the Directors of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd Departments of the Generalissimo's Personal Headquarters, the Secretary-General of the Central Planning Board, the Director of the National Food Administration, the Governor and the Deputy-Governor of the Central Bank of China, the Secretary-General of the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks, the Chairman of the National Resources Commission, the Chairman of the Foreign Trade Commission, the Director of the Commissariat Administration of the Ministry of Military Affairs and the Director of the Ordnance Administration of the Ministry of Military Affairs.

The President of the Executive Yuan is the Chairman of the Economic Council under which were a secretariat and 11 departments of political affairs, food, commodity, wages, transportation, finance, trade, cooperative enterprises, investigation, economic police, and military affairs. The Council's chief task was the planning and coordination of price and commodity control for the entire nation.

IV. From July, 1941, to the Present. During this period, which began with the adjournment of the Third National Financial Conference, the Government has gained control over not only the prices, but also the production and supply of important commodities. The creation of the Commodity Administration of the Ministry of Economic Affairs in February, 1942, and the enforcement of the *National General Mobilization Act* in May, 1942, are two of the most important measures that the Government has taken since the war began. The adoption of the *Program for Strengthening Price Control* by the Tenth Plenary Session of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang in November, 1942, marked the Government's determination to eradicate speculation and profiteering.

The Eighth Plenary Session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee in March, 1941, and the Third National Financial Conference in June, 1941, adopted a number of resolutions relating to price and commodity control. Among them were one authorizing the Central Government to take over the collection of land tax from the local administrations and to collect it in kind and the monopoly of six important commodities, namely, salt, sugar, tobacco, matches, wine and tea.

In November, 1941, the Economic Council, now reorganized into the National General Mobilization Council, adopted the *Fundamentals Governing the Enforcement of Price Stabilization*, serving as the highest guiding principles in price and commodity control in wartime China. The full text follows:

FUNDAMENTALS GOVERNING THE ENFORCEMENT OF PRICE STABILIZATION

(Adopted by the Economic Council of the Executive Yuan in November, 1941.)

I. The Division of Power and Responsibility:

- (1) The Economic Council of the Executive Yuan shall be the highest organ for price stabilization, responsible for the planning and enforcement of all matters pertaining to price stabilization. The Ministry of Food shall be in charge of the stabilization of food prices; the Ministry of Economic Affairs in charge of the price stabilization of daily necessities and the control of industrial and mining products; the Ministry of Social Affairs in charge of the stabilization of wages and the promotion of savings; the Ministry of Communications in charge of the stabilization of transport rates of railways, waterways and stage transportation; the Transportation Control Board shall be in charge of the stabilization of highway transport rates and the tonnage of imported commodities; the Foreign Exchange Commission in charge of matters pertaining to foreign exchange and the prices of imported commodities; the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks shall be in charge of the appropriation of the price

stabilization fund; and local administrative offices in charge of the stabilization of wages and prices of retailed daily necessities.

- (2) With the cooperation of various government departments concerned, the Economic Council of the Executive Yuan shall supervise government enterprises and local administrative offices in enforcing matters pertaining to price stabilization.
- (3) The Economic Council of the Executive Yuan shall be responsible for directing, supervising and examining the various administrative and enterprise organs with regard to the execution of matters pertaining to price stabilization; for correlating, adjusting and apportioning the work of the organizations concerned; and for assisting and empowering organizations in charge of price stabilization to carry on their work.
- (4) The Economic Police under the Secretariat of the Economic Council of the Executive Yuan, while assisting in price stabilization, may exercise powers stipulated in Article XXVIII of the *Regulations Governing the Organization of the Secretariat of the Economic Council*.

II. The Investigation of Commodity Prices:

- (5) The Investigation Department of the Secretariat of the Economic Council, in collaboration with the Economic Police Department, shall be in charge of the investigation of commodity prices, assisted by the organizations concerned.
- (6) The investigation of commodity prices shall first begin in Chungking and its suburbs and shall be later extended to centers of production, concentration and distribution by tracing the supply routes. Organizations shall be established and personnel trained for the investigation of commodity prices in other cities and supply regions in the rear. War area economic committees and local administrative offices shall be

in charge of the investigation of commodity prices in war areas.

- (7) The scope of investigation shall cover foodstuffs, clothing, daily necessities, industrial materials, fuels, etc. Actual conditions regarding retail and wholesale prices, supply and demand, production, transportation, storage and trading of the commodities shall be investigated, and used as a basis for analyzing market conditions, forecasting price changes, and fixing standard prices for price stabilization.

III. The Enforcement of Control:

- (8) Whenever after analysis of investigation results, it is forecast that the price of certain commodities tends to rise, the Economic Council shall so inform organs in charge of price stabilization and ask them to adopt measures immediately to prevent such rise of prices. If the price of certain commodities is already rising, the Economic Council shall also inform and order organs in charge to adopt effective measures to check the rise so as to restore the original conditions.
- (9) Based on the analysis of investigation results, the Economic Council and competent administrative offices shall fix standard prices of important commodities as a basis for price stabilization in accordance with the production cost and legitimate profit.
- (10) The method of control shall be confined chiefly to economic force. Whenever economic force is insufficient, it shall be supplemented by political measures. Economic force shall include the use of the price stabilization fund by government enterprises established for the purpose of price stabilization, the strengthening of control and assistance to trade guilds, the purchase and sale of large quantities of commodities in order to affect market prices, and the punishment of unscrupulous merchants through economic force. Political measures shall include the

enforcement of price stabilization laws and regulations to be faithfully followed and promoted by trade guilds under the supervision of administrative offices in charge of price stabilization; and the evaluation of commodities and the fixation of a definite quantity of commodities to be supplied by the dealers so as to make prices of all commodities conform to the standard price.

IV. The Readjustment of Work :

- (11) The chief task of the price stabilization organs is to stabilize the supply of commodities through such methods as the wholesale supply of commodities, the wholesale purchase of commodities, the control of sources of commodities, the cooperation of import merchants and factories, the adjustment of supply and demand on the market, and the appropriate distribution and sale of commodities. As the present price stabilization organizations have not achieved this purpose, ministries in charge should map out measures for fundamental readjustments, to be submitted to and approved by the Council.
- (12) Price stabilization organs shall establish sales stations in various localities. The prices of commodities for sale should conform to the standard price policy and should be correlated with market prices in a way that this measure shall set an example in promoting price stabilization. These sales stations, at the same time, should order privately-owned firms or shops to undertake price stabilization work in order to expand the scope of the circulation of stabilized commodities.
- (13) The Joint Board of the Four Government Banks shall appropriate the price stabilization fund to meet the needs of price stabilization. Regulations governing this shall be separately enacted.
- (14) In order to meet the needs for daily necessities of those who live on salaries and wages, a network of consumers' cooperative

societies shall be established in large cities in the rear for the sale of daily necessities, and the organization of consumers' cooperative societies in public and enterprise organs shall be popularized. Price stabilization organs shall supply the daily necessities through wholesale purchase, or assist cooperative societies to purchase them collectively.

- (15) Investigations should be separately extended to all organizations producing and selling needed commodities so as to enforce the price stabilization policy.

For the control of commodities in war and occupied areas, the Executive Yuan on June 26, 1942, promulgated a set of regulations governing the purchase and rescue of commodities in war areas and foreign countries in case transportation routes should be cut. The important points of these regulations are :

- (1) The Executive Yuan may order government organs concerned to purchase or rescue commodities from occupied areas and foreign countries.
- (2) Corporations, firms, shops and individuals may purchase or rescue commodities from occupied areas and foreign countries, provided they register with the Government.
- (3) Those who purchase or rescue commodities from occupied areas and foreign countries may freely dispose of their goods, but the Government may impose restrictions upon the distribution and prices of the commodities, whenever necessary.
- (4) Legitimate profits shall be guaranteed.
- (5) Government organs in charge of transportation shall render assistance in transporting commodities purchased from occupied areas and foreign countries.
- (6) The Central Trust shall be responsible for insurance against war risks.
- (7) Taxes on such commodities may be exempted or reduced.
- (8) The Ministry of Economic Affairs, with the approval of the

Executive Yuan, shall specify the kinds of goods to be purchased or rescued.

On February 1, 1942, the Commodity Administration was formally inaugurated under the Ministry of Economic Affairs. Three existing organs, namely, the Agricultural Credit Administration, the Bureau for the Purchase and Sale of Daily Necessities at Equitable Prices, and the Fuel Control Administration, were put under the control of the new administration. Later, organs for the control of vegetable oil and paper were also created.

The Commodity Administration was dissolved in December, 1942. The Agricultural Credit Administration was reorganized into an office for the monopoly of cotton, cotton yarn, and cotton piece goods, to be placed under the Ministry of Finance. Other subsidiary organs were placed under the direct control of the Ministry of Economic Affairs.

The inauguration of the Commodity Administration was based on a resolution adopted by the Economic Council of the Executive Yuan. The said resolution authorized the establishment of an organ for the control of the prices and supply of commodities having a direct bearing on the people's livelihood except food which is now under the control of the Ministry of Food. The Commodity Administration was, therefore, created to control ordinary commodities, with the Ministry of Food responsible for food control.

The Commodity Administration was empowered to administer: (1) Matters pertaining to the supervision and adjustment of the supply and demand of commodities, (2) matters pertaining to the registration, allotment and rationing of the commodities, (3) matters pertaining to the investigation and statistics of commodities, (4) matters pertaining to the stabilization and regulation of commodity prices and the suppression of sudden price rises, (5) matters pertaining to the control of the market and the prevention of hoarding and manipulation, (6) matters pertaining to the suppression of illegitimate transaction of commodities, and (7) matters pertaining to the supply and transportation of commodities.

Aside from subsidiary organs, the Commodity Administration was composed of four departments in charge of general

affairs, supervision, finance, and control of the various assigned responsibilities.

The Executive Yuan set aside \$450,000,000 as the Price Stabilization Fund to be used by the Commodity Administration. The first two instalments, totalling \$190,000,000, were appropriated by the National Treasury before the end of June, 1942. Of the second appropriation, \$50,000,000 originally set aside for the purchase of commercial goods along the Burma road was shifted as a part of the Price Stabilization Fund following the deterioration of the war situation in Burma.

During the first eight months of 1942, the Commodity Administration succeeded in controlling almost every essential commodity, like cotton yarn and piece goods, paper and vegetable oil.

First, attention was given to the control of cotton, cotton yarn and cotton piece goods. The Commodity Administration's watchword for cotton control was "to control cotton yarn by purchasing raw cotton, to control cotton cloth by controlling cotton yarn, and to control the prices by controlling the cloth." The *Regulations Governing the Control of Cotton*, promulgated by the Ministry of Economic Affairs, provided:

- (1) That the southern part of Shensi and northern part of Szechwan should be taken as a cotton control area, where the production, trading and distribution of raw cotton should be controlled by the Agricultural Credit Administration.
- (2) That cotton mills, companies or firms, purchasing raw cotton amounting to 300 piculs or more in the controlled area, should first obtain permission from the Commodity Administration.
- (3) That the Commodity Administration shall supply raw cotton to purchasers at reasonable prices.
- (4) That the transportation of raw cotton should be put under the control of the Commodity Administration. Licences are required.
- (5) That cotton mills storing an amount of cotton not sufficient for the use of six months shall receive assistance from the Commodity Administration.

- (6) That these regulations may be applied to other regions, whenever necessary.

With \$77,000,000 appropriated from the Price Stabilization Fund, the Agricultural Credit Administration has been purchasing cotton, cotton yarn and cotton piece goods to meet both military and non-military needs. It purchases all yarn from cotton mills in Chungking. The method of mixing machine-spun and hand-spun yarns in weaving is promoted.

Fuel control is being carried on along four main lines. First, financial and technical assistance is to be extended to coal mines to increase the production

Second, the market price of coal has been put under strict control. The prices of various kinds of coal and coke as well as charcoal have been fixed by the Commodity Administration. The Fuel Control Administration has been supplying coal for both the army and the Government as well as public functionaries.

Third, the transportation of coal has been improved. The Fuel Control Administration extends loans to important coal mining companies for the improvement of transport facilities.

Fourth, fuel is handled by the Fuel Control Administration through wholesale distribution.

Vegetable oil has been placed under the control of the Vegetable Oil Control Administration, another subsidiary of the Commodity Administration. This Administration, created on July, 1942, has been purchasing rapeseeds throughout Szechwan. A total of \$12,000,000 has been spent for the purchase of 44,000 piculs of rapeseeds and 1,120 piculs of vegetable oil in Chengtu alone. The Szechwan Vegetable Oil Cracking Plant and the China Vegetable Oil Plant have supplied the Administration with definite amounts of oil every month. The Administration has also been conducting investigations regarding the production and transportation of rapeseeds.

The control of paper began in April, 1942, when the Paper Control Committee was created under the Commodity Administration. The first step this new organ adopted was to investigate the production of paper in Szechwan, which was divided into four main paper-producing regions. Financial assistance is to be given to paper mills for the purchase of raw materials, while native-made

paper has been purchased by the Administration on a large scale. By September, 1942, the Administration has bought more than 13,000 reams of paper valued at \$2,000,000. Investigations are also to be conducted regarding the consumption of paper for the purpose of controlling the distribution of supplies.

The Bureau for the Purchase and Sale of Daily Necessities at Equitable Prices has been engaged in the supply and control of daily necessities, such as cotton piece goods, coal, towels, soap, matches and candles, purchased and sold on a large scale.

For the control of the market, the Commodity Administration ordered the registration of cotton yarn in stock in leading Szechwan cities. It cooperated with other government organs in strengthening the organization of trade guilds as a step toward strict market control.

With the Ministry of Food supplying low-price rice and wheat flour to government workers, the Commodity Administration supplied other daily necessities at low prices, such as coal, cotton cloth and vegetable oil. The Executive Yuan decreed that as from June, 1942, employees in the government and Party organs in Chungking were to receive low-price daily necessities. The maximum a government employee might get was for three persons, including himself. Each person may buy 60 catties of coke or 100 catties of coal, 12 ounces of vegetable oil and a catty of salt each month in addition to two *shih chang* (10.9361 feet a *shih chang*) of cotton cloth a year. The work of securing and distributing these goods was placed in the hands of three organizations, namely, the Commodity Administration, the Salt Administration, and the National Cooperative Enterprise Administration. The commodities were to be distributed through consumers' cooperatives in the various government and Party organs.

In June, July and August, the Commodity Administration supplied government workers with 13,035 metric tons of coal and coke, 258,192 catties of vegetable oil and 264,385 *shih chang* of cotton cloth.

With the enforcement of the *National General Mobilization Act* on May 5, 1942, and the formation of the National General Mobilization Council, China has become a fully mobilized state. The purpose of the Act is to concentrate the nation's

human and material power in time of war to bolster national defense and to attain the war aims. A major part of the materials and affairs brought under government control in accordance with the Act is connected with price and commodity control.

Commodity control as provided for in the *National General Mobilization Act* may be summarized as follows:

- (1) The Government may compulsorily purchase or requisition part or all National General Mobilization materials. (Article V.)
- (2) The Government may order the producers, traders or importers of National General Mobilization materials to store a fixed amount of such materials, and the latter, without the approval of government organs concerned, shall not freely dispose of them within a specified period of time. (Article VI.)
- (3) The Government may direct, manage, restrict or ban the production, sale, use, repair, storage, consumption, removal or transfer of National General Mobilization materials. (Article VII.)
- (4) The Government may institute a system of control over the price and quantity involved in the transaction of National General Mobilization materials and the people's necessities. (Article VIII.)
- (5) The Government may encourage, restrict or prohibit the export or import of a certain commodity, and may also raise, lower or exempt export duties. (Article XIX.)
- (6) The Government may restrict the transportation and storage expenses, the insurance fees, repair fees, and rentals of National General Mobilization materials. (Article XX.)
- (7) The Government may requisition the people's land, houses and other structures, or make alterations thereon. (Article XXIV.)
- (8) The Government may regulate the distribution of farm land, the apportionment of farm labor and the relations between the landowners and tenants, and

may order the reclamation of wasteland within a specified period of time. (Article XV.)

The term "National General Mobilization materials," as mentioned in the preceding paragraphs, refers to the following items:

- (1) Military weapons, ammunition and other war equipment and supplies;
- (2) Food, fodder, clothing material, and other supplies;
- (3) Drugs, medical equipment and supplies, and other public health equipment and supplies;
- (4) Ships, vehicles, horses, and other transportation equipment and supplies;
- (5) Construction materials and building apparatus;
- (6) Electric power and fuel;
- (7) Communication equipment and supplies;
- (8) All necessary materials and machines for the manufacture, repair, apportionment, replenishment and storage of the above-listed equipment and supplies;
- (9) Any other such materials as the Government may designate.

The *Provisional Regulations Governing Penalties for Violators of the National General Mobilization Act* were promulgated on June 29, 1942, and enforced on August 1, 1942. Capital punishment or life imprisonment may be imposed on serious offenders.

The Economic Council of the Executive Yuan was reorganized in May, 1942, into the National General Mobilization Council for the enforcement of the Act. According to the *Regulations Governing the Organization of the National General Mobilization Council* the Council is empowered (1) to plan for the control and use of human and material power of the nation, (2) to examine the programs, plans, projects, laws and regulations relating to the work of the ministries and other subsidiary organs of the Executive Yuan, (3) to coordinate and adjust National General Mobilization affairs to be undertaken by the ministries and other subsidiary organs of the Executive Yuan, and (4) to coordinate matters relating to the National General Mobilization to be undertaken by organs not subordinate to the Executive Yuan.

The National General Mobilization Council is directly under the Executive Yuan, composed of the Minister of Interior, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, the Minister of Military Affairs, the Minister of Finance, the Minister of Economic Affairs, the Minister of Education, the Minister of Social Affairs, the Minister of Communications, the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, the Minister of Food, the Secretary-General and the Director of the Political Affairs Department of the Executive Yuan, and the Secretary-General of the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks. Among members invited by the President of the Executive Yuan to serve on the Council are the Secretary-General of the Kuomintang, the Secretary-General of the Central Planning Board, the Secretary-General of Party and Government Work Perscrutation Committee, the Director-General of Budgets, Accounts and Statistics of the National Government, the Chief and Deputy Chief of Staff of the National Military Council, the Minister of the Board of Military Operations of the National Military Council, the Minister of the Board of Supplies and Transport of the National Military Council, the Directors of the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd Departments of the Generalissimo's Personal Headquarters and the Director of the Transportation Control Board of the National Military Council.

There are three members on the Standing Committee of the Council. Under the Council are a Secretariat and eight departments in charge of military affairs, manpower, finance, materials, food and salt, transportation, economic police, and culture.

A special committee for the examination of commodity prices has been formed under the Council. It meets once every two weeks to discuss and decide upon matters relating to price control.

Central government organs, both civil and military, are charged with the responsibility of carrying out National General Mobilization affairs, while provincial, municipal and *hsien* governments are responsible for the enforcement of the program in their respective areas. Provincial, municipal and *hsien* mobilization committees are to be organized to coordinate the work. Private economical organizations, such as trade guilds and chambers of commerce, are required to assist in enforcing orders, laws and regulations relating to National General Mobilization.

The Program for Strengthening Price Control was adopted by the People's Political Council in October, 1942, and again by the Tenth Plenary Session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee in November. This program was prepared by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, seeing that commodity prices had been soaring with unabated speed despite continued government efforts to remedy the situation.

The full text of the *Program for Strengthening Price Control* follows:

PROGRAM FOR STRENGTHENING PRICE CONTROL

A. Various Ranks of Price Control Machinery

I. Central Machinery:

(1) The standing committee of the National General Mobilization Council shall be temporarily designated as the highest policy-making organ for price control throughout the nation, and shall be responsible for the direction of competent organs in executing price control.

(2) The standing committee of the National General Mobilization Council shall be strengthened. The Vice-President of the Executive Yuan, the Minister of Military Affairs and Minister of Finance, the Minister of Economic Affairs, the Minister of Communications, the Minister of Food, the Minister of Social Affairs, and the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry shall all attend the standing committee meetings.

(3) The standing committee of the National General Mobilization Council shall meet once a week, to be presided over by the President of the Executive Yuan. The Vice-President of the Executive Yuan shall act for the President if the latter is not able to attend on account of business. Resolutions adopted at the meetings shall be executed by order of the Executive Yuan.

Competent authorities of related organs may be invited to attend the meetings of the standing committee whenever necessary.

II. Provincial Machinery:

Provincial governments shall be responsible for price control in their respective provinces. Whenever necessary, price control bureaus may be created upon the decision of the Central Government. The chairmen of the provincial governments shall be directors of such

bureaus, while deputy directors shall be appointed by the Central Government. The organization and powers of such bureaus shall be stipulated by separate regulations.

III. *Hsien* Machinery :

(1) *Hsien* governments shall be responsible for price control in their respective districts. Whenever necessary, the provincial government may create *hsien* price control machinery.

(2) Town and village cooperatives shall be strengthened as the basic units for the concentration and distribution of commodities.

IV. Municipal Machinery :

Municipal governments shall be responsible for price control in their respective municipalities. Whenever necessary, special organs in charge of price control may be created.

B. Guiding Principles for Price Control

I. The Fixing of Price Ceilings :

(1) The fixing of price ceilings shall be periodically applied to the production, wholesale and retail of selected commodities relating to military needs and the people's livelihood in interior provinces. Black market shall be suppressed. Competent authorities may purchase or sell or seize and hold the commodities if their market prices are higher than the fixed price ceilings, and may confiscate the commodities if the case is serious.

(2) The first step in fixing price ceilings shall be to concentrate efforts in the enforcement of strict price control and the fixing of price ceilings in producing and consuming centers in the different provinces. For other localities, laws and regulations relating to price control shall be promulgated and organs in charge of price control shall be ordered to enforce the measures strictly so as to lay the foundation for control throughout the nation and to avoid shortcomings in the preliminary step.

(3) Transport and wage rates at places where the fixing of price ceilings is enforced shall be restricted upon the date of the issuance of the order for price restriction.

II. The Control of Commodities :

(1) The production, marketing and sale of commodities selected for price restriction shall be registered and placed

under control. Whenever necessary, the various ranks of price control organs may compulsorily purchase the commodities.

(2) The Government shall encourage the merchants to rescue and purchase commodities from occupied areas, and shall guarantee them a legitimate profit on the same. The Government shall buy over the commodities and sell them if the cost and profit exceed the fixed price ceilings.

(3) Blockade along the frontlines shall be strengthened so as to prevent needed commodities from falling into the hands of the enemy and puppets.

(4) The principle for commodity control shall be that the Government directs industrial and commercial enterprises and protects legitimate interests, which in turn should abide by government control. The Government shall assist in the development of private enterprises and, whenever possible, shall not directly engage in such business.

(5) Each kind of commodity selected for price control shall be placed under the control of a specified organ. Other organs shall not intervene.

III. The Increase of Production :

(1) As to controlled commodities which belong to agricultural products, the Government, central as well as provincial and *hsien*, shall map out programs for increasing the production; shall direct and supervise the people, through the lower administrative units, to produce a sufficient amount of commodities in accordance with the fixed program; and shall assist in the construction of irrigation projects and technical improvement. As to industrial and mineral products, competent authorities shall fix the amount of commodities to be produced in specified periods of time on the basis of the productive capacities of the producers. The Government and financial organs shall assist in the increase of capital.

(2) Rewards shall be given to those agricultural and industrial producers who produce sufficient amounts as to meet or exceed the quota that the Government fixes, and punishment to those who do not produce sufficient amounts.

(3) As to those industries and mines of which the production should be increased in accordance with the program for control, the Government shall set aside

a large sum of money to guarantee the amount of investments from private interests in such enterprises and the legitimate profit accrued as a measure to encourage such investments.

(4) Encouragement and promotion shall be given to the development of handicrafts as a measure to increase the production of daily necessities.

(5) Provincial and *hsien* governments shall direct and supervise town and village administrators below the *hsien* administration, people's organizations and schools, and other organizations to engage in productive activities.

(6) The Government shall offer facilities and assistance in matters pertaining to raw materials, capital, labor, and transportation in the enterprises engaged in the production of the controlled commodities.

IV. The Restriction of Consumption :

(1) Big cities and populous towns shall gradually adopt the rationing system for the purchase of foodstuffs and other commodities with ration cards as a step toward the readjustment of the production and consumption and avoiding waste in both consumption and purchase. Even hoarding for one's own uses shall likewise be strictly suppressed.

(2) The production, transportation and sale of luxuries and unnecessary goods shall be suppressed.

(3) People shall lead a life befitting wartime, and banquets, wedding and funeral feasts, festival and New Year presents, and other activities of unnecessary spending shall be suppressed and prohibited (such as silk and cotton scrolls and curtains and feasts in wedding, funeral and birthday parties).

V. Improvement of Transportation :

(1) Programs for equipping trucks to use charcoal, coal and tung oil instead of gasoline shall be accelerated so as to make use of the trucks now not running.

(2) Initiation shall be directed to the people for the development of stage transportation and the utilization of animal power.

(3) Organs in charge of transportation and tax collection shall be simplified so as to reduce the difficulties in transporting commercial and rescued commodities. Extortion along the routes of transportation on the part of inspection officers shall be strictly prohibited. The

inspection offices shall assist the merchants by giving them all facilities instead of being an obstacle.

(4) Organs in charge of transportation and stage transportation in different provinces, municipalities and *hsien* shall transport goods to the fullest capacity in accordance with the fixed quantity of goods to be transported in a specified locality within a specified period of time. Local governments shall be responsible for the direction and supervision, and shall punish those who do not transport a sufficient amount of goods as specified

VI. The Strengthening of Organization :

(1) Provincial and *hsien* governments should supervise the strengthening of such basic organizations as *hsiang* (or *chen*) schools, *pao* schools, co-operatives, able-bodied units and women's associations, so as to enable them to participate in the control of prices, the increase of production, and the restriction of consumption.

(2) Besides the organization of industrial, trade and professional guilds and associations in various cities and towns, purchasing and wholesale agents shall also be organized to allow only one business organization for one kind of enterprise on the market. This measure shall be applied to foodstuffs and other important farm products first.

VII. The Control of Currency and Credit :

(1) Measures for currency and credit control shall be strengthened; credit shall be retrenched; and the rate of interest shall be controlled so as to associate closely with the price control policy. The extension of commercial loans which are not yet placed under government control shall be strictly prohibited, and the excessive purchasing power of the public, especially in big cities, shall be absorbed so as to balance supply and demand.

(2) Savings shall be further promoted and the savings shall be used in productive enterprises so as to promote the people's interest and confidence in savings. The extent for all banks to develop their savings business shall be strictly fixed, and inspection and investigations shall be made before giving rewards or punishment. Malpractice shall be prohibited.

VIII. The Readjustment of Taxation :

(1) The rate of taxation for those quasi-luxuries and non-essential commodities which cannot be prohibited for the time being shall be raised as much as possible.

(2) The rate of direct taxes, such as income and wartime excessive profit taxes, shall be raised so as to help in restricting the prices.

(3) The collection of land title deeds and land value taxes shall be introduced and the rates shall be raised.

(4) New taxes of high rates shall be imposed on the children of rich landowners and merchants who escape military and labor conscription under the pretence of going to schools or other reasons.

IX. The Retrenchment of Budget :

(1) From now on, different organs in the central and local governments shall stabilize their budgets by using money to meet actual needs only and shall try to produce a surplus through thrift. Unlimited additional budgets shall not be allowed.

(2) Central and local governments shall abolish or amalgamate organs or matters not of urgent need after inspection and investigation. Beginning from the 32nd Year (1943), the creation of new organs shall be strictly prohibited with the only exception of those related to the stabilization of the economic foundation and price control.

(3) The number of government employees, with ministries and commissions in the Central Government and provincial governments in the provinces as units, shall be reduced, and those eliminated from the offices shall be placed to work in border regions or rural productive enterprises. Beginning from the 32nd Year, only reductions may be made, and the increase of workers shall not be allowed.

X. The Allotment of Big Appropriations :

(1) Besides affairs undertaken by existing organs for the enforcement of the price control policy, large appropriations shall be made as quickly as possible for the establishment of new machinery for the execution of the measure, and for compulsory purchase and assistance in the production and rescue of commodities.

(2) The amount of money for the enforcement of the price control policy shall be at least three per cent of the total expenditures in the budget of the 32nd Year.

The Tenth Plenary Session of the C.E.C. adopted the principle of using food and salt prices as a standard for the fixing of price ceilings. Prices of other commodities should be proportionally limited to the level of increase of food and salt prices.

On December 17, 1942, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, in his capacity as President of the Executive Yuan, issued a circular telegram to the Ministers of Finance, Economic Affairs, Communications, Agriculture and Forestry, Social Affairs, and Food, as well as provincial governors and municipal mayors, ordering the restriction of commodity prices, transportation charges and wages as from January 15, 1943, with those prevailing on November 30, 1942, as standards. The Generalissimo announced in his circular the adoption of a set of regulations governing the enforcement of the *Program for Strengthening Price Control*, to be put into force within ten days after the receipt of the order by the related ministers, governors and mayors as specified in the Generalissimo's message.

The full text of these regulations follows :

**REGULATIONS GOVERNING THE
ENFORCEMENT OF THE PROGRAM
FOR STRENGTHENING PRICE
CONTROL**

(Adopted on December 17, 1942)

(1) Provincial and municipal governments shall enforce the restriction of commodity prices at important markets, transportation charges, and wages, under their jurisdiction from January 15, 1943.

(2) Commodity prices at the different markets, transportation charges, and wages prevailing on November 30, 1942, shall be separately taken as standards, for the restriction, to be fixed by local governments concerned.

(3) With regard to the restriction, special attention shall be paid to the people's necessities, such as food, salt, cooking oil, cotton, cotton yarn, cotton piece goods, fuel and paper, transportation charges, and wages.

(4) Local governments concerned shall direct and supervise local trade guilds in deciding the prices of the people's necessities and other commodities in accordance with the above-mentioned time and standard so as to attain the purpose of having one price for one

kind of commodity at one time in one locality. For those commodities under the control of special organs in the Central Government, the prices shall be decided by the organs concerned in cooperation with local governments concerned.

(5) Local governments concerned, after having approved the fixed prices, shall promulgate and enforce them in the areas respectively under their jurisdiction, and immediately report such to the competent superior organs for scrutinization. For those commodities under the control of special organs in the Central Government, similar reports shall be made to the ministries concerned. The superior organs or ministries concerned may order the revision of the fixed prices if they do not correspond with the fixed standards.

(6) Companies, firms and shops, or members of trade guilds shall post the fixed prices at trading places or label them on the commodities. The prices shall not be changed unless with government approval.

(7) Black market shall be strictly prohibited after the enforcement of price restrictions. Any one violating the laws and orders or arbitrarily raising the prices shall be immediately checked by the competent authorities and court-martialled.

Effectuated simultaneously with the adoption of these regulations was the reorganization of the National General Mobilization Council. It now consists of five divisions instead of eight as before, in addition to a secretariat and a department for commodity control. The five departments are: finance, manpower, transportation, military affairs, and economic police.

FOOD CONTROL

Food has been brought under effective control since the inauguration of the Ministry of Food in July, 1941. As China is an agricultural country, she has no food problem if transportation is not difficult. Food control is, therefore, confined to market control of only a small portion of rice, wheat, wheat flour and other cereals that need be brought from the countryside to the cities for the consumption of the urban population.

The rise of food prices was first felt in the spring of 1940. Following the fall of Ichang in June, 1940, communication between Szechwan and the mid-Yangtze provinces was suddenly cut,

resulting in increasing difficulties in the transportation of food and other supplies. Over and above these facts was a short period of drought in the summer of 1940 which had the added psychological effect of arousing uneasiness among some of the people. Food prices rose sharply during that period as a result of hoarding and manipulation by unscrupulous food merchants.

I. Food Administration. On August 1, 1940, the National Food Administration was created to combat the worsening situation. Its chief task was to control food prices and readjust the transportation, supply and consumption of food. Under the Administration were, among others, research and investigation, administrative, and food control departments. The research and investigation department was in charge of: (1) the statistical study of the production and consumption of food in various localities; (2) the study of the quality of various kinds of cereals; (3) the study of methods for food cleaning and hulling; and (4) the study of the stabilization of food prices and market. The administrative department was in charge of: (1) the direction and supervision of food administrative organs in various ranks of local governments; (2) the investigation and registration of the production, transportation and consumption of food; (3) market control; and (4) the stabilization of food prices. The food control department was in charge of: (1) the distribution of foodstuffs among the entire nation's troops, public functionaries, and civilians; (2) the direction and supervision of the transportation and storage of foodstuffs; (3) the control and administration of food cleaning and hulling; and (4) inspection of all matters concerning food control.

The National Food Administration at that time devoted almost its entire attention to food control in Szechwan. On September 6, 1940, it adopted a comprehensive program for the enforcement of food control in Szechwan. The gist of this program was:

- (1) Provincial and *hsien* food control organs were to be created.
- (2) Registration of food warehouses, shops, dealers, processors and transportation agents was to be required. No storage, purchase, transportation and sale of foodstuffs were allowed without being first duly registered and possessing a permit from the Government.

(3) Readjustments were to be made between the supply and demand of foodstuffs. Investigations were to be made first in food-producing and food-consuming districts.

(4) The following were points for the stabilization of food prices:

(a) Investigations were to be made into the cost of food production, transportation and marketing.

(b) Investigations were to be made into price fluctuations in the past and at present in various localities.

(c) Investigations were to be made into other daily necessities and the fluctuation of the prices of other agricultural products.

(d) Food control organs in various localities should fix food prices in accordance with the result of the investigations and in consultation with local agricultural promotion institutes, chambers of commerce, food trade guilds and other related organs.

(e) The Provincial Food Bureau should store up an adequate amount of food to meet the demand of various localities so as to prevent the rise of prices. The Bureau should also buy the surplus food in the province.

The creation of the National Food Administration, however, did not have the desired effect on the rising food prices. On February 20-25, 1941, the administration called a National Food Conference in Chungking with representatives of important Central Government organs and food administrators from 15 provinces present. The main topic for discussion at this conference was the strengthening of food control measures throughout the country. The organization of provincial and municipal food bureaus was enlarged for this purpose, but achieved very little.

On May 12, 1941, the National Government promulgated the *Regulations Governing Penalties for Violators of Food*

Control Measures, which may be summarized as follows:

(1) Foodstuffs under control include husked and unhusked rice, wheat, wheat flour and other cereals designated by the Government.

(2) Those engaged in hoarding and profiteering on foodstuffs are to be punished in accordance with the following regulations:

(a) Those who hoard 5,000 or more piculs of unhusked rice or 3,000 or more piculs of wheat for profiteering purpose are liable to capital punishment or life imprisonment.

(b) Those who hoard from 3,000 to 5,000 piculs of unhusked rice or from 1,800 to 3,000 piculs of wheat for profiteering purpose are liable to life imprisonment or more than ten years of imprisonment.

(c) Those who hoard from 1,000 to 3,000 piculs of unhusked rice or from 600 to 1,800 piculs of wheat for profiteering purpose are liable to from three to ten years of imprisonment.

(d) Those who hoard from 500 to 1,000 piculs of unhusked rice or from 300 to 600 piculs of wheat for profiteering purpose are liable to from one to three years of imprisonment.

(e) Those who hoard from 200 to 500 piculs of unhusked rice or 100 to 300 piculs of wheat for profiteering purpose are liable to from six months to one year of imprisonment.

(f) Those who hoard unhusked rice or wheat of less than the above-mentioned amount for profiteering purpose are liable to detention or a fine of not over \$1,000.

All hoarded foodstuffs are to be confiscated.

(3) Those who sell foodstuffs not in accordance with the prices and places fixed and designated by competent authorities are liable to a fine equal to the prices received by them.

- (4) Food merchants who purchase or sell not according to the registered amounts are liable to a fine equal to half of the prices received by them.

Food prices were not stabilized until the fall of 1941, when abundant rainfall ensured a bumper crop throughout the country. On July 1, 1941, the Ministry of Food was established to replace the National Food Administration. The functions of the new Ministry are (1) to supply army rations, (2) to readjust the supply and demand of food for civilian consumption, (3) to control food prices, (4) to set up store-houses throughout the country and to direct insect control, (5) to supply transport facilities for the transportation of food, (6) to control the consumption of foodstuffs, and (7) to enforce laws and regulations relating to food administration and control. The work is being undertaken by seven departments of the Ministry, namely, general affairs, personnel, control, storage, distribution, finance, and investigation.

II. The Control of Food Supply. For the purpose of supplying both army rations and food for civilian consumption and enabling the Government to control a large amount of food, the Ministry of Food has adopted two methods, namely, the collection of land tax in kind and the compulsory purchase of foodstuffs from landowners at equitable prices. Food prices have thus been stabilized and there have been only slight increases despite the rise of the prices of other commodities.

The collection of land tax in kind and the compulsory purchase of foodstuffs are administered jointly by the Ministries of Finance and Food. The collection and purchase are handled by provincial and *hsien* farm tax bureaus belonging to the Ministry of Finance, while the storage, transportation and distribution of foodstuffs thus collected and purchased are handled by the Ministry of Food.

The collection of land tax in kind was a century-old method in China. It was reintroduced into China's financial system in July, 1940, when the Central Government ordered the collection of farm tax in kind to be enforced as one of the methods for the supply of army rations and food for civilian consumption. But it was not enforced in the whole country until April, 1941, when the Eighth

Plenary Session of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang decided that the collection of land tax should be taken over by the Central Government and that the collection may be in kind. At the Third National Financial Conference held in June, 1941, three fundamentals were adopted for the collection of land tax in kind. They were:

- (1) Beginning from the second half of 1941, land tax throughout the country should be collected in kind.
- (2) For every dollar previously collected, two *tou* of unhusked rice should be collected. Equal-valued amount of wheat or other cereals may be collected instead of rice.
- (3) The collection and distribution of foodstuffs are to be handled separately by land tax and food administration.

Based on these principles, the Executive Yuan in July, 1941, adopted a set of regulations governing the collection of land tax in kind, which were revised in June, 1942. The main points of the revised regulations are:

- (1) Land tax is to be collected in kind throughout the country. Exceptions may be made upon the approval of the Executive Yuan whenever necessary.
- (2) For every dollar previously collected, four *tou* of unhusked rice or 2.8 *tou* of wheat is to be collected in 1942 instead of two *tou* of unhusked rice as collected in 1941.
- (3) Miscellaneous cereals may be collected wherever rice and wheat are not produced.
- (4) Regular tax and surtax are to be collected simultaneously.
- (5) In collecting land tax in kind, laws and regulations formerly promulgated in relation to land and financial administration should be observed.

The collection of land tax in kind in 1941 was successfully carried out in 21 provinces. Up to November 15, 1942, when the collection of land tax in kind for 1941 was completed, 24,489,956 piculs of unhusked rice had been collected, 1,551,560 piculs more than, or 107 per

cent of, the expected amount as shown in the following Table :

TABLE 9.—THE COLLECTION OF LAND TAX IN KIND IN 1941

(Unit : Piculs of unhusked rice)

PROVINCE	Amount Expected	Amount Collected	Percentage
Yunnan	900,000	1,283,287	142.58
Kweichow	747,900	997,782	133.41
Kwangtung	1,000,000	1,232,071	123.20
Honan	1,385,900	1,582,787	114.20
Szechwan	6,000,000	6,780,929	112.96
Hupeh	600,000	651,593	108.59
Hunan	2,200,000	2,401,862	108.00
Chekiang	1,351,000	1,466,835	107.80
Anhui	903,184	958,128	106.08
Shansi	322,581	326,887	101.33
Ningsia	317,000	317,141	100.04
Kiangsu	94,900	94,523	99.81
Shensi	1,000,000	989,748	98.93
Kiangsi	1,820,000	1,772,769	97.26
Chinghai	71,970	67,055	93.17
Suiyuan	100,800	93,327	92.58
Fukien	1,380,000	1,277,358	92.56
Kwangsi	1,571,744	1,363,693	86.70
Sikang	299,116	240,295	80.33
Kansu	872,401	548,214	62.83
Shantung		43,672	
TOTAL	22,938,496	24,489,956	107.00

The collection of land tax in kind and the compulsory purchase of foodstuffs from landowners for 1941 have been proceeding as this is being written. In June, 1942, the Ministry of Food called a National Food Administration Conference, at which 80 provincial food and land tax administrators were present. It was decided at the meeting that the collection of land tax in kind and the compulsory purchase of foodstuffs should be enforced simultaneously with the land tax offices of the Ministry of Finance in charge of the collection and purchase, and the food offices of the Ministry of Food in charge of storage, transportation and supply.

The resolution may be summarized as follows :

- (1) In collecting the land tax in kind in 1942, laws and regulations governing the collection of land tax in kind should be observed.
- (2) Foodstuffs formerly collected and purchased for local (*hsien*) uses should be simultaneously collected and purchased with the collection of land tax. The storage and transportation of such foodstuffs should be handled by *hsien* food administrative organs under the direction and supervision of provincial food bureaus.

- (3) The compulsory purchase of foodstuffs should be enforced simultaneously with the collection of land tax in kind. Progressive methods should be applied wherever land registration and survey have been completed. The rates are to be decided by provincial governments in accordance with local conditions.

- (4) Foodstuffs formerly collected and purchased by provincial governments should be collected and purchased simultaneously with the collection of land tax in kind.

- (5) A maximum of eight collecting offices are to be established in each *hsien*.

- (6) Prices for the purchase of foodstuffs are to be decided jointly by the Ministry of Food and provincial governments. Prices may vary in different localities in each province, to be decided by the provincial government with the prices fixed by the Ministry of Food and the provincial government as a standard.

- (7) Government banks, central or provincial as well as local, are to be designated as financial agents.

The total amount originally fixed for the collection of land tax in kind and the compulsory purchase of foodstuffs was 80,000,000 piculs of grain. Plus foodstuffs to be purchased for local uses, it reached approximately 100,000,000 piculs. Owing to recurrent famines in such provinces as Honan and Hupeh and the spreading of hostilities in the coastal provinces, the amount has been reduced to barely 66,555,748 piculs of unhusked rice. The collection and purchase for 1942 were started in September, 1942, to be completed in the fall of 1943. Up to November 15, 1942, a total of 11,382,389 piculs of unhusked rice and wheat had been collected and purchased, 18.8 per cent of the expected amount. The collection and purchase have been almost completed in those provinces where winter wheat constitutes the chief grain as shown in the following table :

TABLE 10.—THE COLLECTION OF LAND TAX IN KIND AND THE COMPULSORY PURCHASE OF FOODSTUFFS IN 1942 (NOVEMBER 15TH)

(Unit: Piculs).

PROVINCE	Kinds of Grain	Amount to be Collected	Amount to be Purchased	Total	Amount Collected	Amount Purchased	Total	Percentage
Ningsia	Wheat	500,000	...	500,000	502,131		502,131	100.4
Shansi	Wheat	350,000	250,000	600,000			244,332	40.7
Szechwan	Unhusked Rice	9,000,000	7,000,000	16,000,000	3,355,435	2,568,375	5,923,810	37.0
Shensi	Wheat	2,600,000	2,000,000	4,600,000	133,159	79,841	213,000	27.6
Hunan	Unhusked Rice	4,400,000	5,600,000	10,000,000	1,024,635	1,309,245	2,333,880	23.3
Honan	Wheat	1,000,000	1,800,000	2,800,000			554,283	19.7
Kiangsi	Unhusked Rice	2,350,000	4,110,000	6,460,000	332,210	774,655	1,106,865	17.1
Kwangtung	Unhusked Rice	1,500,000	1,000,000	2,500,000	208,510	180,335	388,845	15.5
Anhui	Wheat and Unhusked Rice	1,500,000	1,200,000	2,700,000	48,434	48,434	96,868	8.2
Chinghai	Wheat	300,000		300,000			4,138	1.3
Chekiang	Unhusked Rice	1,700,000		1,700,000	14,237		14,237	.8
Kweichow	Unhusked Rice	1,400,000	1,500,000	2,900,000				
Kwangsi	Unhusked Rice	1,574,074	1,574,074	3,148,148				
Fukien	Unhusked Rice	1,600,000	133,300	2,333,300				
Hupeh	Unhusked Rice	1,000,000	1,600,000	2,600,000				
Kansu	Wheat	1,000,000	1,000,000	2,000,000				
Suiyuan	Wheat	100,000	414,300	514,300				
Sikang	Unhusked Rice	300,000	400,000	700,000				
Yunnan	Unhusked Rice	1,500,000	2,000,000	3,500,000				
Shantung	Wheat	400,000		400,000				
Kiangsu	Unhusked Rice	300,000		300,000				
TOTAL		34,374,074	32,181,674	66,555,748			11,382,389	18.8

NOTE: Total amounts of cereals collected and cereals purchased are not calculated in this table as Shansi, Honan and Chinghai reported the collection and purchase only in one total figure.

Source The Land Tax Commission of the Ministry of Finance.

The compulsory purchase of foodstuffs from landowners by the Government was also started in 1941. Up to August, 1942, the purchase for 1941 amounted

to 22,200,936 piculs of unhusked rice and 6,765,797 piculs of wheat. The following table shows the result of the purchase:

TABLE 11.—THE COMPULSORY PURCHASE OF FOODSTUFFS IN 1941

August 31, 1942.

(Units: 1 bag=1.4 picul: 1 picul=110.23 lbs.)

PROVINCE	Kinds of Grain	Unit	Amount Expected	Amount Purchased	Per-centage
Szechwan	Unhusked Rice	Piculs	6,000,000	6,566,275	109
Sikang	Rice	Bags	100,000	80,000	80
Kweichow	Unhusked Rice	Piculs	1,380,000	724,267	53
	Wheat	Bags	1,667	1,667	100
Hupei	Unhusked Rice	Piculs	800,000	800,000	100
	Wheat	Bags	498,000	496,903	99
Hunan	Unhusked Rice	Piculs	4,800,000	4,220,000	95
Kiangsi	Rice	Piculs	2,500,000	2,844,099	114
Anhwei	Rice	Piculs	549,400	549,400	100
	Wheat	Piculs	70,000	70,000	100
Kwangtung	Rice	Bags	100,000	99,247	99
Kwangsi	Unhusked Rice	Piculs	1,850,000	1,158,736	63
Yunnan	Rice	Bags	550,000	550,000	100
Shensi	Wheat	Bags	1,436,000	1,400,000	99
Kansu	Wheat	Bags	554,890	493,096	89
Ningsia	Wheat	Bags	100,000	100,000	100
Honan	Wheat	Bags	2,135,000	1,699,021	78
Suiyuan	Wheat	Bags	312,489	167,209	64
Shansi	Wheat	Bags	350,000	308,162	88
Total	Rice	Piculs	4,049,400	4,365,829	107
	Unhusked Rice	Piculs	14,830,000	13,469,278	91
	Wheat	Bags	5,458,046	4,736,058	91

Source: The Ministry of Food.

Besides the two major methods for the collection and purchase of foodstuffs, the Ministry of Food is also engaged in purchasing foodstuffs in war areas, where the enemy is attempting to seize available foodstuffs. This is handled in collaboration with military and administrative authorities in the war areas. In 1941, 377,818 bags of rice were purchased, 80 per cent of the expected amount.

TABLE 12.—PURCHASES OF FOODSTUFFS IN WAR AREAS IN 1941

(Unit: Bags).

PROVINCE	Amount Expected	Amount Purchased	Per-centage
Kiangsu	100,000	81,818	82
Chekiang	30,000	30,000	100
Anhwei	266,000	266,000	100
Honan	75,000		
TOTAL	471,000	377,818	80

For 1942, 2,380,100 piculs of wheat and 1,528,540 piculs of unhusked rice were to be purchased in the frontline provinces of Fukien, Kiangsi, Anhwei, Chekiang, Honan, and Shansi.

By controlling such a big amount of foodstuffs, the Ministry of Food is able to supply food for the army and civilians. The army needs about 40,000,000 piculs of unhusked rice and wheat every year, while 20,000,000 piculs will be enough for public functionaries and civilians in major interior cities.

The Ministry of Food supplies every Chinese soldier with a daily ration of 24 ounces of rice. Government workers and their families are given a definite amount of low-price rice. Those who are 25 years old or younger are given six *tau* of rice every month for their own consumption and that of their families, those who range between 26 and 30 are given eight *tau*, and those who are above 30 are given one picul. A sufficient amount of foodstuffs is set

aside from the amount collected as land tax for civilian consumption in big cities. The system of government sale of rice has been introduced in Chungking since April, 1942. The Municipal Government of Chungking supplies every citizen with a definite amount of low-price rice every month.

Since the Government has been able to control the supply of food, it is not difficult to enforce food control measures, which are chiefly confined to the control of food merchants and markets. On February 13, 1942, the Ministry of Food adopted the *Regulations Governing the Registration of Food Merchants*. By August, 1942, over 600 food dealers had registered with the Government. Registration has been proceeding in all provinces except Shansi. Food trade guilds and other organizations relating to food control have been reorganized jointly by the Ministries of Food, Economic Affairs, and Social Affairs as a step toward the enforcement of regulations for food control. Landowners having an income of 300 or more piculs of unhusked rice every year are also required to register with the Government. This measure was first enforced in Szechwan, and has been extended to Kansu, Anhwei, Hunan, Shensi, and Kwangsi.

III. Food Treasury Notes: In purchasing foodstuffs, the Ministry of Food, in conjunction with the Ministry of Finance, issues Food Treasury Notes. The landowners are paid 70 per cent in such notes and 30 per cent in cash. The regulations governing the issuance of Food Treasury Notes in 1942 are as follows:

**REGULATIONS GOVERNING FOOD
TREASURY NOTES OF THE THIRTY-
FIRST YEAR OF THE REPUBLIC
(1942)**

*(Promulgated by the National
Government on August 10, 1942)*

Article I. The National Government, in its effort to supply army rations and food for civilian consumption in wartime, authorizes the Ministries of Finance and Food to issue food treasury notes for the payment of purchases of food.

Article II. The notes shall be issued by competent organs separately in various provinces in accordance with the amount of food needed and to be purchased. The notes shall bear the names of the provinces and the seals of the *hsien*

where they shall be distributed. The total amount of the notes to be issued shall be approved and decided by the Executive Yuan upon receiving petitions from competent organs.

Article III. The notes shall be redeemed annually in five instalments beginning with the Thirty-third Year of the Republic (1944). Beginning from that year, one-fifth of the total face value of the notes issued shall be redeemed through an exemption of the same amount of farm tax to be paid in kind in the respective provinces. The notes shall be fully redeemed in the Thirty-seventh Year of the Republic (1948).

Article IV. The notes shall bear an interest of five (5) per cent per annum, the payment of which shall be made out of the receipts of land tax collected in kind by the provinces where the notes shall be distributed. The amount of interest accrued shall decrease proportionally with the amortization of the notes.

Article V. The face value of the notes shall be in the denominations of one *shih tou* (ten *tou* equals a picul), two *shih tou*, five *shih tou*, one picul, five piculs, ten piculs and 100 piculs of either unhusked rice or wheat.

Article VI. The notes shall be secured on the receipts from land tax collected in kind and shall be accepted as security in government affairs.

Article VII. Judicial organs, in accordance with law, shall punish any offenses of counterfeiting or damaging the credit of the notes.

Article VIII. The present Regulations shall go into force from the date of promulgation.

Food Treasury Notes issued in 1941 amounted to 7,983,636 piculs of unhusked rice and 1,816,667 piculs of wheat, which were distributed in Szechwan, Kiangsi, Kwangsi, Hunan, Hupeh, Honan, Shensi, Suiyuan and Ningsia. Food Treasury Notes for 1942 have been issued since July, to be given as payments for food purchases together with war bonds and saving certificates.

IV. Storage Facilities and Savings. To store such a big amount of food, the Ministry of Food is strengthening the nation's storage system. Up to June, 1942, Free China has enough storage facilities to store 26,612,721 piculs of grain. To store the surplus food is one of the methods adopted by the

Ministry of Food to prevent the rise of prices, particularly during famine years. Up to August, 1942, the Ministry of Food has stored in 542 *hsien* in 16 provinces a total of 4,707,008 piculs of unhusked rice, 699,311 piculs of wheat, and 58,967 piculs of miscellaneous cereals, after having supplied the nation with sufficient foodstuffs.

To save foodstuffs from non-essential uses is another supplementary method the Government has adopted in food control. The prohibition of wine-making from foodstuffs has been enforced since 1938.

The Ministry of Food controls 20 provincial and one (Chungking) municipal food bureaus in addition to the Szechwan Food Transportation Bureau, the Storage Engineering Bureau, and civilian food supply bureaus in Chungking, Chengtu, Neikiang and Mienyang in Szechwan Province. Food control organs in *hsien* are food administration departments under the *hsien* governments. As the main problem is food transportation, the Ministry of Food has ordered provincial food bureaus to create special organs to handle food transportation, thus completing the three main branches of food control, namely: administration, storage and transportation, and supply.

APPENDIX

REGULATIONS GOVERNING THE CONTROL OF AGRICULTURAL, MINING, INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL ENTERPRISES IN TIME OF EMERGENCY

*(Promulgated by the National Government
on October 6, 1938)*

Article I. The Ministry of Economic Affairs in time of emergency, is authorized to select enterprises and goods from the following groups for control upon the approval of the Executive Yuan, in accordance with these Regulations.

1st Group: Cotton, silk, ramie, wool, and manufactures thereof.

2nd Group: Gold, silver, steel, iron, copper, tin, aluminium, nickel, lead, zinc, tungsten (wolfram), antimony, manganese, mercury, and the manufactures thereof.

3rd Group: Foodstuffs, vegetable oil, tea, sugar, leather, timber, salt, coal and coke, kerosene, gasoline, Diesel oil, lubricating oil, paper, lacquer, alcohol, cement, lime, acids and soda, matches, communication materials, telecommunication materials, electrical and mechanical materials, educational supplies, medicines, artificial

fertilizers, chinaware and pottery, bricks and tiles, glass.

4th Group: Other enterprises and goods petitioned for control by the Ministry of Economic Affairs and approved by the Executive Yuan.

Article II. The Ministry of Economic Affairs may administer, with the assistance of other ministries or commissions concerned, all control measures.

The Ministry of Economic Affairs may separately order, or with the ministries or commissions concerned, jointly order, the local governments to control specified enterprises or goods.

Article III. The Ministry of Economic Affairs may establish administrative offices for the control of specified enterprises or goods.

Article IV. The Ministry of Economic Affairs may fix appropriate standards for specific enterprises or goods in accordance with the following criteria:

- (1) Methods of production or management.
- (2) Kinds and quantity of raw materials in stock.
- (3) Working hours and the treatment of workers.
- (4) Quality of the products, quantity of the production and products in stock.
- (5) Cost of production.
- (6) Means of transportation and marketing.
- (7) Selling prices and profits.

Article V. The Ministry of Economic Affairs, upon the approval of the Executive Yuan, may take over the following enterprises for state management or invest in the enterprises for joint management to meet the need in time of emergency:

- (1) Mining enterprises indispensable in wartime.
- (2) Industries relating to the manufacture of war materials.
- (3) Electrical enterprises.

Article VI. The Ministry of Economic Affairs may compulsorily utilize or requisition privately-owned wasteland to meet the needs of production in time of emergency.

Article VII. The Ministry of Economic Affairs may directly engage in enterprises of various kinds in different localities to meet local demands, provided the enterprises or goods are needed in everyday life.

Article VIII. Producers or managers of specified enterprises or goods shall, in case they wish to close or suspend the enterprises, petition the Ministry of Economic Affairs for permission.

The Ministry of Economic Affairs is empowered to order enterprises already suspended or closed to resume production and operation.

Article IX. The Ministry of Economic Affairs may order the removal of specified enterprises located in or close to the war areas.

Article X. Article XXV or Article V shall be applicable to those enterprises unable to resume production and operation or to remove in accordance with Articles XIII and IX.

Article XI. The employees and workers of specified enterprises shall not declare strikes or sitdown strikes.

Article XII. The producers or managers of specified enterprises or goods shall not engage in speculation, hoarding, or any other act of manipulation.

Article XIII. The Ministry of Economic Affairs shall restrict or prohibit the export and import of specified goods.

Article XIV. The Ministry of Economic Affairs may readjust the consumption of specified goods in accordance with the actual conditions of supply and demand.

Article XV. The Ministry of Economic Affairs may adopt measures for the prohibition of the sale or regulation of the prices of specified goods if and when necessary.

Article XVI. The Ministry of Economic Affairs may order the producers or managers of specified goods to store the goods or remove the stock if and when necessary.

Article XVII. The Ministry of Economic Affairs may buy a portion or the entire quantity of specified goods at equitable prices to meet the needs in time of emergency.

Article XVIII. The Ministry of Economic Affairs may order specified enterprises to increase their capital, to amalgamate, or to reduce their sphere of operation if and when necessary.

Article XIX. The Ministry of Economic Affairs may order the closure of enterprises in case either of the following conditions prevails:

- (1) Use of raw materials that are necessary for military purposes.
- (2) The manufacture of unnecessary articles requiring raw materials of which there is a shortage.

The Ministry of Economic Affairs may use the land, buildings, machinery, motors, materials, tools, etc., belonging to the above-mentioned closed enterprises for other purposes. This ruling shall be applicable to enterprises reducing their sphere of operation as mentioned in Article XVIII.

Article XX. The Ministry of Economic Affairs may restrict or suspend enterprises

manufacturing luxuries or other unnecessary goods, and may apply the provisions of Articles XVII and XIX.

Article XXI. The Ministry of Economic Affairs may order specified enterprises to improve their management or methods, or the Ministry shall take over the management.

Article XXII. The Ministry of Economic Affairs may order enterprises capable of manufacturing goods for military use to manufacture such goods.

Article XXIII. The Ministry of Economic Affairs may, if necessary, order agricultural producers to grow needed crops.

Article XXIV. The Ministry of Economic Affairs may order specified enterprises to report or experiment on special inventions or patented goods, may prohibit them from publishing or disclosing the methods; may take over for government uses or invest in the enterprises for joint management.

Article XXV. The Ministry of Economic Affairs may render assistance to specified enterprises in accordance with their needs as mentioned hereinafter. The same shall be applicable to enterprises resuming operation in accordance with Article VIII, for their removal in accordance with Article IX, or for the increase of their capital or their amalgamation in accordance with Article XVIII.

- (1) Increase of capital.
- (2) Supply of materials.
- (3) Reconstruction planning.
- (4) Equipment expansion.
- (5) Technical direction.
- (6) Supply and readjustment of motor power.
- (7) Readjustment of transportation or marketing of products.
- (8) Readjustment and supply of labor.

Article XXVI. The Ministry of Economic Affairs shall from time to time render assistance and facilities as well as protection to enterprises or goods voluntarily removed from the war areas or places close to the war areas.

Article XXVII. The Ministry of Economic Affairs may establish administrative offices for the assistance to be rendered in accordance with Articles XXV and XXVI.

Article XXVIII. There shall be compensation for losses sustained as a result of enterprises being taken over by the Government in accordance with Article V, compulsory utilization and requisition in accordance with Article VI, transfer of goods or stock in accordance with Article XVI, the use of land, buildings, machinery, etc., in accordance with Article XIX and XX, or the utilization and joint management in accordance with Article XXIV.

Article XXIX. Any one committing one of the following crimes shall be subject to life imprisonment or to a term of more than seven years of imprisonment:

(1) Supplying raw materials to the enemy in an attempt to make profit.

(2) Disclosing the secrets of the enterprises to the enemy in an attempt to make profit.

(3) Destroying granaries, farms, mines or factories, in an attempt to make profit, thus rendering these enterprises useless.

Unsuccessful offenders under the present Article shall be punished nevertheless.

Article XXX. Any one violating the provisions of Article XI and going on strike or instigating such activity shall be subject to a term of not more than seven years of imprisonment or to a fine of not over \$1,000. Any one going on a sitdown strike or instigating such activity shall be subject to a term of not more than one year of imprisonment or to penal labor.

Article XXXI. Any one violating the provisions of Article XII and engaging in speculation and hoarding or any other act of manipulation shall be subject to a term of not more than five years of imprisonment with a fine of from one to three times the amount of profit made from such activities.

Article XXXII. Any one committing either of the following crimes shall be subject to a term of not more than one year of imprisonment or to a fine of \$1,000:

(1) Violating orders based on provisions in Articles VIII, IX, XVI, XVIII or XXII.

(2) Violating orders based on provisions in Articles XIII, XIV, XVII, XIX or XX.

Article XXXIII. Any one committing a crime mentioned in Articles XXIX, XXX, XXXI or XXXII, and at the same time violating other laws, thus deserving heavier punishment, shall be subject to the regulations violated.

Article XXXIV. Laws and regulations relating to agriculture, mining, industry and commerce promulgated before the promulgation of the present regulations shall be still applicable if not contrary to the present regulations.

Article XXXV. Separate regulations relating to the enforcement of the present regulations and the establishment of administrative offices as provided in Articles III and XXVII shall be promulgated.

Article XXXVI. These regulations shall come into force from the date of their promulgation.

REGULATIONS GOVERNING THE VALUATION OF COMMODITIES AND THE SUPPRESSION OF SPECULATION AND MANIPULATION IN TIME OF EMERGENCY

*(Adopted by the Executive Yuan
on February 7, 1939)*

Article I. Unless specifically provided by other laws and regulations, the prices of daily necessities as well as acts of speculation in time of emergency shall be governed by the provisions of the present Regulations.

Article II. A Commodity Valuation Committee shall be created by local authorities in cooperation with the chamber of commerce or trade guilds of the locality concerned with a view to fixing the prices for articles of daily necessity.

The above-mentioned "local authorities" shall be the *hsien* government in the case of a *hsien*, the municipal government in the case of a municipality or the bureau of social affairs in the case of a special municipality under the direct control of the Executive Yuan.

Article III. The Commodity Valuation Committee shall be composed of representatives of local authorities and business organizations. The chairman of the Committee shall be a representative of local authorities; and the number of representatives of business organizations shall not exceed one-half of the total membership on the Committee.

Article IV. The regulations and by-laws of the Commodity Valuation Committee shall be drafted by the local authorities. They shall be submitted to the Ministry of Economic Affairs through superior authorities for approval.

Article V. The daily necessities whose prices are to be fixed shall be designated by local authorities from time to time in accordance with actual conditions of the locality concerned.

Prior to such designation local authorities shall petition superior authorities for their approval and then report to the Ministry of Economic Affairs.

Article VI. In fixing the prices of daily necessities, the Commodity Valuation Committee shall be guided by the principle of placing equal emphasis on the interests of both producers and consumers.

The standards of valuation shall be as follows:—

(1) For articles which have not been or are only slightly affected by the war in regard to their cost of production, transportation or sale, the average price for one year or three years prevailing before the war shall be taken as the standard of valuation.

(2) For articles which have been affected by the war in regard to their cost of production, transportation or sale, wartime cost of production plus a reasonable profit shall be taken as the standard of valuation.

(3) For articles whose cost of production is difficult to calculate, the total working capital plus a reasonable profit shall be taken as the standard of valuation.

The amount of "profit" mentioned in the two preceding paragraphs shall be assessed by the Commodity Valuation Committee and submitted to local competent authorities for approval and thence reported to the superior authorities and the Ministry of Economic Affairs.

Article VII. The Commodity Valuation Committee shall first work out the procedure of investigation and the methods of valuation with reference to articles of daily need classified according to the above-mentioned standards, and submit same to competent local authorities for approval.

Article VIII. The prices of daily necessities fixed by the Commodity Valuation Committee shall be gazetted by competent local authorities. Whenever necessary, competent local authorities may order the Committee to re-investigate and re-fix the prices.

Article IX. The Commodity Valuation Committee may petition competent local authorities to order manufacturers (factories) and merchants (stores) of daily necessities to submit from time to time a statistical report on their production cost, purchasing price, selling price and goods in stock.

Article X. The Commodity Valuation Committee, taking the demand and supply in the local market as a basis, shall examine from time to time the causes of the fluctuation of the prices of daily necessities. Whenever necessary, the Committee may, with the approval of competent local authorities, undertake the purchase, transportation and sale of daily necessities, or entrust some other organizations to do such. Regulations governing the purchase and sale of commodities either by the Committee itself or through other organizations shall be separately enacted and sent to superior authorities for approval, and then reported to the Ministry of Economic Affairs for record-keeping. The superior authorities shall exercise rigid supervision in order to avoid abuses.

Article XI. When the Commodity Valuation Committee discovers illegal hoarding of large quantities of daily necessities by individuals, stores or factories, it shall petition competent local authorities to effect compulsory sale according to the officially fixed prices.

Article XII. The Commodity Valuation Committee shall compile a monthly report on

the Committee's activities and market conditions and submit it through the competent local authorities to the Ministry of Economic Affairs for record-keeping.

Article XIII. The violation of any of the following provisions shall be regarded as an act of speculation and reported to the local court according to Article XXXI of the *Regulations Governing the Control of Agricultural, Mining, Industrial and Commercial Enterprises*:

(1) The volume of trading among factories and merchants engaged in the production or sale of daily necessities shall not exceed the amount of stock actually on hand.

(2) Producers and dealers in daily necessities shall not quote prices on the basis of a representative brand or grade of commodities, or settle their profit or loss accounts on the basis of the price differential between the representative commodity and other commodities.

(3) Forward dealings in daily necessities shall not be handled by any person or group of persons not engaged in the specified trade.

(4) For transactions in daily necessities the establishment of a market similar in nature to the commodity exchange is not permitted.

Article XIV. Any of the following activities shall be regarded as violation of the principles governing valuation of commodities and reported to the local court according to Section 2 of Article XXXII of the *Regulations Governing the Control of Agricultural, Mining, Industrial and Commercial Enterprises*:

(1) Those who fail to report or report untruthfully to the Commodity Valuation Committee, as provided by Article IX of the present Regulations.

(2) Those who sell daily necessities without regard to the prices fixed by the Commodity Valuation Committee.

(3) Those who hoard or conceal a large quantity of daily necessities in violation of Article XI of the present Regulations.

Article XV. The present Regulations shall come into force from the day of promulgation.

REGULATIONS GOVERNING THE PURCHASE AND SALE OF DAILY NECESSITIES AT EQUITABLE PRICES

(Promulgated by the Ministry of Economic Affairs on December 5, 1939)

Article I. The purchase and sale of daily necessities at equitable prices shall be undertaken according to the present Regulations.

Article II. "Daily necessities" referred to in the present Regulations shall be restricted to such commodities as the people's food, clothing

and daily used articles. The kinds of such commodities shall be designated by the Ministry of Economic Affairs from time to time.

Article III. For the purpose of stabilizing the prices of daily necessities and meeting the needs of the people, the Ministry of Economic Affairs shall establish the Bureau for the Purchase and Sale of Daily Necessities at Equitable Prices (to be hereinafter called the Bureau for Purchase and Sale) to administer matters pertaining to the purchase and sale of daily necessities at equitable prices in southwestern and northwestern provinces. The organic law of the Bureau shall be separately formulated.

Article IV. The working capital of the Bureau for Purchase and Sale shall be appropriated in periodic instalments by the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks in accordance with actual needs. The Bureau shall keep an independent account subject to direct auditing and supervision of the Joint Board.

Article V. The purchase and sale of daily necessities at equitable prices by the Bureau for Purchase and Sale shall be undertaken on the following principles:

- (1) In purchasing daily necessities, the lowest price level shall be maintained in order to protect the interest of the producers.
- (2) In making wholesale sales of daily necessities, the highest price level shall be fixed in order to protect the interest of the consumers.
- (3) Legitimate enterprises of the merchants shall be protected and there shall be no competition against such merchants.
- (4) The fixing of wholesale and retail prices shall be based on a policy of stability. Violent price fluctuations shall be avoided. Irrational profits shall not be made.

Article VI. The routine procedure of making purchases and sales of daily necessities by the Bureau for Purchase and Sale shall be entrusted to public or private institutions or sales agents of native produce handling or managing productive enterprises (to be hereinafter called public and private enterprise institutions) who will assume full responsibility.

Article VII. Matters relating to daily necessities that may be purchased through agents of the Bureau for Purchase and Sale, the amount of such goods, as well as the relative urgency of their respective purchase or sale, shall be determined by the Ministry of Economic Affairs from time to time.

Article VIII. Daily necessities, to be purchased and transported by agents entrusted by the Bureau for Purchase and Sale, shall, aside from agricultural products, be confined to goods produced by factories in the interior, or factories

moved to the interior, handicraft articles, native goods and native products of factories in Shanghai and Hongkong. Whenever necessary, however, the Bureau may also purchase such commodities for which the provision of foreign exchange is permissible, or daily necessities whose import is prohibited when special permission is obtainable.

During the first six months the afore-mentioned industrial products, handicraft articles, and native goods purchased shall be at least 20 per cent of the total quantity of goods purchased. An increase of 10 per cent shall be made in each subsequent six months until the standard of 50 per cent of the total quantity is reached.

Article IX. The Bureau for Purchase and Sale shall map out comprehensive plans regarding the actual needs in the interior and entrust the various public and private enterprise institutions to negotiate with the factories in Shanghai and Hongkong producing native goods for the supply of goods at regular intervals. The quantity of goods ordered by the Bureau for Purchase and Sale shall be reported to the Ministry of Economic Affairs and the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks from time to time.

Article X. With regard to native products and handicraft articles produced in the interior, the Bureau for Purchase and Sale, aside from supplying the needs of the interior regions, shall as far as possible, entrust the various public and private enterprise institutions to sell such goods in Shanghai and Hongkong, and thereby obtain as much cash remittance as possible with a view to effecting an inter-change of products with the factories manufacturing native products in Shanghai and Hongkong.

Article XI. Public and private enterprise institutions thus entrusted by the Bureau for Purchase and Sale shall make an estimate of the quantity of goods to be purchased according to the needs of various localities and petition for the needed capital. They shall also be responsible for the proper distribution of the goods purchased according to their own estimate and sell them directly to retail merchants.

Article XII. Regarding wholesale dealings in daily necessities as provided in the preceding article, the wholesale prices shall be tentatively fixed according to the cost of purchase and transportation plus a reasonable amount of profit to be publicly announced upon the approval of the Ministry of Economic Affairs and the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks.

The aforementioned profit shall not exceed 5 per cent of the cost.

Article XIII. Retail merchants shall sell daily necessities directly to the consumers. They shall not transfer them to other retailers.

The profit from retail sales on the aforementioned daily necessities shall not exceed 20 per cent of the wholesale cost. The prices shall be fixed and announced by the Bureau for Purchase and Sale or the public and private enterprise institutions entrusted with this work, in collaboration with local chambers of commerce and guilds of related trades, and submitted to the Ministry of Economic Affairs and the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks for record.

Article XIV. The Bureau for Purchase and Sale or the public and private enterprise institutions entrusted with this work shall, aside from wholesale sales, also establish retail shops to sell daily necessities according to retail prices fixed as provided for in the preceding article. The profit from retail sales may be used to defray the expenses of retail shops. Any surplus profit shall be credited to the wholesale loss and gain account of the Bureau for Purchase and Sale.

Article XV. If, after the rate of wholesale prices has been approved, there should be a violent increase in the cost of transportation and market prices at producing localities, thereby making the originally fixed wholesale prices insufficient to cover the cost, the Bureau for Purchase and Sale shall make up the deficit from the profit account. In case this is insufficient to make up the shortage, the Bureau may petition the Ministry of Economic Affairs and the Joint Board of the Four Government Banks to alter the wholesale prices.

Article XVI. When the profit made by the Bureau for Purchase and Sale is insufficient to meet the expenses, thus causing a diminution in its working capital, the shortage may be supplemented by the Government.

Article XVII. For the institution of price control, public sales, or the purchase and sale by wholesale institutions on the part of local governments upon the approval of superior authorities, the provisions of Articles V, VII, VIII, IX, XII, XIII and XIV of the present Regulations may be applied.

Article XVIII. The present Regulations shall take effect from the date of promulgation.

A List of Daily Necessities as Designated in Article II of the *Regulations Governing the Purchase and Sale of Daily Necessities at Equitable Prices*.

(Promulgated by the Ministry of Economic Affairs on June 15, 1940)

- (1) Clothing: Cotton, cotton yarn, cotton cloth (all kinds of original, bleached, dyed and printed cotton cloth, and the manufactures thereof), ramie cloth, (all kinds of original, bleached, dyed and printed ramie cloth, and the manufactures thereof), wool yarn, home-spun

woollen materials, leather and the manufactures thereof.

- (2) Foodstuffs: Rice (husked and unhusked), wheat and wheat flour, beans, rapeseeds, sesame and the manufactures thereof (oil, sesame paste, sauce), salt, sugar.
- (3) Fuel: Coal (mass coal, coal balls, coal dust, coke), charcoal, matches.
- (4) Other daily necessities: Daily-used articles (chinaware and pottery, enamel, glass: metallic manufactures, paper), soap, soda, all kinds of dyes, metals and electric appliance materials, needles.

REGULATIONS OUTLAWING THE HOARDING OF AND PROFITEERING IN IMPORTANT DAILY NECESSITIES IN TIME OF EMERGENCY

*(Promulgated by the National Government
on February 3, 1941)*

Article I. Unless otherwise provided for in other regulations, the prohibition of hoarding of and profiteering in important daily necessities shall be enforced under the present Regulations.

Article II. "Important daily necessities," referred to in the present Regulations, shall be of the following categories:—

- (1) Foodstuffs: Rice (husked and unhusked), wheat, flour, kaoliang, millet, corn and beans.
- (2) Clothing: Raw cotton, cotton yarn, cotton cloth (including original, bleached, dyed and other colors), ramie cloth (including original, bleached, dyed and other colors), and leather.
- (3) Fuel: Coal (including coal dust, coal balls and coke) and charcoal.
- (4) Daily articles: Salt, paper, soap, matches, rapeseeds, and vegetable oil.
- (5) Other goods designated by the Ministry of Economic Affairs.

Article III. Any of the following activities shall be considered as "hoarding":

- (1) Purchase and storing of the above-mentioned daily necessities in large quantities by persons who are not merchants, or merchants who do not deal in such commodities.
- (2) Purchase and storing of such commodities by dealers thereof for the purpose of hoarding and profiteering.
- (3) Purchase and storing of such commodities by persons using fictitious names without actually having such buyers and sellers.

Article IV. "Profiteering" shall comprise a refusal to sell one's stock to meet the needs of the market, or selling one's stock and raising the price above and beyond the legitimate profit.

The amount of the legitimate profit mentioned in the preceding paragraph shall be decided from time to time by the competent authorities in accordance with local conditions.

Article V. Upon the promulgation of the present Regulations, the Ministry of Economic Affairs shall specify areas for the enforcement of the present Regulations; and shall, at the same time, publish the lists of names and kinds of prohibited commodities. The same Ministry shall notify the competent authorities to enforce the present Regulations.

Article VI. With the exception of specially established offices, competent local authorities responsible for the suppression of hoarding and profiteering activities, inspection, and the punishment of offenders according to the present Regulations, shall be the social affairs bureaus of special municipalities directly under the control of the Executive Yuan, and municipal and *hsien* governments. Whenever necessary, the Ministry of Economic Affairs may appoint special officials or instruct its subsidiary organs for the control of commodities as well as for the purchase and sale of daily necessities at equitable prices in cooperation with competent authorities in the enforcement of the present Regulations.

Article VII. The competent authorities, within four days after the receipt of notification from the Ministry of Economic Affairs, shall announce the lists mentioned in Article V of the present Regulations to the public within their jurisdiction; and shall, in addition, notify the local chambers of commerce and trade guilds concerned.

Article VIII. Persons who are not merchants, or merchants who are not dealers in the designated commodities, but who hoarded such commodities before the publication of the prohibited list, should report to the competent authorities and undertake to dispose of their stock within a specified time.

Article IX. Dealers of designated commodities who hoarded such commodities before the publication of the prohibited lists should report to the competent authorities and their respective guilds and place their stocks on sale. The interested guilds should make periodic investigations into the sale of such commodities and report to the competent authorities.

Article X. The competent authorities may either fix the selling prices of the commodities which should be sold within a specified time or placed on the market for sale, or order their removal to a designated destination for sale.

Article XI. Owners of the commodities which are to be disposed of within a specified time shall not refuse to sell to any consumer or merchant dealing in such commodities who is willing to buy according to market prices or official quotations.

Owners of such commodities may not buy them back under fictitious names.

Article XII. If the said commodities cannot be disposed of within a specified time, the competent authorities may undertake to sell them for the owners, or order the owners to deliver them to their respective guilds for sale. Whenever necessary, organs in charge of commodity control and the purchase and sale of daily necessities at equitable prices may buy over such commodities at reasonable prices.

Article XIII. After the present Regulations are put into force, the dealers concerned shall register their purchases with their respective guilds upon the purchase of such commodities; they shall also report to the guilds when such commodities are sold.

The guilds concerned shall forward the aforesaid registrations and reports every month to the competent authorities for examination.

Article XIV. The guilds concerned shall be responsible for investigating and reporting on the hoarding and profiteering activities of their members and non-members.

Those guilds concerned which fail to comply with the present Regulations, or try to shield offending members, shall be punished by the competent authorities in accordance with law.

Article XV. Manufacturers and dealers producing, buying and transporting the designated commodities, shall make monthly reports regarding the amount of their production and stocks, together with the cost of production, to their respective guilds which shall, in turn, submit them to the competent authorities for reference.

Article XVI. The competent authorities shall dispatch officials from time to time to investigate the purchase, marketing, storing and transportation of designated commodities within their jurisdiction, and also have the right to examine the accounts and bills of the dealers.

The guilds concerned shall appoint responsible officials to assist the competent authorities in conducting investigations according to the present Regulations.

Article XVII. The penalty of confiscation of all hoarded commodities and, in addition, a fine of not more than one thousand dollars (\$1,000) shall be imposed on any person committing one of the following acts:—

(1) Failure to make reports in accordance with Articles XIII and IX of the present Regulations, or to make correct reports.

(2) Failure to comply with the orders of competent local authorities under Article X of the present Regulations.

(3) Violation of the second part of Article XI of the present Regulations.

(4) Continuance of hoarding of and profiteering in designated commodities subsequent to the publication of the prohibited lists by the competent authorities.

Article XVIII. Besides the confiscation of all hoarded commodities, the competent authorities shall institute legal proceedings against the offenders in a court of law under Article XXXI of the *Regulations Governing the Control of Agricultural, Mining, Industrial and Commercial Enterprises* for any one of the following acts:

(1) Continuance of hoarding on the part of non-merchants, or merchants not dealing in the designated commodities, after the publication of the prohibited list by competent local authorities.

(2) Hoarding, profiteering and concealment of large quantities of designated commodities under fictitious names, or storing them in different localities with the intention of impeding the search by competent local authorities and of evading the law.

(3) Buying and selling in the black market of commodities which are to be sold within a specified time, or on warehouse certificates but without keeping such goods in stock, or on speculation in stocks and exchange, etc.

Article XIX. In meting out punishment for the offenses stated in the two preceding articles, local competent authorities shall submit their decisions to provincial or municipal governments for approval, and the latter shall report the cases to the Ministry of Economic Affairs for reference. Unless otherwise provided for in other regulations, all confiscated goods shall be used for price stabilization.

Article XX. Persons possessing reliable information regarding hoarding activities in violation of the present Regulations shall be permitted to furnish a confidential report to the competent authorities upon the production of evidence.

The competent authorities shall reward such informers upon due punishment of the offenders and maintain secrecy. In case the informers are open to suspicion of making false accusations, they shall be dealt with according to law.

Article XXI. One half of the fines and the proceeds from the sale of confiscated goods shall be used for price stabilization, and the other half shall be appropriated as follows:—

(1) Thirty per cent of this sum shall be awarded to the informers or those responsible for the discovery of hoarding activities, and the other twenty per cent to government organs effecting the discovery.

(2) If the discovery is made without the aid of informers and others, the entire sum shall be awarded to the government organs effecting such discovery.

Article XXII. The competent authorities shall make monthly reports to provincial or municipal governments concerning the suppression of hoarding and profiteering activities. The latter shall forward these reports to the Ministry of Economic Affairs for examination, and either commend the competent authorities or punish them according to the merit of their work.

Article XXIII. Officials who intentionally shield offenders, connive at their activities, or commit any other offenses while discharging their duties, as well as conducting searches and enforcing punishments according to the present Regulations, shall be punished upon the production of proper evidence, in accordance with the anti-corruption provisions of the Criminal Code.

Article XXIV. Government employees who abuse their power and utilize their position to engage in hoarding and profiteering activities shall be given heavier punishment under the related provisions of the Criminal Code, in addition to the penalty provided in the present Regulations.

Article XXV. Competent local authorities as well as offices in charge of commodity control and those in charge of the purchase and sale of daily necessities at equitable prices, whom the Ministry of Economic Affairs has empowered to suppress hoarding and profiteering, may, in accordance with the present Regulations, enact separate regulations for any of the designated commodities upon the approval of provincial or municipal governments and the Ministry of Economic Affairs.

Article XXVI. The present Regulations shall come into force from the date of their promulgation.

REGULATIONS GOVERNING THE CONTROL OF INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL ENTERPRISES AND ORGANIZATIONS IN TIME OF EMERGENCY

*(Promulgated by the Executive Yuan
on June, 17, 1941)*

Article I. Unless specifically subject to other laws and regulations, the control of industrial and commercial enterprises and organizations in time of emergency shall be governed by the provisions of the present Regulations.

Article II. The industrial and commercial enterprises specified in the present Regulations shall be enterprises engaged in essential commodities and industries as designated by the Ministry of Economic Affairs. The organizations specified in the present Regulations shall be chambers of commerce and trade guilds of the specified enterprises.

Article III. The Ministries of Economic Affairs and Social Affairs shall designate *hsien* or municipalities as the unit for areas where the present Regulations shall be applied. Competent authorities in charge of the enforcement of the present Regulations shall be *hsien* governments in *hsien*, municipal governments in municipalities and bureaus of social affairs in special municipalities directly under the Executive Yuan.

Article IV. Dealers engaged in essential commodities and industries, with the exception of small enterprises, shall be required to establish corporations, firms and shops and to make corporation or business registration according to law. Factories shall be required to make corporation or business registration and factory registration. The sphere of small enterprises shall be decided by order of the Ministry of Economic Affairs.

Article V. Small dealers in essential commodities and enterprises shall register with their respective trade guilds or the chambers of commerce with regard to the categories of their business, localities of their business, capital and the person in charge. The chambers of commerce or trade guilds shall not charge any fees for the registration and shall report to competent authorities once every three months.

Article VI. Competent authorities shall suppress those enterprises which are not small enterprises and have not established corporations, firms or shops, yet are engaged in essential commodities and enterprises. Registered corporations, firms and shops shall be considered not to have established corporations, firms and shops if they engage in business beyond the scope of the registered categories, or conduct other private business in the names of corporations, firms or shops.

Article VII. A fine of not over thirty (30) per cent of the business income shall be imposed on corporations, firms or shops engaged in essential commodities and industries if they let others use their names in order to engage in business activities.

Article VIII. Competent authorities shall impose punishment, in accordance with law, on corporations, firms, shops or factories engaged in essential commodities and industries if they do not register within the specified period of time, and shall compel them to register.

Article IX. Competent authorities, within one month, shall dispatch officials to areas where chambers of commerce or trade guilds have not been formed to supervise and direct the organization of such chambers of commerce and guilds after the areas have been designated as under control in accordance with the present Regulations.

Article X. Trade guilds engaged in essential commodities and enterprises, in accordance with the *Regulations Governing the Compulsory Participation in and Restriction of Withdrawals from Trade Guilds in Time of Emergency*, shall supervise and direct the joining of guilds by corporations, firms, shops and factories and restrict withdrawals. Corporations, firms, shops and factories which are not able to form trade guilds according to law shall join chambers of commerce. Trade guilds of enterprises engaged in essential commodities and industries shall join chambers of commerce. Competent authorities shall impose punishment on those violating the aforementioned provisions in accordance with Article III of the *Regulations Governing the Compulsory Participation in and Restriction of Withdrawals from Trade Guilds*.

Article XI. Chambers of commerce and trade guilds of enterprises engaged in essential commodities and industries shall examine whether or not members of their respective organizations have completed the procedure of registration, and whether or not particulars reported coincide with actual conditions at the time of registration.

Article XII. Chambers of commerce and trade guilds of enterprises engaged in essential commodities and industries shall issue membership certificates to their respective members.

Article XIII. Competent authorities in accordance with the *Regulations Governing the Despatch of Secretaries to Trade Organizations*, may appoint secretaries to chambers of commerce and trade guilds.

Article XIV. Responsible persons of the chambers of commerce and trade guilds shall be constantly stationed in their respective offices by turn to direct routine affairs. These organizations may form joint offices whenever necessary.

Article XV. The functions of chambers of commerce and trade guilds, unless provided by separate regulations, shall be as follows:

(1) To assist competent authorities in fixing prices and stabilizing the market, and to direct and supervise their respective members in operating their businesses in accordance with law.

(2) To direct their members in increasing production, reducing production cost, and developing their enterprises.

(3) To direct their members in reforming the old accounting system and establishing a new accounting system, as well as promoting technical improvement of the accounting system.

(4) To supervise their members in preparing accounts and bills concerning quantities of daily purchase and sale of commodities and

the cost of production and transportation for the scrutinization and auditing by competent authorities.

(5) To supervise their members in selling their goods at the prices fixed by price stabilization organizations and in controlling and supplying the market in accordance with government orders.

(6) To supervise their members in adopting the system of fixing the prices and issuing invoices.

(7) To assist in settling difficulties in the transportation of commodities and in suppressing illegitimate competition.

(8) To direct their members in reporting any case of hoarding and profiteering.

(9) To confer with industrial and commercial circles in order to investigate industrial and commercial conditions in various localities for the reference of their members.

(10) Chambers of commerce are to assist trade guilds in carrying on their work.

Article XVI. Chambers of commerce and trade guilds of enterprises engaged in essential commodities and industries, from time to time, shall call meetings of representatives of their respective members to discuss their work and to read laws and regulations promulgated by the government for general observation.

Article XVII. Competent authorities shall, from time to time, call meetings of responsible officials of chambers of commerce and trade guilds of enterprises engaged in essential commodities and industries to inquire into the work of their respective organizations, and shall send officials to inspect :

(1) Whether or not corporations, firms, shops or factories are registered in accordance with the provisions in Article IV of the present Regulations.

(2) Whether or not small dealers in essential commodities and industries are registered with chambers of commerce or trade guilds.

(3) Whether or not corporations, firms, shops or businessmen are violating provisions in Articles VI and VII.

(4) Whether or not corporations, firms, shops or factories are abiding by the business control of chambers of commerce or their respective trade guilds, or whether or not there is any case of speculation and profiteering.

(5) Whether or not any corporation, firm, shop or factory has not joined chambers of commerce or trade guilds, or freely withdrawn from such organizations.

(6) Whether or not chambers of commerce or trade guilds of enterprises engaged in essential commodities and industries are carrying on their work in accordance with provisions of Articles XIV, XV and XVI of the present Regulations.

(7) Other matters pertaining to the enterprises engaged in essential commodities and industries.

Officials in charge of the inspection, upon the discovery of any act violating the Regulations, shall recommend the imposition of punishment by competent authorities, but may not directly impose punishment.

Article XVIII. The present Regulations shall come into in force from the date of promulgation.

CHAPTER XVII

PUBLIC HEALTH AND MEDICINE

HISTORY

"The type of medicine practiced in China was quite similar to that of Europe in the pre-scientific era. Philosophical concepts controlled the field, and the ills to which the flesh of man is heir were all related to the universe. Chinese ideas of cosmology were the basis of the theory and art of medicine. Health was dependent upon a proper balance between the two great essences or humors, the *yin* and the *yang*, and the five elements: metal, wood, water, fire and earth. Any disturbance of this delicate balance resulted in disease, and the object of treatment was to restore the equilibrium. Hence, drugs were classified according to their ability to increase or decrease the amount of *yin* or *yang* in the human body, or to bring about a normal correlation among the various elements.

"During the course of centuries an enormous number of substances came to be regarded as possessing medicinal value. Many of these are now known to be worthless, but it is equally certain that many other drugs of real value have been discovered by the Chinese. Although the theory underlying their use was wrong, nevertheless many of the substances themselves are therapeutically useful. Some of these have also been in common use in other parts of the world, some have in recent years been shown to be extremely good remedies, while many others still await systematic study

"Except for some work by surgeons of the East India Company, the introduction of scientific medicine into China was by medical missionaries. Peter Parker, the first regularly appointed medical missionary, arrived in China in 1834 and began work in Canton a year later. So impressed was Parker with the necessity of training a Chinese medical profession that as early as 1837 he was able to report the admission of three young Chinese students to his hospital for study. Although all through his life Parker pressed for the establishment of a proper medical college in China, it was not until 1866 that a

medical school was first opened in connection with the Canton Hospital."*

The history of organized Chinese public health work may be traced to 1902 when the Peiyang Sanitary Department was established. In 1911, the North Manchurian Plague Prevention Service was organized to combat the plague outbreak in North China. Another plague epidemic in 1917 brought into being the National Epidemic Prevention Bureau in Peiping. The administration of health work in the country was, however, vested in the health department of the Ministry of Interior. The department, which was the predecessor of the National Health Administration, was first established in 1911.

(*From:—"Medical Education" by Dr. L. G. Kilborn in *Wartime China as Seen by Westerners*; The China Publishing Co., Chungking, 1942.)

NATIONAL HEALTH ADMINISTRATION

The National Health Administration has been alternately attached to the Ministry of Interior and the Executive Yuan. It was under the Ministry of Interior from April to October, 1927. On November 1, 1927, a Ministry of Health was inaugurated with Mr. Hsueh Tu-pi as minister. He was succeeded by Dr. J. Heng Liu in 1929. In 1931, the ministry was abolished and its work was taken over by the Ministry of Interior with Dr. Liu as the director-general. In 1935, the health administration was placed directly under the Executive Yuan.

At the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war, a Board of Health was created under the National Military Council to centralize all health and medical activities under its two main divisions: the Army Medical Administration and the National Health Administration. The board was short-lived, for in January, 1938, the Army Medical Administration became affiliated to the Ministry of Military Affairs and the National Health Administration to the Ministry of Interior with Dr. F. C. Yen as director-general. In April, 1940, it had its status raised by coming once again directly under the Executive Yuan. Since then Dr. P. Z. King

has been director-general, and Dr. James K. Shen, deputy director-general.

The Administration consists of four departments:

1. Department of General Affairs (director, Mr. S. C. Hsu), which handles documents, correspondence, staff, accounts and publications.

2. Department of Medical Administration (director, Dr. S. Y. Yue), which supervises medical organizations, registers medical personnel and associations, deals with drugs, and compiles and revises the Chinese Pharmacopoeia.

3. Department of Health Organization and Services (director, Dr. C. C. Yen), which promotes local health services, the training of personnel, executes sanitary engineering projects, and is responsible for the examination of food and drink and the improvement of national nutrition.

4. Department of Epidemic Prevention (director, Dr. W. W. Yung), which takes charge of the prevention and control of epidemic and endemic diseases, quarantine, promotion and establishment of anti-epidemic services and supervises the manufacture of biological products.

SUBSIDIARY ORGANIZATIONS

The task of protecting the people against epidemic diseases as well as maintaining the normal health services is undertaken principally through the following subsidiary organizations of the Administration:

The National Institute of Health (director, Dr. C. K. Chu) undertakes research and field demonstrations on various technical problems relating to health. There are two branch institutes, Epidemiological Research Institute and Nutrition Research Institute, and eight departments, public health, experimental medicine, chemistry and materia medica, sanitary engineering, maternity and child health, health education, nursing, and health statistics. Under the Institute is the Public Health Personnel Training Institute in Kweiyang (director, Dr. Yao Hsun-yuan), which trains public health officers, public health nurses and other auxiliary personnel.

The Central Hospital has two branches, one at Chungking (superintendent, Dr. S. C. Wu) and one at Kweiyang (superintendent, Dr. Chung Shih-fan) each with an affiliated school of nursing and a capacity of about 250 beds. Both are equipped with X-ray and modern clinical facilities.

There are separate departments for medicine, surgery, gynecology and obstetrics, pediatrics, dermatology, ophthalmology, otolaryngology, dentistry, X-ray, diagnostic laboratory, physico-therapy and pharmacy.

Quarantine Stations carry out the inspection of bus and boat passengers, fumigation of ships and the control of communicable diseases. Preventive inoculations are given at bus stations and wharves against cholera, smallpox, plague, meningitis and diphtheria. In addition to the main station in Chungking and a branch station at Wanhien above Ichang, temporary ones are established at times of plague and cholera epidemics. Dr. Z. H. Tsok is director of the stations.

Weishengshu (National Health Administration) Anti-Epidemic Corps (director, Dr. W. W. Yung) were first organized in 1938 to meet the increasing need of conducting epidemic prevention, health protection and curative services among the civilians. It has regional offices, anti-epidemic units, isolation hospitals, bacteriological laboratories, sanitary engineering units and supply depots. Their work extends to all provinces in Free China.

Stations for the Treatment of Venereal Diseases were established by the National Health Administration at Enshih (Hupeh), Kweilin (Kwangsi) and Chuhsien (Chekiang). The latter was withdrawn because of the hostilities in Chekiang province in May, 1942.

The Health Commissioner's Office for the Northwest (acting director, Dr. Y. N. Yang) promotes medical and health work in the seven provinces of Shensi, Shansi, Honan, Kansu, Chinghai, Ningsia and Suiyuan. The office maintains a hospital in Lanchow which has a capacity of 120 beds, and is fitted with water supply and central heating systems. The office has a training institute, an experimental health station which maintains an out-patient department and two mobile field units each with a personnel of 20, including four doctors.

Mongolia Health Center (director, Dr. P. N. Song) and Sichang, (director, Dr. Hui C. Chang), Yaan, (director, Dr. Tan Tsu-lieh) and Hweili (director, Chang Tun-jen) Health Centers in Sikang province aim at the development of modern medicine in China's border provinces. Mobile health units were organized to tour outlying districts.

Highway Health Stations were established to render curative and preventive services to travelers, refugees, highway laborers and villagers and to encourage and stimulate the development of health services in various provinces in Free China. By the end of October, 1942, there were 39 stations at important points along different highways, excluding the 16 stations on the Yunnan-Burma highway which had been either wound up or handed over to the local authorities in Yunnan province following the loss of Burma. Each station has a hospital for serious and emergency cases, an outpatient department, and a small diagnostic laboratory.

Emergency Purchasing Committee for Medical Supplies, with Dr. F. Y. Tai as chairman, was organized to relieve any shortage in medical supplies. It was provided with a revolving fund for the purchase and transportation from various sources of essential drugs to be supplied to different medical and health organizations and the general public. To encourage the importation of drugs and supplies for emergency medical relief purposes, the National Health Administration issues duty-free certificates to all pharmacies and medical institutions for such supplies upon request.

The Central Pharmaceutical Manufacturing Company (manager, Dr. T. H. Tang) was formed in the latter part of 1940 to manufacture as many drugs as native raw materials are available therefor. Its capital was subscribed to by government and private sources.

The National Epidemic Prevention Bureau (director, Dr. F. F. Tang) and the Northwest Epidemic Prevention Bureau (Dr. Y. N. Yang) are engaged in research work and the manufacture of biological products. Working under difficult conditions created by the war, the two bureaus have managed to increase their output considerably. Products manufactured include bacterial and virus

vaccines, sera and anti-toxins, diagnostic antigens and sera, and toxins and toxoids.

The Narcotics Bureau (director, Dr. C. K. Liang) was established in 1935 in accordance with the international convention held in 1931 for the control of the following ten kinds of narcotics and their preparations: opium, morphine, codeine, dionine, apomorphine hydrochloride, extract cannabis, cocaine, strychnine, eukodal and pantopon. The Bureau operates a factory which is manufacturing tinctures, ampoules, tablets of opium, and its derivatives.

The Surgical Instruments and Hospital Equipment Factory (manager, C. K. Yang) has been making standard surgical instruments, sanitary engineering equipment and artificial limbs. The orthopedic section sends skilled fitters to convalescent camps to fit artificial limbs to disabled soldiers.

STATISTICAL SUMMARY

The following is a statistical summary of the work of the National Health Administration in 1941:

GENERAL AFFAIRS

- (1) Number of documents handled by the Administration in the year:

Total—43,123:

Received—22,056,

Despatched—21,067.

- (2) Laws and regulations promulgated in the year:—52.

- (3) Number of staff by the end of the year:—1,899:

M.—1,158, F.—741.

Staff of the Administration proper:—118.

M.—97, F.—21.

- (4) Training of public health personnel:

INSTITUTES	GRADUATED IN THE YEAR		UNDER TRAINING BY THE END OF THE YEAR	
	Classes	Students.	Classes	Students
Kweiyang T. I.	14	234	2	30
Northwest T. I.			6	63

MEDICAL ADMINISTRATION

- (5) Medical persons registered in the year :—1,929.

(647 Doctors; 10 dentists;
58 pharmacists; 330 nurses;
506 midwives; 378 dispensers.)

- (6) Foreign medical persons registered in the year :—21.

(16 Doctors; 5 nurses.)

- (7) Number of licenses issued for patent medicines in the year : 115.

- (8) Number of passes issued for free import of emergency relief drugs in the year : 253.

- (9) American Red Cross donations distributed through the Administration in the year : Seventeen varieties of drugs and bandages, among which the most used drugs are :

Acetylsalicylic acid 9,181,520 tab.

Quinine bisulphate 10,623,810 tab.

Emetin hydrochloride 21,424 tab.

Boric acid 14,817 lbs.

- (10) Most used vaccines distributed to provincial and municipal governments by the Administration in the year :

Cholera vaccine 67,560 bottles

Smallpox vaccine 23,500 dozen

PREVENTIVE AND CURATIVE WORK

- (11) Number of patients treated by hospitals in 1941.

HOSPITALS	OUT-PATIENTS		Admitted in Wards	Total
	First Visits	Revisits		
Central H. (Chungking)	12,214	18,989	2,907	34,110
Central H. (Kweiyang)	17,123	37,312	3,363	57,798
1st Northwest H.	9,244	11,100	739	21,083
2nd Northwest H.	11,025	21,472	1,214	33,711
TOTAL	49,606	88,873	8,223	146,702

N.B.—Work of the 1st Northwest Hospital commenced from April, 1941.

(12) Main services rendered by Highway Health Stations, Suburban Health Stations, and Health Centers in 1941

HEALTH STATIONS AND CENTERS	PREVENTIVE INOCULATIONS			PATIENTS TREATED				Deliveries
	Smallpox	Cholera	Typhoid	First Visits	Re-visits	Emergency Calls.	In Wards	
Pingliang HWHS	9,054	10,775	950	8,051	12,211	180	409	128
Tingsi HWHS	27,101	33,396	3,832	12,060	19,585	249	96	201
Hanchung HWHS	10,571	7,971		7,376	9,098	102	218	78
Mienyang HWHS	9,391	15,429	18	20,965	40,082	201	135	264
Neikiang HWHS	5,427	13,256	5,199	18,765	50,672	580	197	151
Pichieh HWHS	4,596	12,639	366	7,146	12,511	97	7	50
Tungtze HWHS	11,777	19,038	1,342	14,270	30,237	694	399	155
Anshun HWHS	11,889	18,155		14,118	17,109	162	181	337
Machangping HWHS	18,525	19,889	4,696	10,691	15,954	226	116	146
Kutsing HWHS	9,042	12,566	496	8,205	9,709	223	788	211
Hwanghsien HWHS	10,700	12,231		9,146	14,675	417	164	248
Kienking HWHS	14,446	19,231		9,413	25,111	8	1	25
Hochih HWHS	7,364	4,446	5,188	30,861	42,117	712	10	174
Mienling HWHS	1,267	344	42	5,710	11,796	83	18	3
Omei HWHS	12	1,178		5,060	7,535	48	82	13
Puling HWHS		1,270		8,064	11,785	297	248	12
Chinmukwan SHS	5,083	4,712	305	10,221	19,727	228	208	156
Lao-in-yen SHS	16,707	13,642	46	13,640	74,761	438	61	209
Jingongpo SHS	667	654	849	4,820	16,935	140	46	39
Manchien SHS	3,528	5,125	1,006	4,255	13,915	113	77	77
Shemachang SHS	3,711	5,598	456	6,111	11,656	166	37	86
Sanshenmiao SHS	2,992	6,194	555	14,087	28,781	203	108	159
Yunshingchang SHS	4,097	3,983	317	10,034	17,739	31	43	10
Ya-an H. C.	2,689	4,293		7,548	21,126	143	218	49
Hweili H. C.	42			433	701	1	2	2
Sichang H. C.	1,343	2,502		5,620	6,075	29		81
TOTAL	192,021	248,517	25,663	266,670	541,593	5,771	3,759	3,097

N.B.—Work of the Hweili Health Center commenced from November.

ANTI-EPIDEMIC AND QUARANTINE SERVICE

(13) Main services rendered by the Anti-Epidemic Corps in 1941

Preventive Inoculations (persons)		Other Services	
Cholera	252,166	1st visit patients treated	237,146
Typhoid	13,416	Revisit patients treated	373,388
T. and C.	678	Patients treated in wards	345
Smallpox	252,782	Deliveries	510
Plague	38,682	Persons deloused	2,589
Meningitis	837	Pieces of clothing deloused	10,703
Diphtheria	278	Drinking wells disinfected	37,995

(14) A Work done by Quarantine Stations in 1941

STATIONS	Bus Passengers Inspected	Ship Passengers Inspected	Air Passengers Inspected	Tons of Ships Fumigated
Han-I-Yu		76,707	662	36,651
Teng-Yue	447,501			
Maen-Yun Sub-S.	31,438			
Waen-Ting	9,692			
TOTAL	488,631	79,707	662	36,651

(14) B Clinical and preventive work done by Quarantine Stations in 1941

	Teng- Yue	Maen- Yun Sub-S	Waen- Ting	Han-I- Yu	TOTAL
CLINICAL WORK					
1st visit patients	828		2,248		3,076
Revisit patients	752		4,827		5,579
PREVENTIVE INOCULATIONS					
Smallpox	5,324	1,677	1,504	3,907	12,412
Cholera	2,942	517	157	55,251	58,867
Plague	625	5	417		1,047
Dysentery	17				17
Diphtheria	446				446
Meningitis	335				335
T. and C.	389				389

N.B.—(1) Maen-Yun Sub-Station established in July.

(2) Data of Waen-Ting include only November and December.

(15) Patients Treated by Anti-Venereal Diseases Clinics in 1941

PATIENTS	Kweilin	Enshih	Chuhsien	Sian	TOTAL
First visits	694	119	180	227	1,220
Revisits	3,246	642	470	1,049	5,407
TOTAL	3,940	761	650	1,276	6,627

MEDICAL SUPPLIES

(16) Drugs prepared by the Narcotics Bureau in 1941

Narcotics produced in 34 Varieties
Non-Narcotics produced in 61 Varieties

The Main products are :

Narcotics		Non-narcotics	
Dover's powder	355,722 tab.	Tannic acid	261 lb.
Morphine HCl (powder)	9,778 gm.	Ammon. chlor.	1,429 lb.
" " (ampoule)	13,351 bxs.	Fld. ext. glycerh.	284 lb.
" " (tablet)	552,250 tab.	Bland's pills	90,500 tab.
Cocaine Phosph. (powder)	6,010 gm.	Mag. sulphate	774 lb.
" " (ampoule)	2,522 bxs.	Sodium sulphate	2,106 lb.
" " (tablet)	989,240 tab.	Brown mixture	1,061,956 tab.
Strychnine HCl	184,875 tab.	Aspirin	76,946 tab.

(17) Biological products made by Epidemic Prevention Bureau in 1941

National Epidemic Prevention Bureau's production in 47 Varieties
Northwest Epidemic Prevention Bureau's production in 31 Varieties

The Main products are :

Vaccines, Sera and Anti-toxins	National E. P. B.	Northwest E. P. B.	TOTAL
Cholera	2,613,280 c.c.	1,626,640 c.c.	4,239,920 c.c.
Anti-plague	1,562,290 c.c.	20,000 c.c.	1,582,290 c.c.
Smallpox	1,624,171 cap.		1,624,171 cap.
Dysentery	33,790 c.c.		33,790 c.c.
T. A. B.	30,150 c.c.		30,150 c.c.
T. C.	7,670,080 c.c.	9,973,600 c.c.	17,643,680 c.c.
Anti-tetanus	23,160,000 units	8,203,000 units	31,363,000 units
Anti-anthrax		221,270 c.c.	221,270 c.c.

STATE MEDICINE

China aims to extend a system of organized medical and public health services for the people, the *hsien* (county) health program, which is being incorporated into the new *hsien* system, being one of the means to the end. By this means it is hoped that the services will be within the reach of the rural population. Whenever possible, the National Health Administration helps district health authorities lay a permanent foundation for public health work.

Since the establishment of the Central Field Health Station in 1932, steps have been taken to demonstrate the relative efficiency of the different types of public health services applicable to

Chinese communities. Investigation of endemic diseases has also been started. For the training of public health personnel to meet the need of a state medical service, the Public Health Personnel Training Institute was established in 1935. As a step toward the consolidation of national technical organizations, the Central Field Health Station and the Public Health Personnel Training Institute were amalgamated and re-organized into the National Institute of Health in April, 1941. Besides planning, demonstration, and research, the National Institute of Health also assumes the responsibility of the training of senior public health personnel.

The tremendous need for medical personnel in China is being met by

training institutes and medical colleges. When the war broke out in July, 1937, there were less than 10,000 qualified doctors and 5,000 qualified nurses in the whole country. By the end of September, 1942, medical personnel registered with the National Health Administration included 11,850 doctors, 794 pharmacists, 322 dentists, 5,770 nurses, 4,971 midwives and 3,983 dispensers.

The National Institute of Health trained 161 senior medical officers in nine classes between January and October, 1942. They included 35 nurses, 97 sanitary inspectors, 9 sanitary overseers, 11 sanitary engineers and 9 medical officers.

Under the Institute are Kweiyang and Lanchow regional training institutes which train junior types of medical personnel. The Kweiyang regional institute, the former Public Health Personnel Training Institute, offered eight courses in 1942, including those for public health officers (six months), public health nurses and midwives (six months), sanitary overseers (eighteen months), sanitary inspectors (one year), laboratory technicians (one year), pharmacists (one year), vital statisticians (six months) and medical attendants (six months). In 1942, 16 public health officers, 53 public health nurses and midwives, 40 sanitary overseers and 8 laboratory technicians were graduated. Since the establishment of the institute, a total of 1,971 public health workers have been trained, including 512 medical officers, 758 public health nurses, 181 public health midwives, 37 sanitary engineers, 347 sanitary inspectors, 8 public health pharmacists and 128 others.

The training of auxiliary health personnel is conducted by provincial health authorities. By August, 1942, sixteen training institutes were functioning in different places in Free China.

Organized early in 1938 jointly by the Ministries of Military Affairs and Interior, the Emergency Medical Service Training School, now functioning solely under the Ministry of Military Affairs with Dr. Robert Lim as director, has been giving supplementary technical training to the existing personnel in the army medical service. Up to the latter part of 1942, 7,000 had been trained. The training consists of two courses, three-month initial courses and three-month subsequent courses for medical officers in special subjects such as orthopedic surgery, preventive medicine, sanitary engineering,

radiology, etc., and for medical subordinates in X-ray, laboratory medicine, sanitation, and nursing.

Beginning in 1941, the school has been offering technical training for new personnel for the army medical service. It consists of two two-year courses for nurses and medical officers to provide nurses for army hospitals and assistant medical officers for regimental and divisional medical units. Field service training is also conducted for officers and men in medical tactics and organizations, including individual, team and formation training covering the operation of all the medical units of an army, while hospital training is given officers and men in clinical routine and hospital service, including practice in the wards, operating room, laboratories, and hospital management.

The school, which is situated in Kweiyang, has five branch schools in different war areas. The important features of training are that methods are standardized, and practical drills and exercises are employed with the minimum of theoretical lectures. The scheme of training is to be extended to each army, as every army sanitary corps and Red Cross unit at the front will carry out a simplified training program for the great mass of junior personnel who cannot leave their work to receive training elsewhere.

Systematic training for all types of personnel has been organized, including promotional training, so that efficiency can be continuously maintained. The final objective is to make available for the civil health service after the war all the army medical personnel not required by the army. To this end, methods taught and used have been coordinated with those employed by the civil health service.

To promote health work in various provinces, the National Health Administration has been giving technical and financial assistance to provincial health authorities. The 1942 health budgets of the various provinces totalled \$20,389,469.

Altogether sixteen provincial health departments and one municipal health bureau had been established by August, 1942. Financial assistance was given to Sikang province to expand its health services. Health departments for Shansi and Suiyuan are to be established in 1943.

The promotion of state medicine has been one of the important tasks of the health departments. In 1941, 69 technical workers were sent to fourteen provinces and one municipality. Up to August, 1942, 71 additional technical workers were despatched.

For the purpose of demonstration, subsidies and running expenses were provided for four model county health centers in Kwangsi, Szechwan, Kweichow and Hunan provinces. The subsidies were continued in 1942. In addition, 35 units of ordinary centers and sanitary engineering corps in twelve provinces were subsidized.

Seventy-six health units in the provinces in 1941 received quantities of medical supplies from the National Health Administration, including 158 kinds of drugs, 55 kinds of apparatus, 67,560 bottles of anti-cholera vaccine and 23,500 dozens of tubes of anti-smallpox vaccine. Medical supplies were also distributed to the provinces in 1942. Sanitary engineers were sent to Kwangsi and Szechwan to carry out sanitary engineering projects.

The directors of the health departments in sixteen provinces and the health commissioner of one municipality are:

Szechwan—Dr. C. C. Chen
 Kansu—Dr. Yang Shu-hsin
 Chinghai—Dr. Hsieh Kang-chieh
 Hupeh—Dr. Lu Ching-fang
 Kiangsi—Dr. I. C. Fang
 Yunnan—Dr. Joseph An-cheng Miao
 Kwangtung—Dr. M. Wong
 Chekiang—Dr. Sung Hsu-shang
 Shensi—Dr. Yang Hoh-chen
 Ningsia—Dr. Pi Tien-min
 Honan—Dr. Shih Kuo-fan
 Hunan—Dr. W. Chang
 Kweichow—Dr. K. F. Yao
 Kwangsi—Dr. Wong Wen-yuan
 Fukien—Dr. Loh Ti-huan
 Anhwei—Dr. Sung Ying-kun.
 Chungking—Dr. Wang Tze-hsiang

The National Health Administration's *hsien* (county) health system aims at the promotion of rural health. With the county seat as base, health work is to spread to all corners.

The new system is based on the following principles: To utilize the limited available number of medical

workers as the fundamental staff and to train the youths in the villages as the auxiliary working forces; to consider the prevailing diseases and health problems of the people as a whole, with emphasis on preventive measures; to make the services come within the economic power of the people so that with limited funds it will be possible to set up the health organizations on a nation-wide scale.

Through the new system, the health authorities hope to have as many health stations as the post office has branches. It provides for a health center for each county, a health district center for each district, a health station for each town or village, and a health worker for each *pao* (a *pao* consists of six to fifteen *chia*, and each *chia* comprises six to fifteen households).

Coming directly under the county government and concurrently under the supervision of the provincial health department, the county health center will be responsible for the health administration and the promotion of health work in the whole county. Its staff will consist of a county health officer, one to three doctors, one or two public health nurses, two to four midwives, one or two pharmacists, one or two laboratory technicians, two to four sanitary inspectors, one to three clerks, and a number of health workers.

Each county health center will maintain a 20-40 bed hospital, a laboratory and a mobile clinic. It will admit patients sent to it by health centers and stations in districts, towns, and villages under the county. In case of epidemics, a separate ward is to be set up for the isolation and treatment of such cases.

Through the new system, uniformity is being brought into every branch of health work in the country. Standard lists of drugs and medical instruments are distributed among the different grades of county health organizations. Designs of buildings, construction, and lists of equipment and furniture too are standardized.

In 1941, the National Health Administration subsidized the provincial health authorities of Szechwan, Hunan, Kiangsi, Fukien, Chekiang, Yunnan, Kweichow, Kwangtung and Kwangsi in the form of 39 senior medical officers, 3 sanitary engineers, and medical supplies as well as for carrying out sanitary engineering projects for the development of local health organizations. Subsidies for

capital and running expenses were provided for four model *hsien* health centers for the purpose of demonstration in addition to 35 ordinary centers.

The following table shows the increase in the number of *hsien* health centers in thirteen provinces during the period 1937 to 1941:

PROVINCE	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941
Szechwan			9	47	65
Chekiang	14	61	6	43	60
Kiangsi	83	83	83	81	81
Hunan	6	14	68	75	75
Honan					2
Shensi	8	11	14	43	54
Kansu			5	13	20
Fukien	15	61	62	63	64
Kwangtung			39	60	73
Kwangsi	88	88	99	78	87
Kweichow		33	64	78	76
Hupei			8	8	17
Yunnan	3	21	37	45	77
TOTAL	217	372	494	634	751

Another project to stimulate the development of the *hsien* health system is the establishment of highway health stations at important points along different highways. The organization, size and composition of staff of such a highway health station approximates that of the permanent *hsien* health center. Housed in uniform buildings with 30-bed wards, an out-patient department and a small diagnostic laboratory, each station undertakes the curative and preventive services over a distance of 100 kilometers, rendering medical service to road workers, travelers, and the

people in the district in which it is situated.

Highway stations were first established in 1939 along the northwestern highway extending from Chungking and Chengtu in Szechwan to Lanchow in Kansu. New ones were later established in China's southwestern regions. In cooperation with the Ministry of Communications, seven stations and sixteen mobile units were organized to serve the builders of the Loshan-Sichang highway, linking Szechwan with Sikang, and at present the travelers and the inhabitants of the regions through which the road traverses. In newly developed districts into which government offices and others have moved from congested areas, health stations have also been established.

By the end of 1942, 39 stations were maintained. The stations along the Yunnan-Burma Road were either handed over to the local health authorities or removed after the loss of Burma. The list of highway health stations follows:

Kansu: Tiensui, Pingliang, Chiuchuan, Tingsi, Yungtung; Szechwan: Sinchiao, Mienyang, Omei, Neikiang, Luhsien, Chinmukuan, Nanwenchuan, Chienkiang, Lungtang, Hsuyung, Hsiehmachang, Sanshengmiao, Yunghsin-chang, Hsinglungchang, Ching kangpo, Laoying-yen; Shensi: Hanchung, Changwu, Hsuanshihpu; Kweichow: Tushan, Tungtze, Anshun, Pichieh, Weining, Annan, Panghsien; Sikang: Fulin, Mienning; Hunan: Chenchi, Huanhsien, Soli; Yunnan: Kutsing, Hsuenwei; Kwangsi: Hochi.

The following is a summary of the more important activities of the highway health stations during the years 1939 to 1941:

ACTIVITY	NUMBER		
	1939	1940	1941
PREVENTIVE INOCULATIONS—			
Smallpox	38,511	169,756	192,021
Cholera	194,320	334,716	248,517
Typhoid	9,891	19,681	25,663
CURATIVE SERVICE—			
First visits	120,704	307,182	266,670
Subsequent visits	174,453	533,828	541,593
Emergency calls	3,439	4,965	5,771
Patients admitted to hospital	694	2,399	3,759
HEALTH SERVICE—			
Deliveries	877	3,108	3,092

EPIDEMIC CONTROL

Much of the resources and energies of the National Health Administration is concentrated on the work of epidemic control.

Heading the anti-epidemic forces is the National Health Administration's Anti-Epidemic Corps. With its headquarters in Chungking, the Corps consists of four divisions in charge of four regions, namely, Szechwan-Kweichow-Yunnan; Hunan-Hupeh; Kwangtung-Kwangsi, and Chekiang-Kiangsi-Fukien. Under each division are four mobile medical units, one mobile laboratory unit, one mobile sanitary unit, one isolation hospital and one supply depot. Each anti-epidemic unit is composed of two physicians, four nurses, four dressers, one sanitary inspector, and one clerk, and the unit is capable of breaking up into two sub-units if conditions require. Each diagnostic laboratory, isolation hospital and special sanitary unit is headed respectively by a bacteriologist, a clinician or a sanitary engineer, who with a number of assistants serves as consultant to the mobile units. Each sanitary unit is composed of two sanitary engineers, two sanitary supervisors, two sanitary assistants and three craftsmen.

Formed in 1938, the Corps, besides fighting and controlling epidemics, has rendered special technical service in epidemic areas by providing laboratory and sanitary engineering facilities and has cooperated with public health personnel training centers by providing fields for practical training in communicable disease control methods. It has also collected epidemiological data, initiated special sanitary engineering projects in rural districts and helped local health authorities in controlling endemic diseases such as schistosomiasis and other parasitic infections.

Guarding the health of the troops are army anti-epidemic corps distributed in all war areas, while similar corps have also been organized by provincial health departments.

To bring about closer coordination of all anti-epidemic forces, a Joint Emergency Anti-Epidemic Commission was formed in May, 1940, by the National Health Administration, the Army Medical Administration, the health department of the Board of Supplies and Transport and the Chinese Red Cross Medical Relief Corps. With the establishment of the commission, the report of an outbreak of any disease in the country will reach the leading health organizations simultaneously, and their combined efforts

for its control are ensured. Besides maintaining a central epidemiological intelligence service, the commission plans civil and army anti-epidemic programs and publishes handbooks to serve as technical guides for field services.

In addition to a quarantine station in Chungking and a branch at Wanhhsien above Ichang, 64 delousing stations have been established, nine of which are mobile in character and under the National Health Administration's Anti-Epidemic Corps, while fourteen are attached to the Administration's highway health stations. The 41 other delousing stations are distributed as follows:

Kansu, 3; Ningsia, 1; Kweichow, 6; Shensi, 7; Szechwan, 3; Kwangsi, 6; Hunan, 3; Hupeh, 2; Kiangsi, 3; Chinghai, 1; Kwangtung, 2; Anhwei, 1; Chekiang, 1; and Yunnan, 2.

Anti-venereal clinics were established at strategic points on national thoroughfares and at places where congregations of troops and laborers were found. The National Health Administration established three, one each in Hupeh, Kwangsi and Chekiang provinces, in 1942. Similar clinics have also been established with the cooperation of local health authorities and medical bodies. The Administration supplies them with drugs, instruments and funds.

Provided raw materials are available in sufficient quantities, Free China is in a position to supply all the biological products required for anti-epidemic work. The National Epidemic Prevention Bureau and the Northwest Epidemic Prevention Bureau, both of the National Health Administration, are supplying the bulk of the vaccines and sera required. The provincial hygienic laboratories of Fukien, Kiangsi, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, and Shensi also produce smallpox, cholera and typhoid vaccines for their own use.

The following table shows some of the important biological products manufactured in the first six months of 1942:

Biological Products	National Epidemic Prevention Bureau	Northwest Epidemic Prevention Bureau
Smallpox vaccine	290,620	600,000
Cholera vaccine	1,901,000	800,000
Cholera, typhoid vaccine	260,000	8,000,000
Typhoid, para-typhoid combined vaccine	110,60	40,000
Plague vaccine	4,849,500	1,200,000
Diphtheria antitoxin	5,707,000	20,000,000
Tetanus antitoxin	7,765,000	..

NOTE:—Smallpox vaccine in capillary tubes
other vaccines in c.c.
Diphtheria and tetanus antitoxins in units

Epidemic Outbreaks: In the past several years the following epidemics were found and controlled:

A. Plague

1. Fukien.—Plague has been endemic in Fukien province for more than 40 years and more than 30 *hsien* are known to have been infected at one time or another. In 1937, plague broke out in eighteen *hsien*, claiming about 4,000 lives. The most seriously affected *hsien* were; Weian, Futsing, Putien and Chinkiang. In 1938, sixteen *hsien* were affected with about 300 cases. The epidemic situation was comparatively serious in Yungchun, Putien, Sienyu and Yungan. In 1939, 873 cases were reported in nine *hsien*; in 1940, 466 cases in 23 *hsien*, and in 1941, 626 cases in 21 *hsien*. Between January and June, 1942, 55 cases were reported in eighteen *hsien*.

2. Chekiang.—Plague first broke out in 1938 in Chingyuan, southern Chekiang near the Fukien border, the disease being believed to have spread to Chekiang from northern Fukien. It continued to appear in Chingyuan in 1939 and 1940, but only a small number of cases were reported. In the winter of 1940, for the first time it occurred in Ningpo, eastern Chekiang, and Chuhsien, western Chekiang. Investigation revealed that prior to the outbreak, Japanese planes had dropped rice and wheat grains over the two places. In Ningpo, 97 out of 99 cases were fatal, and in Chuhsien all the 21 cases were fatal. In March, 1941, plague reappeared in Chuhsien, and from March 5 to December 31, there were 166 cases of which 157 were fatal. The rats in Chuhsien were infected, which meant that plague was enzootic among rats and might infect human beings when conditions should so favor. From Chuhsien, the disease spread to Iwu and Tungyang in October, 1941. In Iwu, 145 cases were reported between October and December, 1941, and in Tungyang, there were 71 cases from December, 1941 to the end of May, 1942.

3. Hunan.—Plague for the first time appeared in Changteh, western Hunan, on November 11, 1941, a week after a Japanese plane had dropped grain and cloth wads. Up to the end of December, 1941, there were eight cases, and one more case appeared in January, 1942. In March, the disease reappeared, and between March and July, 31 cases were

reported. Plague-infected rats were discovered in Taoyuan in April and May, but no human cases were reported. Taoyuan is 22 kilometers by land and 45 kilometers by water from Changteh. Pneumonic plague broke out in Molingshiang of Taoyuan *hsien* in May, 1942, resulting in sixteen deaths. It was discovered that a plague patient sneaked out from Changteh, developed pneumonic symptoms and infected his own family and neighbors. By means of strict quarantine, with the assistance of the military, the epidemic was controlled within two weeks.

4. Suiyuan and Ningsia.—Plague has been enzootic in the Ordos region for many years. In the winter of 1941 a pneumonic plague epidemic occurred in Wuyuan, Linho and Tengchow. Later it spread to northern Shensi and Shansi. Toward the end of March, 1941, the epidemic subsided. There were a total of 695 deaths including 540 in Suiyuan, 30 in Ningsia, 99 in Shensi and 26 in Shansi.

5. Kiangsi.—From northern Fukien plague spread to Kwangtung, in eastern Kiangsi bordering Fukien, in the spring of 1941. Excessive mortality among rats was first reported in February and March, and in April human beings were infected. Between April 12 and June 5, 1941, 34 cases were reported. One bubonic plague case—a patient who had escaped from Chuhsien in Chekiang—was found in Shangyao on June 7, 1941. No other case was reported.

6. Kwangtung.—Plague has been endemic on Hainan Island and in the Lienkiang and Suihsi districts for many years. Sporadic cases occurred in 1941 and 1942 in Lienkiang.

7. Yunnan.—Between February and July, 1940, 119 plague cases were reported in Loiwing and Wanting. Plague is known to be endemic in northern Burma and is liable to spread toward the Yunnan border. No cases occurred in 1941 and 1942.

B. Cholera

Cholera broke out in epidemic proportion in the coastal provinces in 1937, when more than 10,000 cases were reported. In 1938, it reappeared in two epidemic centers: in the East River region of Kwangtung province and around Tungting lake in Hunan. It gradually spread to other areas. In all, 167 *hsien* and municipalities in nine provinces were affected. Of a total

of 50,043 cases, 13,316 were fatal. In 1939, cholera spread to 278 *hsien* in fifteen provinces, and 34,995 cases were reported. Among the provinces affected were Szechwan, Hunan, Kiangsi, Kweichow, Yunnan, Shensi, Kwangtung, Hupeh, Kwangsi, Fukien, Kansu, Shansi and Chekiang.

In 1940, semi-isolated epidemic outbreaks were reported from the following provinces: (1) Szechwan: A mild winter in 1939 kept the cholera vibrios alive in northern Szechwan, resulting in the outbreak of sporadic cases throughout the spring. In the summer of 1940 the disease broke out in epidemic form again. Altogether ten *hsien* were affected, cases reported almost reaching 40,000. (2) Chekiang: 9,873 cases were reported in 25 *hsien*. (3) Fukien: 4,047 cases were reported in eighteen *hsien*. (4) Hunan: 103 cases were reported in

nineteen *hsien*. (5) Kwangtung: 418 cases were reported in four *hsien*.

For the first time since 1937 cholera outbreaks subsided in 1941. In Kwangtung, 265 cases were reported in sixteen *hsien*, while in Hunan, 79 cases were reported in fourteen *hsien*. A few cases were reported in Fukien province.

Between January and September, 1942, 11,951 cases of cholera with 4,576 deaths were reported in 210 *hsien* in twelve provinces and one municipality. The cases did not include those in Chekiang where the figures were not yet compiled.

The epidemic reached its height in July when 4,605 cases and 1,494 deaths were recorded. In September, the cases decreased to 215 with 69 deaths.

The following table shows the cholera situation in the provinces affected:

PROVINCE	Number of <i>Hsien</i> Affected	Cases	Deaths	Mortality Percentage
Yunnan	45	4,564	1,875	41.08
Kweichow	26	1,906	355	29.11
Kwangsi	48	3,302	1,453	44.00
Kwangtung	21	420	171	40.71
Hunan	30	1,155	298	25.80
Szechwan	18	279	46	16.48
Kiangsi	10	181	71	39.22
Hupei	5	108	82	75.92
Chungking City	1	33	25	75.75
Sikang	2	1		
Honan	1	1		
Chekiang	3			
Fukien	1	1		
TOTAL	211	11,951	4,576	38.28

Cholera spread to Kwangsi, Kwangtung and Yunnan from Hongkong and Burma. The disease appeared in Yunnan in May and reached its height in July when 1,623 cases with 448 deaths were recorded.

C. Other Diseases:

Dysentery is most prevalent in China and is an important cause of infant mortality and adult debility. It is, however, considered the least serious because it is common.

Typhus fever and relapsing fever are common among troops and in refugee camps. Delousing stations established in the last few years by the National Health Administration, the Army Medical Administration and the Chinese Red Cross Medical Relief Corps have helped

to reduce the total incidence. A serious epidemic occurred in Hupei in 1941.

Malaria is prevalent south of the Yangtze, especially in Yunnan, Kweichow, and Kwangsi provinces. In 1939, a Yunnan Anti-Malaria Commission was organized, and a second one was formed in Kweichow in 1940. Both commissions are carrying out a systematic control program on a relatively large scale. At the request of the Chinese Government a special medical mission was dispatched by the American Government to take charge of the malaria control work along the projected Yunnan-Burma railway. Assisting the sixteen American members of the mission were nine medical officers, nine sanitary engineers, six entomologists, 15 sanitary supervisors, and 116 sanitary

inspectors detailed by the National Health Administration. Active work began in January, 1942, but ended in April owing to the spread of hostilities to Burma.

Diphtheria occurs in epidemic proportions in Kansu and Shensi. In other provinces in Free China, only sporadic cases were reported. Smallpox appears in sporadic form in different provinces.

The following table shows the number of communicable diseases reported in different provinces during 1941:

PROVINCE	Cholera	Typhoid	Dysentery	Typhus Fever	Relapsing Fever	Malaria	Smallpox	Diphtheria	Scarlet Fever	Cerebro-spinal Meningitis	Plague
Chekiang		56	1,889		46	4,464	6	1	1		352
Anhui		5	55		39	618	158	1			
Kiangsi		848	9,176	100	852	74,388	555	31	3	38	37
Hupei		669	4,743	190	1,444	12,245	591	10		2	
Hunan	79	534	4,007	71	752	12,173	120	14	4	9	7
Szechwan	3	883	6,917	136	280	32,558	279	224	17	22	
Shansi		65	206	225	633	311	2	7	1		
Honan		3,748	10,963	1,426	2,878	15,323	987	450	511	277	
Shensi		1,413	3,400	1,061	2,874	3,996	122	133	109	36	
Kansu		423	1,283	283	422	308	200	913	39	4	
Fukien	5	335	1,524	30	277	15,102	1,774	22	3	328	626
Kwangtung		2,409	25,744	495	195	73,850	3,163	84	26	141	85
Kwangsi	265	1,452	19,365	185	440	54,932	3,220	202	61	90	
Yunnan		571	6,121	108	528	29,159	328	36	60	48	
Kweichow		375	4,894	198	285	20,708	282	70	33	44	
Sikang		560	267	420	344	1,087	6	12			
Suiyuan		125	272	21	88	59	4	20	3		89
Ningsia		747	860	362	426	60	169	152	9	1	
TOTAL	352	15,218	101,686	5,320	12,808	351,431	11,966	2,382	880	1,040	1,146

BACTERIAL WARFARE

Dr. P. Z. King's statement released on April 9, 1942, and reports submitted by Chinese and foreign medical experts definitely prove that at least on five occasions Japan resorted to bacterial warfare in China.

Yet a sixth attempt was made on the morning of August 30, 1942, when three Japanese planes dropped a large quantity of "kaoliang" and corn in Nanyang, in Honan province. The grain was analyzed by local medical offices and found to contain bubonic plague bacteria.

The first Japanese attempt was made on October 27, 1940, when a quantity of wheat was dropped by Japanese planes over Ningpo. An epidemic broke out soon afterward and lasted 34 days, claiming 99 victims. Diagnosis of plague was definitely confirmed in laboratory tests. On October 4, 1940, a Japanese plane scattered rice and wheat and fleas over Chuhsien, Chekiang. Bubonic plague appeared 38 days later, causing 21 deaths. Kihwa was attacked by three Japanese planes on November 28, 1940, when a large quantity of translucent granules like shrimp-eggs were dropped. Microscopic examination revealed the presence of plague bacilli though no epidemic resulted. On November 4, 1941, a Japanese plane visited Changteh, western Hunan, dropping rice, paper, and cotton wads on which bacilli were found. Later nine cases of plague were reported. Numerous circumstantial evidence, including infected rats, proved beyond doubt the origin of the epidemic. Lastly, a serious attack of plague broke out in Suiyuan, Ningsia, and Shensi. Six hundred cases were reported. A communique from local military authorities stated that a large number of sick rodents was set free by the enemy there.

The full text of Dr. King's statement reads as follows:

"Up to the present time the practicability of bacterial warfare has been little known to the public because applicable experimental results, if available, are usually kept a military secret.

"In the past the artificial dissemination of disease germs has been done for military purposes. The pollution of drinking water supplies by the introduction of diseased animals or other infected materials into the wells has been

practiced by retreating armies with the intention of causing epidemics of gastrointestinal infections among the troops in pursuit. Fortunately such water-borne infections can be controlled with relative ease by boiling of all drinking water and disinfection by chemical means.

"Whether or not infectious diseases could be widely and intentionally spread by artificial means with deadly results had not been demonstrated prior to the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war. However, in the last two years sufficient circumstantial evidence has been gathered to show that the Japanese have been using our people as guinea pigs for experimentation on the practicability of bacterial warfare. They have tried to produce epidemics of plague in Free China by scattering plague-infected materials from airplanes. The facts thus far collected follow:

"1. On October 29, 1940, bubonic plague for the first time occurred in Ningpo in Chekiang province. The epidemic lasted 34 days and claimed 99 victims. It was reported that on October 27, 1940, Japanese planes raided Ningpo and scattered a considerable quantity of wheat over the port city. Although it was a curious fact to find 'grain from heaven' yet no one at the time seemed to appreciate the enemy's intention and no thorough examination of the grain was made. All the plague victims were local residents. The diagnosis of plague was definitely confirmed by laboratory tests. There was no excessive mortality among rats noticed before the epidemic and, despite careful examination, no exogenous sources of infection could be discovered.

"2. On October 4, 1940, a Japanese plane visited Chuhsien, Chekiang province. After circling over the city it scattered rice and wheat mixed with fleas over the western district of the city. There were many eye-witnesses among whom was a man named Hsu, who collected some grain and dead fleas from the street outside of his own house. He sent them to the local air-raid precautionary corps for transmission to the provincial hygienic laboratory. The laboratory examination result was that 'there were no pathogenic organisms found by bacteriological culture methods.' However, on November 12, 38 days after the Japanese plane's visit, bubonic plague appeared in the same area where

the grain and fleas were found in abundance. The epidemic in Chuhsien lasted 24 days, resulting in 21 deaths.

"Available records show bubonic plague never occurred in Chuhsien before. After careful investigation it was believed that the strange visit of the enemy plane was the cause of the epidemic and the transmitting agent was rat fleas, presumably infected with plague and definitely dropped by the enemy plane. As plague is primarily a disease of rodents, the grain was probably used to attract the rats and expose them to the infected fleas mixed therein. It was regrettable that the fleas collected were not properly examined. Owing to deficient laboratory facilities, an animal inoculation test was not performed.

"3. On November 28, 1940, when the plague epidemic in Ningpo and Chuhsien was still in progress, three Japanese planes came to Kinhwa, an important commercial city situated between Ningpo and Chuhsien, and there dropped a large quantity of small granules about the size of shrimp-eggs. These strange objects were collected and examined in a local hospital.

"The granules were more or less round, about one millimeter in diameter, of whitish-yellow, somewhat translucent with a certain amount of glistening reflection from the surface. When brought into contact with a drop of water on a glass slide the granule began to swell to about twice its original size. In a small amount of water in a test tube with some agitation it would break up into whitish flakes and later form a milky suspension. Microscopic examination of these granules revealed the presence of numerous gram-negative bacilli with distinct bipolar staining in some of them and an abundance of involution forms, thus possessing the morphological characteristics of *B. Pestis*, the positive organism of plague. When cultured in agar medium these gram-negative bacilli showed no growth and because of inadequacy of laboratory facilities animal inoculation tests could not be performed.

"Upon the receipt of such a startling report from Kinhwa the National Health Administration dispatched Dr. W. W. Yung, director of the Department of Epidemic Prevention; Dr. H. M. Jettmar, epidemiologist, formerly of the League of Nation's Epidemic Commission, and other technical experts to investigate

the situation. Arriving in Kinhwa early in January, 1941, they examined 26 of these granules and confirmed the previous observations, but inoculation tests performed on guinea pigs by Dr. Jettmar gave negative results. It is difficult to say whether or not the lapse of time and the method of preservation of the granules had something to do with the negative results from the animal inoculation test, which is a crucial test for *B. Pestis*. At all events no plague occurred in Kinhwa and it indicated that this particular Japanese experiment on bacterial warfare ended in failure.

"4. On November 4, 1941, at about 5 a.m., a lone enemy plane appeared over Changteh, Hunan province, flying very low, the morning being rather misty. Instead of bombs, wheat and rice, pieces of paper, cotton wadding, and some unidentified particles were dropped. After the all-clear signal had been sounded some of these strange gifts from the enemy were collected and sent by the police to a local missionary hospital for examination which revealed the presence of micro-organisms reported to resemble *B. Pestis*.

"On November 11, seven days later, the first clinical case of plague came to notice, followed by five more cases. The diagnosis of bubonic plague was definitely confirmed in one of the six cases in November by bacteriological culture method and animal inoculation test.

"According to the investigation of Dr. W. W. Chen, bacteriologist, who has had special training in plague work in India, and Dr. R. Pollitzer, epidemiologist of the National Health Administration and formerly of the League of Nation's Epidemic Commission, the Changteh plague epidemic was caused by enemy action because of the following strong circumstantial evidence:

"A—That Changteh has never been, as far as is known, afflicted by plague. During previous pandemics and severe epidemics elsewhere in China this part of Hunan (as a matter of fact this part of Central China in general) has never been known to come under the scourge of the disease.

"B—That the present outbreak may have been due to direct contiguous spread from neighboring plague-infected districts

is also untenable on epidemiological grounds. Epidemiologically plague spreads along transport routes for grain on which the rats feed. The nearest epidemic center to Changteh is Chuhsien in Chekiang, about 2,000 kilometers away by land or river communication. Furthermore, Changteh being a rice producing district, supplies rice to other districts and does not receive rice from other cities. Besides, all the cases occurring in Changteh were native inhabitants who had not been away from the city or its immediate environs at all.

"C—That all the cases came from the areas within the city where the strange objects dropped by enemy planes were found, and that among the wheat and rice and cotton rags were the most probable included vectors, probably fleas. The fleas were not noticed on the spot because they were not looked for and because the air raid alarm lasted some twelve hours with the result that the fleas must have in the meantime escaped to other hiding places.

"D—That there was no apparent evidence of any excessive rat mortality before and for some time after the 'aerial incident.' About 200 rats were caught and examined during the months of November and December but no evidence of plague was found. However, toward the end of January and the first part of February of this year, among 78 rats examined there were eighteen with definite plague infection. As plague is primarily a disease of rodents the usual sequence of events is that an epizootic precedes an epidemic but that did not take place in the present case. The infected fleas from the enemy planes must have first attacked men and a little later, the rats.

"E—That all the first six human cases were infected within fifteen days after the 'aerial incident' and that infected fleas are known to be able to survive under suitable conditions for

weeks without feeding. The normal incubation period of bubonic plague is three to seven days and may occasionally be prolonged to eight or even fourteen days. The time factor is certainly also a strong circumstantial evidence.

"5. A serious epidemic of plague occurring in Suiyuan, Ningsia and Shensi provinces has recently been reported. From the last week of January this year to date there have been some 600 cases. Those cases were reported in a recent communique from the local military in the northwestern part of the epidemic area. However, considering the fact that plague is known to be enzootic among the native rodents in the Ordos region in Suiyuan one must wait for confirmation of the reports that probably the plague was caused there by enemy action.

"Technical experts, including Dr. Y. N. Yang, Director of the National Health Administration's Northwest Epidemic Prevention Bureau, have been sent there to investigate and help control the epidemic.

"The enumeration of facts thus far collected leads to the conclusion that the Japanese army has attempted bacterial warfare in China. In Chekiang and Hunan they had scattered from the air infective materials and succeeded in causing epidemic outbreaks of plague. Aside from temporary terrorization of the general population in the afflicted areas this inhuman act of our enemy is most condemnable when one realizes that once the disease has taken root in the local rat population it will continue to infect men for many years to come. Fortunately the mode of infection and the method of control of plague are known and it is possible to keep the disease in check by vigorous control measures. Our difficulty at present is the shortage of anti-epidemic supplies required. The recent advance in chemotherapy has given us new drugs that are more or less effective for the treatment of plague cases. These are sulfathiazole and allied sulphonamide compounds which China cannot as yet produce herself.

"For prevention, plague vaccine can be produced in considerable quantities by the National Epidemic Prevention Bureau in Kunming and the Northwest Epidemic Prevention Bureau in Lanchow, provided the raw materials required for

vaccine production such as peptone and agar agar are available.

"Rat proofing of all buildings and eradication of rats are fundamental control measures but under war conditions they cannot be satisfactorily carried out.

"If rat poisons such as cyanogas and barium carbonate can be obtained from abroad in large quantities deratization campaigns may be launched in cities where rats are a menace."

IMPROVEMENT OF NUTRITION

One of the wartime health activities aims at the improvement of nutrition. The National Institute of Health did the following dietary surveys and nutritional studies in 1941:

Dr. C. F. Wang formulated an "egg yolk-legume mixture" to take the place of milk or milk powder. Feeding experiments on a 15-day old baby with the new mixture was tried for 60 consecutive days. The results were found to be very favorable and promising.

A study of nutritional values between biscuits made with white flour and those made with mixed cereals resulted in the preparation of mixed cereal biscuits by the department to advertise their nutritional value.

A manual was prepared on improved cooking methods and suggested recipes using various cereal meals, sweet potatoes and other products of high nutritional value.

Dietary studies were made of the workmen, the staff members and their families of the National Health Administration in the department's survey of the diets of public functionaries during wartime. The results of these studies seem to indicate that there existed protein and vitamin C deficiency in all the three groups. With the exception of the third group there seems to be a general lack of sufficient total calories and vitamin A. In all three diets there is no indication of the shortage of any of the essential minerals.

Four kinds of booklets on nutrition were written and published for general distribution. Free copies of these were

sent to schools, libraries and public organizations.

A series of investigations were made on human vitamin C nutrition. The daily vitamin C requirement of healthy Chinese adults was found to be 0.70-0.76 mg. per kg. of body weight. The requirement of vitamin C of both children and lactating women is higher than adult. 1.0-1.6 mg. of vitamin C per kg. per day would be required in such cases. Investigations were made into plasma vitamin C content of 108 residents in Kweiyang, Kweichow province, and into the effect of cooking on the total ascorbic acid content of vegetables. It was found that considerable amount of vitamin C is destroyed by improper methods of cooking such as frying, steaming as well as by the use of copper vessels for cooking vegetables.

The Nutrition Promotion Committee was organized in December, 1940, with the following nine government officials on its presidium: Dr. H. H. Kung, Vice-President of the Executive Yuan and Minister of Finance; Mr. Chen Li-fu, Minister of Education; Dr. Wong Wen-hao, Minister of Economic Affairs; Admiral Shen Hung-lieh, Minister of Agriculture and Forestry; Mr. Ku Cheng-kang, Minister of Social Affairs; Dr. P. Z. King, Director-General of the National Health Administration; Mr. Chen Chi-tsai, Controller-General; Dr. K. C. Wu, former Mayor of Chungking and now Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Mr. Kang Hsin-ju, Chairman of the Chungking Provisional Political Council.

In one of the publicity campaigns sponsored by the Committee in Chungking in September, 1942, the National Health Administration displayed models, charts, maps, and diagrams, giving details of a healthy diet, and of the contents and nutritive value of all kinds of common food. The Ministry of Social Affairs and the National New Life Movement Association participated in the exhibition. The preparation and cooking of inexpensive and yet nutritive dishes were demonstrated.

The following chart, dealing with the nutritive value of China's staple food, attracted wide attention:

Food	Fats	Protein	Starch	Phosphorus	Iron	Vitamins
Unpolished wheat	2	12	74	XX	XX	XXX
Unpolished rice	1	8	76	XX	XX	XXX
flour	1	11	77	X	X	0
Polished rice	0	7	79	X	X	0

As a demonstration of the right food combination, the Committee on one occa-

sion treated hundreds of guests to a model dinner. The menu consisted of:

	Vitamins					Phosphorus	Iron	Calcium	Calories
	A	B	C	D	E				
1. Soup	X	XX			X	XXX	X	X	36
2. Cabbage & Liver	XXX	XX	XXX	X	XX	XXX	XXX	X	88
3. Cabbage & Pork	X	XX			XX	XXX	X	X	210
4. Beancurd	X					X	X	XX	60
5. Salted Beef	X	X	X	X	XX	XXX	XX	X	278
6. Salted Cabbage		XX	XXX		XX	X	XX	X	48
7. Rice with Beans	X	XX			X	XXX	XX	X	446
8. Green Bean Soup	X	XX			X	XXX	XX	X	66
9. Vita-cake	X	XX			X	XXX	X	X	91
10. Vita-beanmilk	X	XX			X	XXX	X	X	186

(The Sign X indicates the percentage of vitamins A,B,C,D,E and of other contents. According to a footnote on the menu, the human body needs 2,400 calories daily.)

As a preliminary step toward the improvement of nutrition for the Chinese army, a comprehensive research was made to obtain actual food and nutrition conditions of Chinese soldiers in general as well as to prepare a standardized list of minimum diet and nutrition requirements for the reference of the various armed forces of China.

The study, lasting seven months, used as subjects of the experimentation and research privates of two companies, each of 127 men, who were divided into an experimental group and a control group.

The study was divided into three periods of investigation and examination, experimentation, and confirmation. Those in the experimental group were given a modified diet prepared under strict supervision for a period of 75 days. After that both groups were put on this improved diet for another 45 days, duration of the last period of confirmation.

Prior to the research, soldiers of the two companies daily consumed on the average 772.80 grams of rice, 6.50 grams of oil, 9.60 grams of meat, 308.90 grams of vegetables, 15 grams of soy bean, 8.40 grams of salt, 4.40 grams of other seasoning matters, and 1.06 grams of miscellaneous items. These foods were calculated to yield about 3,100 calories of heat per day.

The improved diet, yielding approximately 3,400 calories of heat daily, gives each soldier every day the following: 822.30 grams of rice, 11.40 grams of flour, 15.50 grams of oil, 29.60 grams of meat including animal blood, 150 grams of vegetables (approximately 80 grams of which were leaves and 70 grams roots), 68.80 grams of soy bean and bean products

(29.90 grams of which were soy bean), 10.20 grams of salt, and 7.30 grams of other food substances.

In weight, physical endurance as well as general health the soldiers experimented on showed marked improvement after they were given the improved diet. After 75 days of experimentation during which the modified diet was used, the weight of soldiers in the experimental group increased on the average from 114.68 ± 1.17 pounds to 121.77 ± 1.04 pounds, giving an average increase of 7.03 ± 1.56 pounds for each soldier. This goes to prove the defect of the original diet and also the effects of nutritional improvement on body weight.

At the end of the experimentation period the average weight of the control group was 116.36 ± 1.15 pounds, having no apparent increase over the pre-examination average weight of 115.35 ± 1.29 pounds. However, after the confirmation period the control group's average weight shot up to 121.41 ± 1.41 pounds, registering a per capita increase of 5.02 ± 1.90 pounds over the weight before the improved diet was given this group of soldiers.

Based on the data of their studies, the research workers drew up a suggested standardized diet list which requires a minimum of:

Total heat yield 3,400 calories—

Protein	80	grams
Fat	30	"
Carbohydrate	660	"
Calcium	0.64	"
Phosphorous	1.32	"
Iron	0.01	"

To get these food contents each soldier should consume per day at least 823 grams of coarse rice, 16 grams of oil.

for cooking, 30 grams of meat (including blood, liver and egg), 68 grams of bean products (chiefly soy bean), 150 grams of vegetables (the amount of root vegetables not to exceed leaf vegetables), 10 grams of salt, 5 grams of other seasoning matters, and 20 grams of other things.

MEDICAL SUPPLIES

The number of drug factories in Free China is estimated at 40, the majority being small in size. Much of the chemicals is produced on a small scale, while many of the reagents needed are still made by laboratory methods or are in the experimental stage.

Among the difficulties encountered by the drug manufacturers are lack of trained personnel and shortage in workable materials. Coal distillation is still in an embryonic stage. There are no efficient systems of refrigeration and of vacuum distillation. In the absence of essentials, such as acid resisting steel, suitable containers, specified machinery and tools, the manufacturers

have learned to improve and improvise where necessary or possible in order to produce whatever they can.

Free China has sufficient ordinary inorganic substance. The National Health Administration has been acting as coordinator between manufacturers and the government organizations controlling the needed raw materials. Other assistance the health authorities have given includes technical advice and subsidies. In this way it is hoped that efficiency and production of the factories may be stimulated and the quality of the products improved.

Essential medical supplies, which cannot be made in China or which are produced in too small quantities to meet the demands, are imported by an official committee for general distribution to allay any fear of a drug famine and to maintain drug prices at an equitable level.

Among the drugs which are being manufactured in Free China in fairly large quantities are :

Acidum Boricum	Acidum Tannicum	Aether
Albumini Tannas	Ammonii Chloridum	Argenti Nitras
Bismuth Compounds	Blaud's Tablets	Brown Mixture Tablets
Calamina	Calcii Chloridum	Calcii Lactas
Calx Chlorinata	Camphor	Carbo Animalis
Chloroformum	Cupri Citras	Cupri Sulphas
Dextrosium	Dobell's Tablets	Ferri et Ammonii Citras
Hydrargyri Oxidum Flavum	Hydrargyri Perchloridum	Hydrargyri Subchloridum
Hydrargyrum Ammoniatum	Liq. Ammoniae Fortis	Magnesii Oxidum
Magnessi Carbonas	Magnesii Sulphas	Menthol
Oleum Ricini	Oleum Terebinthinae	Pix Pini
Plumbi Acetas	Potassa Sulphurata	Oleum Menthae
Potassii Chloras	Potassii Citras	Sapo Millis
Serum Anti-diphthericum	Serum Anti-dysentericum	Serum Anti-meningococcus
Serum Anti-plague	Serum Tetanicum	Sodii Bicarbas
Sodii Chloridum	Sodii Sulphas	Spiritus Aetheris Nitrosi
Sulphur	Tab. Gentianae et	Tab. Santon. et
	Rhei Co.	Hydrarg. Subchlor.
	Talcum	Zinci Sulphas
Tinctura Benzoin Co.*	Acidum Hydrochloricum	Acidum Sulphuricum
Acidum Citricum	Ferri Perchloridum	Ferri Sulphas
Arseni Trioxidum	Sodii Poras	Sodii Hydroxide
Ferrum Reductum	Gauze Absorbent	
Cotton Absorbent		

*Benzoin must be imported.

Among the drugs which can be partially supplied by Chinese factories are :

Aethyis Chloridum	Antimonii et Potassii	Argento-Porteinum
	Tartas*	Forte (Portargol)
Argento-Proteinum	Atropinae Sulphas	Chloralis Hydras
Mite (Argyrol)		
Digitalis	Clycerinum	Potassii Permagnas
Sodii Bromidum	Sodii Thiosulphas	Zinci Oxidum
Acidum Aceticum Glaciale	Acidum Lacticum	

*Tartaric acid must be imported.

While it is impossible to give a complete list of all the manufacturing plants and the exact quantity and variety of their products, the following list of some of the best known manufacturing

institutions with descriptions of a few of them will give a partial idea of what is being undertaken toward meeting the tremendous demand.

MANUFACTURING INSTITUTIONS

National Epidemic Prevention Bureau (under the National Health Administration). Kansu, and Yunnan.

National Central Narcotics Bureau, Szechwan.

China Pharmaceutical Manufacturing Company, Szechwan.

China Drug Co., Ltd., Szechwan.

The New Asia Chemical Works, Ltd., Szechwan.

West China Chemical and Pharmaceutical Industries, Kansu.

Scientific Apparatus Manufacturing Co., Szechwan.

The Wood Dry Distillation Co., Szechwan.

The Golden Sea Chemical Research Institute, Szechwan.

Northwest Chemical Works, Kansu.

New China Chemical Works, Szechwan.

The Kunming Chemical Factory, Yunnan (a joint enterprise of merchants and the Ministry of Economic Affairs).

The Yungli Sulphuric Acid Factory, Szechwan.

Two other sulphuric acid manufacturing plants with a working capital of about NC \$1,000,000 each also operate in Szechwan.

The Central Pharmaceutical Manufacturing Co., Chungking and Chengtu.

The Pharmacist Friends Laboratories, Szechwan.

MAIN PRODUCTS

The chief source of the supply of the nation's anti-toxins and epidemic preventives; also, a number of common medicines from native drugs.

Narcotics and non-narcotics.

Pharmaceutical preparations (official and non-official) mostly from native crude drugs.

Pharmaceutical preparations.

Ampoules, chemicals and specialties.

Absorbent cotton and gauze, chemicals and pharmaceutical preparations.

Scientific apparatus for hospitals, schools, etc.

Acetic acid, alcohol, etc.

Gallic acid and its derivatives.

Pharmaceutical preparations, absorbent cotton and absorbent gauze.

Chemicals.

Chemicals, etc.

The annual output was estimated some time ago at 100,000 barrels of sulphuric acid.

This institution was organized in 1940, with three main departments, namely:—Research, Manufacturing, Business. It produces principally pure chemicals and basic drugs, about 95 per cent of which are made from native raw materials. The value of chemicals and drugs produced monthly is NC \$800,000 and \$1,000,000.

Chemicals, pharmaceutical preparations and specialties.

With a view to achieving self-sufficiency in medical supplies and simplifying the question of supply and demand, the National Health Administration, after much deliberation, has listed 104 kinds of drugs as essentials, in addition to ten kinds of special drugs and nine kinds

of biological products, all of which are regarded as sufficient to meet the general demands. Of the number, 80 per cent can be made in China. Medical practitioners have been advised by the Administration to prescribe whenever possible only the listed drugs. The list follows:

A. ORDINARY DRUGS

Acetphenetidinum (Phenacetin)	Acidum Acetylsalicylicum (Aspirin)	Acidum Boricum
Acidum Hydrochloricum Dilutum	Acidum Salicylicum	Acidum Tannicum
Adrenalinum	Aether	Albumini Tannas
Alcohol	Allum	Alumen

Ammonii Chloridum	Amylum	Antimonii of Potassii Tartras or Antimonii et Sodii Tartras
Apomorphinae	Argenti Nitras	Argento-Profeinum
Hydrochloridum	Atropinae Sulphas	Forte (Protargol)
Arseni Trioxidum	Benzoinum	Aurentii Amari Cortex
Barbitalum	Bismuthi et Sodii Tartras	Bismuthi Subcarbonas
Bismuthi Subgallas		Caffeina
Calamina	Calcii Carbonas Praecipi- tatus or Creta Praeparata	Calcii Chloridum
Calcii Lactas	Calx	Calx Chlorinata
Camphorae	Carbo Activatus or Carbo Animalis	Chloralis Hydras
Chloroformum	Cocainaee Hydrochloridum	Codeinae Phosphas
Coptis	Cresol	Cupri Sulphas
Digitalis	Emetinae Hydrochloridum	Ephedra
Ephedrinae Hydrochloridum	Ergota	Ferri Sulphas
Galla	Gentiana	Glucosum
Glycerinum	Glycyrrhizae	Hydrargyri Oxidum Flavum
Hydrargyri Perchloridum	Hydrargyri Subchloridum	Hydrargyrum
Hydrargyrum Ammoniatum	Iodoformum	Iodum
Kaolinum	Magnesii Carponas	Magnesii Sulphas
Menthol	Pharbitis	Phenol
Pituitarium Posterium	Pix Pini	Plumbi Acetas
Polygala	Potassii Acetas	Potassii Iodidum
Potassii Permanganas	Procaina Hydrochloridum	Morphinae Hydrochloridum
Neoursphenamina	Nux Vomica	Oleum Eucalypti
Oleum Hydnocarpae	Oleum Menthae	Oleum Ricini
Oleum	Oleum Terebinthinae	Opium
Paraffinum Molle (Vaseline)	Quininae Bisulphas (or Sul- phas)	Quininae Dihydrochloridum
Rheum	Santoninum	Sodii Bicarbonas
Sodii Boras (Borax)	Sodii Bromidum	Sodii Chloridum
Sodii Citras	Sodii Salicylas	Sodii Sulphas
Sodii Thiosulphas	Stramonium	Sulphur Sublimatum
Talcum Purificatum	Thymol	Trinitrinum
Zinci Oxidum	Zinci Sulphas	

B. SPECIAL DRUGS

Chiniofonum (Yatren)	Thiaminae Chloridum	Insulinum
Physostigminae Salicylas	Quininae Aethylcargonas	Sulfanilamidum
Sulfathiazolum	Plasmoquininae Tab.	Thyroideum
	Mersalyum (Salyrgan)	

C. BIOLOGICAL PRODUCTS

Antitoxinum Diphthericum	Antitoxinum Tetanicum	Toxoidum Diphthericum
Toxidum Tetanicum	Vaccinum Cholerae	Vaccinum Cholerae et Typho- -Paratyphosum
Vaccinum Rabies	Vaccinum Typho-Paraty- phosum	Vaccinum Variolae

The manufacture of surgical instruments, hospital equipment and artificial limbs has been handicapped by shortage of necessary machines and tools, raw materials and skilled workmen. Two government factories in Szechwan are working overtime to meet the demand which has proved to be out of all proportions to those of prewar years.

Removed from Nanking to Szechwan, the Surgical Instrument and Hospital

Equipment Factory of the National Health Administration has been manufacturing since March, 1938, surgical instruments and equipment, field operating tables, collapsible stretchers, portable field shower baths, Thomas splints and artificial limbs for use in army hospitals. Its output was increased from 9,924 articles in 1939 to over 48,000 in 1941.

The Military Sanitary Equipment Factory of the Ministry of Military Affairs is producing a total of 13,000 pieces of surgical instruments and hospital supplies in addition to between 400 to 500 artificial limbs a month. The factory's products consist of more than 300 kinds of instruments, ten kinds of artificial limbs and twenty kinds of hospital supplies. If the plant is required to produce only one kind of instrument, the output can be increased to 40,000 articles a month, or about 500,000 a year. Its artificial limbs section sends trained technicians to army hospitals to take measurements and make plaster moulds for disabled soldiers.

Established in July, 1940, the plant has several types of old machines collected in interior China, one being converted into instrument-making service from its original can-stamping purpose. Lien Jui-chi, German-trained pharmacist, is the director of the factory, while Wang Yun-hsuan, trained at Technische-Hochschule zu Berlin, is the chief engineer.

The orthopedic center in Kweiyang also produces orthopedic appliances, such as splints, crutches and artificial limbs.

First with a revolving fund of \$1,000,000 and later reinforced by £168,000 British export credits, the National Health Administration through its Emergency Purchasing Committee for Medical Supplies has been supplying essential drugs to medical and health organizations and the general public at cost.

In the first year after its inauguration in November, 1939, the committee purchased 2,091 packages of medical supplies, and in 1940, 1,839 packages besides 48 cases of cotton and gauze from local factories. Purchases were limited to local plants in 1941, when altogether \$2,040,132 worth of drugs and medical supplies were sold to 222 units. Between January and June, 1942, 360 packages were bought from local drug plants. Arrangements were made by the end of July for the importation of 20 tons of medical supplies from India.

The Committee maintains two agencies to facilitate transportation and two sales offices and two dispensaries in Chungking. Sales were made in seventeen Free China provinces.

Dr. F. Y. Tai is chairman of the committee, the other members being S. C. Hsu, Dr. S. Y. Yue, Dr. Hsu

Shih-chin and S. S. Kung, Dr. C. Y. Shu is the general secretary. An advisory technical committee for medical supplies to China was organized with Dr. P. Z. King, director-general of the National Health Administration, as chairman.

OLD STYLE MEDICAL PRACTITIONERS

The Old Style Medical Practitioners Committee of the National Health Administration supervises and registers Chinese medicine institutions and organizations; determines the qualifications of herb doctors and supervises their practice; deals with matters concerning the training of old style medical personnel; examines patent herb medicine and supervises herb stores; examines and compiles publications on old style medicine, and administers general affairs relating to old style medicine.

No accurate statistics are available as to the number of old style medical practitioners in the whole of China, but it is estimated to be more than 100,000 persons. Up to October, 1942, at least 5,130 herb doctors were registered with the National Health Administration. Herb doctors may register with provincial and municipal authorities, but the final examination of their qualifications is done by the Committee. Between October, 1941 and August, 1942, herb doctors passed totalled 798, including 389 doctors registered with the Szechwan provincial government, 37 with the Kweichow provincial government, 152 with the Kiangsi provincial government, 100 with the Anhwei provincial government and 120 with the Fukien provincial government.

The Committee has issued certificates to 27 practitioners in war zones and abroad.

Patent herb medicines examined by the Committee between October, 1941 and August, 1942 totalled 99.

Publications on Chinese medicine examined by the Committee in the same period numbered eight.

Herb doctors' associations established in the period number 35, and herb store unions 89.

Books on herbs and on the practice of old style medicine published in the same period numbered three.

Dr. Chen Yu is the chairman of the Committee, and members of the standing committee are: Doctors Peng Yangkuang, Chang Chieh-chai, Yao Feng Huang, and Chang You-chih.

HOSPITALS IN CHINA

No accurate statistics on hospitals and hospital beds in Free China are available as the difficulty in communications and the removals of institutions resulting from the constant shifting of fighting zones have left gaps in surveys of an extensive nature, and have caused delays and omissions in the collection of reports from various places.

General and special hospitals maintained by provincial and municipal governments at the end of 1941 numbered 43. The number of beds in 34 of them was 2,038. With the increase in the number of *hsien* health centers, more hospital wards have been made available to the public. The *hsien* health system requires each center to maintain a 20 to 40-bed hospital. By the end of 1941,

751 centers had been established in thirteen provinces.

Attempts to obtain accurate and complete numbers of private and mission hospitals in Free China have been equally unsuccessful. Reports reaching the National Health Administration put the number of such hospitals at the end of 1941 at 237 in fourteen provinces with a total of 6,326 beds. The figures are known to have fallen far short of the actual number of hospitals existing in Free China. Some of the hospitals known in operation were found missing from the lists, while in certain cases, figures of hospitals and hospital beds have not yet been received in Chungking. The tables given below were based on reports received by the National Health Administration.

NUMBER OF HOSPITALS, LABORATORIES AND HEALTH CENTERS
MAINTAINED BY MUNICIPAL AND PROVINCIAL
GOVERNMENTS AT THE END OF 1941

Municipality & Provinces	General Hospital	Special Hospital	Laboratory	Health Centers
Chungking	3	1	0	0
Szechwan	0	2	0	65
Chekiang	0	0	1	60
Kiangsi	1	2	1	81
Hupei	1	0	0	17
Hunan	1	0	1	75
Honan	1	2	1	2
Shensi	0	1	2	54
Kansu	1	0	0	20
Chinghai	1	0	0	0
Fukien	2	1	1	64
Kwangtung	1	3	1	73
Kwangsi	11	0	1	87
Yunnan	2	2	1	77
Kweichow	2	1	1	76
Ningsia	1	0	0	0
TOTAL	28	15	11	751

NUMBER OF PRIVATE AND MISSION HOSPITALS
IN CHINA AT THE END OF 1941

Municipality & Provinces	Hospitals	Beds	Municipality & Provinces	Hospitals	Beds
Chungking	5	325	Kwangtung	4	104
Szechwan	23	664	Kwangsi	10	367
Chekiang	56	1,298	Kweichow	1	57
Anhui	6	94	Kansu	8	212
Kiangsi	7	356	Honan	32	437
Hupei	4	136	Chinghai	1	15
Hunan	36	1,536	Yunnan*		
Shansi	1	5	Fukien*		
Shensi	43	720	Sikang*		
			Suiyuan*		

Total number of hospitals: 237, and beds 6,326

*Figures unavailable

To make the best possible use of existing hospital facilities throughout the country, the Chinese Government has provided subsidies through the National Health Administration for non-governmental hospitals to enable them to treat wounded or sick soldiers and refugees.

The funds available for such subsidies amount to \$100,000 a month; and the scheme of hospital subsidies has been in effect with slight modifications since the outbreak of hostilities in 1937. The hospitals are subsidized on the basis of monthly returns giving the number of wounded or sick soldiers and refugees treated at a daily rate of \$2 per inpatient and 40 cents per outpatient visit. Besides such cash subsidies, grants of medical supplies are provided.

A total of 80 hospitals with a bed capacity of 4,000 in Free China came within the scope of this scheme in 1942. The subsidies ranged from \$600 to \$1,800 a month for each hospital. Of the \$100,000, 40 per cent was in cash, while 60 per cent in medical supplies.

Three orthopedic centers are treating wounded soldiers and civilian air raid casualties, and at the same time, additional technical personnel are being trained there to start orthopedic work in other parts of China so that the number of deformities may be substantially reduced. All the three centers are attached to the Emergency Medical Service Training Schools of the Ministry of Military Affairs.

The first center, with 200 beds, forms part of the 1,000-bed training hospital and school at Kweiyang. Equipment to the value of £2,000 was provided by the British Orthopedic Society, while the British Fund for Relief of Distressed in China gave HK \$2,000 for the maintenance of the center for the first six months.

The Kweiyang center operates a workshop to provide artificial limbs. Vocational training along useful lines is given convalescent patients.

The two branch centers, each with a capacity of between 50 and 70 beds, are attached to training schools, one at Paocheng, Shensi, and the other at Tungan, Hunan.

CONSCRIPTION OF PERSONNEL

Graduates of medical colleges, dentistry, and nursing schools, with the exception of fifteen per cent of them who might

work in their original schools, have been required since 1942 to join army and civil medical service. The distribution of the 85 per cent of medical graduates was as follows: 40 per cent to the Army Medical Administration, 30 per cent to the National Health Administration, and 15 per cent to the Red Cross Medical Relief Commission. Half of the graduates of midwifery schools were required to work in the National Health Administration. The distribution of the graduates among the three services was to be decided by drawing lots at the schools.

Graduation certificates, according to the regulations promulgated on May 5, 1942, will be awarded the students upon completion of one year's service with either of the three organizations. The schools are required to send the names of graduates to the Ministry of Education and the Wartime Medical Personnel Conscription Committee for reference. Conscribed graduates are required to join the assigned service three months after graduation. Traveling, board and lodging expenses of the conscripted personnel are paid by the organizations they join.

Conscription of medical personnel was first enforced in 1939, when 284 doctors and 10 pharmacists were called to government medical service. One hundred medical practitioners in several provinces and 281 graduates of army medical schools were likewise asked to enlist.

JUDICIAL MEDICINE

Judicial medicine was first listed on the curriculum of the Peking Medical College and the provincial medical colleges of Chekiang and Kiangsu in 1915. In 1930, the Peking Medical College, then changed to Medical School of Peiping University, opened a special course for such studies. Not until 1934, by a decree of the Ministry of Education, did judicial medicine become one of the required subjects in medical colleges.

Following the establishment of the Judicial Physicians' Training Institute in 1932 in Chenju, near Shanghai, doctors were enlisted for a two-year special course, one and a half year in study, and half a year for practice. In 1935, 20 doctors were graduated and appointed to courts in different provinces. In September the same year, an institute for judicial medicine was established under the medical college of Peiping University. In Chenju, 20 additional doctors were trained between 1936 and 1937.

Following the outbreak of the war, the two institutes moved to Chungking where they were merged into one. Dr. Lynn Ge, trained at Berlin University, who first headed the Chenju institute, was the director of the one in Peiping. Dr. Sung Kwei-fang, French returned student, was the director of the Chenju institute.

ARMY MEDICAL SERVICE

The army medical service is maintained by four organizations. Though under separate command they run as the component parts of one integral administration, each having its specific duties. The organizations come under the armies, the medical department of the Board of Supplies and Transport of the National Military Council, the Army Medical Administration and the Central Wounded Soldiers Administration of the Ministry of Military Affairs.

Army medical units serve at the front, clearing the combat zone, rendering first aid and emergency treatment and evacuating the casualties to collecting and dressing stations and the divisional field hospital.

The medical department of the Board of Supplies and Transport receives wounded soldiers from army medical units, takes care of them while in transit and transports them to army hospitals in the rear. Under its direction are receiving stations and field hospitals which are organized by the Army Medical Administration and assigned to the medical department along lines of communication. For the transportation of the wounded, the medical department has at its disposal stretcher-bearer units, motor ambulances, hospital trains and hospital boats.

Besides organizing receiving stations and field hospitals, the Army Medical Administration maintains base hospitals in the rear, surgical hospitals and hospitals for special cases.

Cured soldiers are sent to the convalescent hostels organized by the Central Wounded Soldiers Administration. Able-bodied ones are given a short period of refresher-training prior to return to active service. The disabled and crippled are given relief.

The army medical service is organized as follows:

(1) Formations belonging to armies at the front:

- (a) Regimental—company bearers (transport unit); battalion headquarters medical section (first

aid); regimental headquarters medical section (first aid); regimental medical transport unit.

- (b) Divisional—divisional headquarters medical section (command); divisional medical transport unit; divisional field hospital.
- (c) Army—army headquarters medical section (command); army hospital and army field hospital.
- (d) Group Army—group army headquarters medical department (first aid).

The units are under orders of their respective military commanders and operate independently without any unified direct technical control.

(2) Formations along lines of communication:

In roadless area—

- (a) Transport units—ambulance corps; stretcher-bearers units; stretcher-bearers regiments.
- (b) Transit accommodation—food and rest stations; collecting stations.
- (c) Hospitalization—evacuation hospitals.

In highway area—

- (a) Transport units—ambulance trains; motor ambulance convoys; ambulance boats.
- (b) Transit accommodation—food and rest stations; collecting stations.
- (c) Hospitalization—evacuation hospitals.
- (d) Supplies—medical supplies depots.
- (e) Clothing—stores for clothing.
- (f) Anti-epidemic service—sanitary corps.

The units in a roadless area are under the command of the medical section of the quartermaster-general's headquarters attached to a group army, while those in a highway area are commanded by the medical section of the quartermaster-general's headquarters attached to a war area command. The section attached to a group army comes under the control of the one attached to the war area command, and the latter section in turn is under the medical department of the Board of Supplies and Transport.

(3) Formations belonging to the Army Medical Administration:

- (a) Transport units (between hospitals in the rear)—motor ambulance convoys; boat ambulance convoys.
- (b) Hospitalization and treatment—severely-wounded for hospitals; for base hospitals; army medical hospitals.
- (c) Operating teams—surgical operating team.
- (d) Medical and general supplies—medical supplies depots; general supplies depots.

Cases sent to the rear are taken care of by the above formations which are controlled by the Army Medical Administration through its sub-offices.

(4) Formations belonging to the Central Wounded Soldiers Administration:

- (a) Receiving stations—overflow transit accommodation.
- (b) Convalescent hostels.
- (c) Disabled soldiers' hostels.
- (d) Honor regiments.
- (e) Hostels for Class A disabled soldiers.

ARMY MEDICAL ADMINISTRATION

The Army Medical Administration has a sub-office in each province which directs army medical service of the rear zones and maintains all medical units except those belonging to the troops and the Central Wounded Soldiers Administration. In addition, it is responsible for the technical supervision of all army medical services, training of army medical personnel, anti-epidemic services and the provision of medical supplies.

The units functioning along lines of communication and the staff of the medical sections attached to a group army and a war area command from the director downwards are appointed by the Army Medical Administration. Although they are under the command of the director of the medical department of the Board of Supplies and Transport they are maintained in respect of pay, expenses and supplies, by the Army Medical Administration.

The Administration is organized as follows:

Director-General: Dr. C. T. Loo;
Deputy Director-General: Dr. Hsu Sei-ling.

First Department, in charge of personnel and pay. Director: Dr. S. L. Hsu;

Second Department, responsible for medical units, and discipline of the wounded. Director: Dr. P. L. Chu;

Third Department, in charge of health and sanitation matters and also the training of medical personnel. Director: Dr. Mo-sheng Li.

The Administration has a staff of 19,087 persons, of whom 11,668 are medical personnel, while the remaining 7,419 persons belong to the clerical staff. The staff of the Administration proper consists of 81 medical and 295 other personnel, totalling 376 persons.

The Administration maintains more than 300 hospitals providing 233,500 beds. Altogether 35,000 persons are enlisted with the army medical service. They are sent from time to time to the Emergency Medical Service Training School and its branches, and the Army Medical College, for advanced training.

The Central Wounded Soldiers Administration appoints officers to various army hospitals, while the Board of Political Training of the National Military Council sends supervisors to give political training to convalescent soldiers.

The Administration also maintains an inspector-general's department to examine health matters among troops, military organizations, army medical schools, and the Administration's subsidiary organizations. A purchasing committee (secretary: Pucheng P. Chen) looks after the problem of medical supplies. Tablets, tinctures, ampoules, and a limited quantity of simple drugs are supplied by its sanitary depot, while the Military Sanitary Equipment Factory manufactures surgical instruments and artificial limbs. The number of articles manufactured is estimated at 13,500 a month. A separate plant produces a certain amount of absorbent cotton and gauze.

Six hundred and seventy-two doctors and other senior medical personnel are graduated each year from the Army Medical College, while each of its two branch schools supplies 120 doctors a year.

Established in 1902 in Tientsin, the college now functions in Kweichow province. Up to the present, 1,742 doctors and senior medical officers have been graduated. Generalissimo

Chiang Kai-shek is the president of the college, while Dr. Cheng Chien is the dean.

The first branch college, with Dr. Teng Shu-tung as the director, is located in Sian, Shensi province. Up to the present, 131 doctors and senior medical officers have been graduated. The second branch carries on in Kunming. Dr. Ching Ling-pa is the director.

Under the supervision of the college is a unit of reserve medical officers in Kweilin, where refresher courses are available for medical officers, and junior medical officers are being trained. Organized in 1937, the unit has supplied the army medical service with 3,629 well-trained officers. About 840 officers are graduated from the unit every year. There are two sub-units, one in Sian and the other in Shaoyang, Hunan province. The two sub-units were established in 1941, and up to the present, 686 officers have been graduated.

Field training for all classes of personnel is given by the Emergency Medical Service Training School and its five branch schools. Details are given in the section entitled "State Medicine." The directors of the five branch schools are Drs. Chen Tao, Lim Ching-pang, Thomas Ma, Peng Ta-mu and Lin Ching-cheng.

Cholera in southwestern China and the bubonic plague in Chekiang and Hunan in the past two years little affected the health of the Chinese troops. Preventive measures, including wholesale inoculations, by anti-epidemic corps in war areas proved effective.

When the outbreak of bubonic plague was first reported, preventive advice was circularized among the troops with instructions to follow the suggestions. Pamphlets giving rudimentary knowledge on general health and sanitation are widely distributed from time to time.

Anti-epidemic corps are found in every war area. Besides giving inoculations they carry out sanitary engineering projects, build delousing stations, sterilize drinking water and clean troop centers of stagnant and dirty water and refuse.

There are altogether eleven army anti-epidemic corps each of which is composed of 66 medical officers, sanitary engineers, and technicians, besides a group of assistants. Each corps is divided into three units which may function in different areas. Altogether 1,100 medical

personnel and assistants are enlisted in the corps.

Between January and November, 1942, 1,539,931 officers and men were vaccinated against smallpox, while anti-cholera and anti-typhoid inoculations were given 1,735,034 officers and men.

The most common diseases among the troops are dysentery and malaria, while typhoid and relapsing fever come next in prevalence.

STATIONS FOR WOUNDED SOLDIERS

Seventeen main service corps, composed of 3,000 men, are maintaining 408 stations in fourteen provinces to receive wounded soldiers in transit. The first five corps directing 120 receiving stations belong to the Christian Service Council for Wounded Soldiers of which Dr. H. H. Kung, Vice-President of the Executive Yuan and Minister of Finance, is chairman. The Board of Supplies and Transport of the National Military Council has in the field seven corps directing 168 receiving stations, while the National War Relief Association maintains the remaining five corps in charge of 120 receiving stations.

The service for wounded soldiers in transit was first started by the three cooperating organizations in September, 1938, when the battle for the defense of the Wuhan area became critical. Villagers were evacuating from both sides of the highways adjacent to the war fronts. As a result, wounded men from the front lines found it extremely difficult to get food and water. As an experiment, 20 receiving stations, one every three miles, were established along the highways linking the three provinces of Hunan, Hupeh and Kiangsi. Their service proving satisfactory, more stations were set up.

Each station is staffed by six men—an officer-in-charge, two assistants and three staff members. Most of them have had special training for their work.

Housed in temples or other available buildings, the stations provide water, food and shelter to the wounded soldiers. Here their wounds are redressed and their clothes washed and deloused. For the heavily wounded, stretcher-bearers are secured for the next lap of the journey until they can reach a base hospital.

CENTRAL WOUNDED SOLDIERS ADMINISTRATION

The Central Wounded Soldiers Administration runs hostels for disabled soldiers,

has organized 77 wounded soldiers' cooperatives and established two agricultural villages for the crippled. The handicraft section of 19 hostels affords employment to the inmates.

Working on farms are two groups numbering 9,213 persons. Farmland cultivated totals 29,337 mow, while a much bigger area measuring 291,811 mow is being developed. The soldiers have planted 455,000 tung trees, 30,000,000 tea trees and 20,000 pine trees. Crops reaped by them includes 13,329 piculs of rice, 300,800 catties of potatoes and 2,800 piculs of peanuts.

To supplement the work of the administration, which is a component part of the Chinese army medical service, a separate bureau was established last September to give employment to disabled soldiers. Branches will be established in every province. Through the bureau, 6,000 soldiers have been sent to the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry to engage in farming. The bureau operates a farm and two factories.

The administration, which has branches in various provinces in Free China, is staffed by more than 500 army officers. At communication centers, stations have been established to take care of the wounded in transit.

The administration maintains receiving stations, convalescent hostels, disabled soldiers' hostels, and hostels for Class A disabled soldiers, besides organizing honor regiments. There are altogether 13 administration offices, 21 branch offices, and 26 sub-offices distributed in war zones.

CHINESE RED CROSS

The National Red Cross Society of China was founded in 1904, Mr. D. F. Shen, a prominent Shanghai resident, being one of the promoters. The Society later became an affiliated member of the International Red Cross Committee at Geneva.

By an order of the Executive Yuan, the Society was reorganized in February, 1943. Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek was made honorary chairman; Dr. Chiang Mon-lin, President of National Peking University, chairman; Dr. T. V. Soong, Tai Chi-tao, General Shang Chen, Wang Hsiao-lai, and Dr. Wong Wen-hao, members of the executive committee of the board of directors. The honorary vice-chairmen are Madame Chiang Kai-shek, Tai Chi-tao, Dr. H. H. Kung, Dr. T. V. Soong, General Wu Te-chen, Dr. C. T. Wang, and Yu Ya-ching.

Dr. L. S. Woo, Harvard Medical School, 1918, was appointed director of the medical relief corps, Dr. P. C. Nyi, Johns Hopkins Medical School, 1922, assistant director, and Dr. Robert Lim of Edinburgh University, general adviser. Dr. Woo was made concurrently secretary-general of the Chinese Red Cross.

The head office, located in Chungking, has three departments. The first department is in charge of clerical work, general business, transportation, and personnel; the second department, of publications, statistics, and extension work; and the third department, of nursing, supplies, and medical services. There is also a department of accounting which audits all the accounts of the head office as well as of its subsidiary organizations.

Since the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war, the Society has concentrated its efforts on the relief of wounded and sick soldiers, civilians, and refugees.

The following will sum up various activities of the Society in wartime:

Described as the "power house" of the Society, the Medical Relief Corps, under the administration of the Medical Relief Commission, did 7,197 surgical operations on wounded soldiers besides treating 324,554 civilians in clinics set up by the corps.

The following statistics show the number of cases undertaken by the corps in the first half year of 1942:

Surgical operations	7,197 cases
Reduction of fractures	2,598 "
X-ray examinations	3,645 "
Special diets	66,767 "
Immunizations	420,036 "
Medical cases	143,744 "

Organized at the end of 1937 after the fall of Nanking to take care of the wounded and sick, the corps maintains two branches of field work: medical units and truck-ambulance convoys. The headquarters of the corps, located in Kweiyang, has three departments: medical, general administration and accounting, all working under the direction of the director-general and his two assistant directors.

The medical units are assigned to work in field and base hospitals as well as in dressing and receiving stations along the main lines of transportation. With the exception of the X-ray and laboratory units, they all perform three-fold functions: curative, nursing, and

preventive. The units assigned to a particular line constitute a group, while several groups in a war zone or a defined area constitute a division. There are seven divisions, forty groups and one hundred units.

A geographical study of these units shows that they extend to 54 *hsien* in twelve provinces: Kweichow, Shensi, Honan, Hupeh, Chekiang, Fukien, Kiangsi, Hunan, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Yunnan, and Szechwan. At one time, units were also sent to Burma and India to serve the Chinese Expeditionary Force.

Each of these units has, in general, one doctor, two nurses, one nursing or sanitary assistant, in addition to four

or six stretcher-bearers. Most of the units set up clinics to look after the health of the civilian population.

The truck-ambulance convoys transport wounded soldiers, medical supplies and personnel. The scope of the service often extends much farther beyond the needs of the corps. It has not only helped military, civil, and mission hospitals, army and civil health services, and local relief committees in transporting their own medical supplies and personnel, but has also brought to them large quantities of Red Cross medical supplies.

The convoys are stationed at four key cities: Kunming, Chungking, Hengyang and Kweiyang. The following table shows distribution of convoys and vehicles, and line of operation:

Location of Station	No. of Convoys	No. of Vehicles	Line of Operation
Chungking	2	14	Chungking-Chengtu-Paocheng-Lanchow
Kunming	2	14	Hsiakwan-Kunming-Kweiyang
Kweiyang	2	14	Kweiyang-Chinchengkiang-Kweiyang-Chikiang
Hengyang	2	14	Hengyang-Taiho-Nanping

To provide repairing services and to keep the vehicles in the best possible running condition, a repair shop is maintained at Kweiyang. In addition, mechanics are assigned to work with the transport stations to handle simple jobs of adjusting and repairing.

Serving civilians in interior provinces, the Society began organizing medical corps in 1940. Beginning with eight units, the number was increased by the end of September, 1942, to five groups and 23 units distributed in Szechwan, Yunnan, Kweichow, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Hunan, Kiangsi and Fukien. One unit is stationed in Kweichow in a camp for war prisoners. The services rendered by the corps up to June, 1942, were:

Patients Treated:

First Visits 109,904

Preventive Inoculations:

Smallpox 40,914

Cholera and Typhoid 108,329

Following the outbreak of the Pacific War, the medical corps aided Chinese refugees returning to China by way of Kwangtung and Yunnan. The corps also helped combat the cholera epidemic in the southwestern provinces by giving inoculations to the populace in affected areas.

One general clinic, two medical units, one isolation hospital, and one general hospital are maintained by the Society for medical relief in Chungking. Ambulance services are provided air-raid victims.

The general clinic, established in the New Life Model Center in the city, consists of six departments: medicine, surgery, gynecology, pediatrics, X-ray, and clinical laboratory. Patients are treated free of charge except those requiring extended treatment or laboratory examination who are charged a small registration fee. Drugs are given to all patients without charge. The clinic has been in operation for a year and treats from 600 to 800 patients a day.

Far away from the busy centers of the city, an isolation hospital has been built on the south bank of the Yangtze. At present it has 50 beds, but if necessary the bed capacity may be expanded. It is also prepared to take care of air-raid and emergency cases.

The general hospital, situated some twenty kilometers from the city, has nine departments: medicine, surgery, gynecology and obstetrics, pediatrics, skin and venereal diseases, eye-ear-nose-throat, dentistry, and physical therapy. Of its 200 beds, 150 are assigned to third class patients who get all their medicines and medical care free but pay nominal sums for their food.

The Society began maintaining a hospital for Chungking's bombing victims and the poor after the disastrous raids of May 3 and 4, 1939. Situated on the outskirts of the city, the hospital, with 50 beds, was twice bombed in August, 1941. The new hospital, construction of which began early in 1942, is situated further away from the city.

The supply depots, of which there are twelve distributed in eight provinces, are maintained to store, prepare and issue medical equipment and supplies. They work in close relation with the medical units and the truck-ambulance convoys.

The central depot, under the direct administration of the head office, consists of three divisions: drugs, chemicals, and instruments. There is, in addition, a production division which prepares or purifies certain local materials to replace imports. Sodium chloride, sodium sulphate, copper sulphate, plaster of paris, etc., can now be provided in reasonable quantities.

The central depot packs supplies in standard packages to be distributed to its branch depots and sub-depots for the

use of medical units, clinics, and hospitals. A standard supply list has been prepared to give information as to what equipment, drugs, dressings, etc., are available, and must be maintained for the work in the field. Large quantities of supplies are also issued to other military, civil, and relief organizations.

The local chapters of the Red Cross are organized purely on the basis of voluntary service. There were 512 chapters scattered throughout the country before the war. At present, only 74 maintain contact with the head office. Szechwan heads the list with 34 chapters, Hunan and Kwangtung six each, Honan five, Yunnan and Fukien four each, Shensi and Kwangsi three each, Kweichow and Hupeh two each, Kiangsi, Chekiang, Kansu, Shantung and Anhwei one each. The chapters have been operating altogether 31 hospitals, 63 clinics, and 37 medical units.

The services of the Society are maintained by more than 2,000 medical and non-medical men and women, and its monthly running expenses amount to \$1,500,000. The work has been made possible through assistance from organizations and individuals in China and abroad and from the Central Government. Prominent among the contributors are the American Red Cross, the British Government, the Australian Red Cross, the New Zealand Red Cross, and the Indian Government.

Chinese in the Netherlands East Indies were by far the chief contributors of funds, quinine, and foodstuffs. The Chinese population throughout Java, Sumatra, Dutch Borneo, Celebes, Bali, and Flores contributed generously until the Pacific War broke out. Western friends and Chinese in the United States have donated most of the ambulances and medical supplies used by the Red Cross.

CHAPTER XVIII

THE PRESS

HISTORY

Imperial gazettes marked the beginning of the Chinese press. They originated from recordings of the daily life of the emperor, chronology of important events in a month, chronology of monthly executive matters, and recordings of political affairs and discussions at court. In the Chou dynasty (1122-258 B.C.), the doings and utterances of emperors were recorded respectively by Tso Shih and Yu Shih, official historiographers. With the exception of the Wei (A.D. 220-265) and Tsin (A.D. 265-313) dynasties, when the posts were not filled, other dynasties followed the practice.

The gazettes are believed to have first appeared in the Han dynasty (206 B.C.—A.D. 221) under the name of *Ti Pao* (Palace Reports). No official record, however, has been found of the issuance of these reports. The name *Ti Pao* first appeared in the works of famous authors in the Tang dynasty (A.D. 618-907). Reference was made to *Ti Pao* in an event recorded in the Story of Poetry in the Tang dynasty. The event happened 1,162 years ago. The name *Ti Pao* was first found in historical records in the History of the Sung dynasty (A.D. 960-1278).

It was, however, not until the Sung dynasty that the circulation of *Ti Pao* assumed the aspect of a state system. The publication of court affairs was ordered in imperial edicts. Improvement in communication systems and in the technique of printing, paper having been invented in the Han dynasty, facilitated the circulation.

Although movable types made of wood were used as early as the Sung dynasty in the printing of books, *Ti Pao* was hand-written and printed from wood blocks until the reign of Tsung Cheng (1628-1644), the last emperor of the Ming dynasty (A.D. 1368-1644).

In the Ching dynasty (A.D. 1644-1911), *Ti Pao* was known as *King Pao*, the *Peking Gazette* or *Capital Gazette*. It consisted of three sections, the first being court circulars, the second, imperial

decrees, and third, memorials submitted by state officials. Provincial capitals published Provincial Gazettes. In 1906, ministries began publishing separate gazettes. The Ministry of Commerce issued its official gazette for commerce, and the Ministry of Education, its official gazette for education.

Missionaries coming out to the Far East introduced the modern press into China. The first of its kind was a periodical in the Chinese language. Entitled the *Chinese Monthly Magazine*, the inaugural issue appeared in Malacca on August 5, 1815. Publication was continued until 1821. With the exception of a few issues which were edited by Robert Morrison, Walter Henry Medhurst, and Liang Ya-fah, William Milne was solely responsible for its entire seven volumes of 574 pages. Its circulation increased from 500 to 2,000 copies.

The first periodical ever published in the Chinese language in China was the *Eastern Western Monthly Magazine* (1833-1837). It was first published in Canton and when Charles Gutzlaff took charge, it was transferred to Singapore.

The first Chinese daily was published in Hongkong in 1858. It was the *Chung Ngai San Po*, the Chinese edition of the *China Mail* in Hongkong. An evening paper published every other day, it was later published daily. The *Hongkong Daily Press* also published a Chinese edition entitled the *Chinese Mail*. In Shanghai, the *North-China Daily News*, a British journal, published a Chinese edition named *Shanghai Sin Pao* in 1862. The *Shun Pao* made its debut in Shanghai on April 30, 1872, and the *Sin Wan Pao* on January 1, 1893. The foreign interest in the latter two papers were later sold to Chinese.

The first Chinese-owned daily, the *Chao Wen Sin Pao*, was published in Hankow in 1873. This was followed by *Tsun Wan Yat Pao*, published by a Chinese scholar, Wang Tao, in Hongkong in 1874.*

*The preceding summary based on the "History of Chinese Journalism" by the late Chinese journalist Ko Kung-chen.

NEWSPAPERS IN CHINA

The press started by missionaries in China aimed at the propagation of religious doctrines. Even in its early days, the influence it wielded over public opinion was seen by the Chinese. The establishment of a press bureau was recommended in a memorial submitted to the supreme ruler of the "Taiping Heavenly Kingdom" by "Prince of Kan" in the ninth year of the reign of Emperor Hsien-feng (1859) in the Ching dynasty. The document is now kept in the Oxford University library in England.

The Sino-Japanese war in 1894 gave impetus to the development of a modern press in China. Revolutionary workers used it as a medium to expound their ideas, and many new papers were brought into being. Some of the Kuomintang leaders are well-known for their journalistic experiences during the pre-revolutionary days. The guarantee which the Provisional Constitution gave to the freedom of speech greatly accelerated the growth of the press. During the first years of the Republic, 500 papers were distributed over the country with Peiping claiming one-fifth of the number. The total circulation was estimated at 42,000,000 copies a day.

The press received its first severe blow in 1914, when Yuan Shih-kai, harboring a monarchical scheme, clamped down on Kuomintang papers and those papers known for their revolutionary leanings. Press regulations were promulgated that year, subjecting mail and telegrams, final proofs of newspapers to censorship. There were cases in which journalists were imprisoned. As a result, among the papers published in big cities, only 20 survived in Peiping, five in Shanghai and two in Hankow. The total circulation also dropped to 39,000,000 copies a day.

The adoption of the spoken Peking dialect in writing, Dr. Hu Shih being one of the prime movers, made the press a more popular vehicle of reading matter. Between 1918 and 1919, 400 new periodicals were published in various parts of the country. By 1921, China had 1,137 newspapers and periodicals of which 550 were published daily, 6 every other day, 9 every three days, 9 every five days, 154 weekly, 46 every ten days, 54 fortnightly, 303 monthly, 4 quarterly, 1 biennially and 1 annually.

In 1926 altogether 628 newspapers were published in China. They were

distributed as follows: Peiping, 125; Hankow, 36; Canton, 29; Tientsin, 28; Shanghai, 23; and in provinces, 362.

The number was increased to 1,031 in April, 1937. The distribution follows: Nanking, 21; Shanghai, 50; Hankow, 21; Peiping, 44; Tientsin, 29; Tsingtao, 16; Canton, 17; Kiangsu, 261; Chekiang, 105; Anhwei, 57; Kiangsi, 31; Hupeh, 28; Hunan, 102; Szechwan, 34; Yunnan, 14; Kweichow, 6; Kwangtung, 23; Kwangsi, 7; Fukien, 42; Hopei, 12; Shantung, 28; Honan, 32; Shansi, 8; Shensi, 11; Kansu, 7; Ningsia, 1; Chinghai, 2; Suiyuan, 10; Chahar, 9; and Harbin, 3. (Source: "A Brief History of the Chinese Press" by Yin-liang Ma, general manager of the *Shun Pao*.)

The spreading of hostilities forced many papers to suspend publication, while a number of them trekked to the interior. The 1942 survey made by the Chinese Ministry of Information gave the number of papers published in 21 provinces and one municipality as 724. Of the number, 96 were run by political workers of the Chinese Army. The majority of the journals were published daily. In the case of army papers, the majority came out at intervals of two or three days.

Altogether 13 Chinese-language dailies are circulated in Chungking. They are: *The Central Daily News*; *Sao Tang Pao*; *Ta Kung Pao*; *Sin Shu Pao*; *China Times*; *Sin Hua Jih Pao*; *Kuo Min Kung Pao*; *Sin Min Pao*; *Commercial Daily News*; *Yi Shih Pao*; *Industrial and Commercial News*; evening edition of *Sin Min Pao*; and *Nanking Evening News*. The *National Herald* is the only English paper published in Chungking, C. J. Chen being the chief editor.

The distribution of the papers in 1942 follows: Chungking, 13; Kiangsu, 10; Chekiang, 65; Anhwei, 37; Kiangsi, 48; Hupeh, 25; Hunan, 93; Szechwan, 75; Yunnan, 11; Kweichow, 9; Kwangtung, 70; Kwangsi, 35; Fukien, 36; Hopei, 2; Shantung, 3; Honan, 46; Shensi, 23; Kansu, 15; Ningsia, 2; Chinghai, 1; Sikang, 7; Suiyuan, 2; army papers, 96.

In the same year, 177 Chinese news agencies functioned in seventeen provinces and one municipality. There were 4 news agencies in Chungking; 2 in Kiangsu; 14 in Chekiang; 1 in Anhwei; 21 in Kiangsi; 1 in Hupeh; 46 in Hunan;

34 in Szechwan; 2 in Yunnan; 1 in Kweichow; 19 in Kwangtung; 3 in Kwangsi; 8 in Fukien; 1 in Shantung; 5 in Honan; 3 in Shensi; 6 in Kansu; and the remaining 6 were army news agencies.

According to a preliminary survey made in the latter part of 1942, there were 576 periodicals published in three municipalities and eleven provinces in Free China. The distribution of the periodicals follows:

Chungking, 164; Chengtu, 61; Kunming, 29; Kwangtung, 74; Kweichow, 20; Fukien, 26; Shensi, 21; Chekiang, 18; Hunan, 16; Anhwei, 23; Sikang, 3; Kwangsi, 48; Kiangsi, 68; Hupeh, 5.

Included in the lists were only those newspapers, news agencies and periodicals which had duly registered with the authorities, or were in the process of registration, or to which order had been given to register. Not included in the list were those papers published in Japanese controlled areas, but the registration of which had been cancelled owing to a change of editorial policy or to suspension of publication.

A number of newspapers circulated within small army units have not yet been registered. Not included in the lists are hand-written papers posted on walls.

WARTIME PRESS

Exigencies of war have brought about many changes in the Chinese press. All journals, big or small, have only four pages contrasted with the pompous editions during pre-war days. They are all printed on native paper and with native ink instead of imported products. Although radio-photo service is in operation in Chungking, the papers use only wood blocks because of lack of engraving facilities, and even these cuts are used on rare occasions and mostly to give a rough sketch of localities that are in the news.

To avoid air-raid risks, printing presses and editorial offices are moved to the country and found in thatched houses of mud and bamboo walls. Some of the papers are printed in dug-outs. During the large-scale air bombings in May, 1939, the *Ta Kung Pao's* premises were damaged. The paper's new building received a direct hit in a raid in July, 1941, suffering heavy losses in equipment and supplies. Most of the Chinese journals in Chungking have had similar

experiences. The *China Times* was struck by bombs eight times in 1940 and 1941. In the raid on August 21, 1940, its plant was almost completely consumed in flames. Even heavier losses were caused in the bombing of July 30, 1941, when both the plant and dormitory were partially leveled. The *Yi Shih Pao's* business and editorial offices were destroyed in the raid on August 30, 1941. The *Sin Min Pao*, *Sin Hua Jih Pao*, and *Sao Tang Pao* suffered heavy losses in the bombings. In the raid on August 19, the *Sin Min Pao's* editorial offices and plant were destroyed. The paper was altogether bombed five times. Fire started by incendiary bombs burnt through the paper's dug-out on June 7, 1941, destroying all important documents, materials, supplies and the staff's personal belongings. The *Nanking Evening News* was twice bombed, and the *Commercial Daily News*, eleven times.

Two days after the Japanese air raids of May 3 and May 4, 1939, Chungking's ten Chinese newspapers of every shade of political opinion appeared in a joint edition. The new paper, known as the *Joint Edition of Chungking Dailies* combined the *Central Daily News*, official organ of the Kuomintang, the *Ta Kung Pao*, known as China's *Manchester Guardian*, the *Sin Hua Jih Pao*, the Chinese communist organ, and seven other publications. The papers organized two committees, one looking after administrative and business matters and the other after editorial affairs. The merger of the papers during the emergency period was one of the examples of the friendly ties the papers have had with one another. Throughout the intense bombings, Chungking hardly remembers a day which passed without a morning paper in circulation.

Not Chungking alone, but in remote regions in the interior too, the public has been well served by the press during the past several years. In pre-war days, small cities and villages obtained their supply of daily papers from the big cities. Difficulties in transportation have seriously affected this practice. Instead district papers have grown in number. Many of these papers are not type-printed as machinery is difficult to get. They are lithographed, or in some cases mimeographed.

Pi Pao or wall paper is not a wartime invention, but where lithography, mimeography or ink are unavailable it

has become extremely popular with people in outlying districts in the present war. The papers are hand-written and posted on walls. Their advantages over regular papers in illustration and display, as paintings and cartoons and decorative designs and coloring are outstanding features of wall papers, have incited many patriotic organizations to resort to wall papers to disseminate propaganda during festivals and on important occasions. Wall papers are also seen in big cities.

Newspapers published by political workers at the front and behind the Japanese lines are mostly mimeographed or hand-written. There are also a number of type-printed army papers circulated in war zones and at the front. Well over 100 army papers of all types are in circulation. They reach soldiers and civilians alike.

ARMY PAPERS

Military academies printed their own papers, the best known being the *Whampoa Daily* published by the Whampoa Military Academy. Besides the skeleton editions and wall papers issued by various units, the northern expeditionary forces in 1926 published a regular army daily called the *Revolutionary Soldier*.

The *Sao Tang Pao*, or the *Broom* is an army paper which first appeared in March, 1931. Published by the political training department of the Generalissimo's Provisional Headquarters in Nanchang, Kiangsi, the paper continued to expand and its period of publications was changed from every three days to daily. With the reorganization of the department in February, 1938, the paper became attached to the Board of Political Training of the National Military Council. It publishes a Kweilin edition, while its correspondents are found in various war zones.

The first army paper appearing after the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war was the *Cheng Chung Jih Pao*, or the *Battle News*, which made its debut at the Shanghai front. This was followed by a similar paper bearing the same name in the northern war zone. Political departments of other war zones soon followed suit, and some of the papers published are called *Chien Hsien Jih Pao*, or *Frontline Daily*, and *Chien Wei Jih Pao*, or the *Vanguard Daily*. In 1942, eleven papers of this kind were published,

each with a circulation ranging from 4,000 to 10,000 daily. Each paper is type printed. Two of them contain four pages each, and the rest two pages each.

Scattered at various fronts are 50 *Chien Pao Pan* or Flash News Corps, a wartime organization comprising several hundred young people whose duties are the publication of *Sao Tang Chien Pao*, or the *Concise Sao Tang Pao*. With a beginning of only five units, the corps soon expanded to its present number of 50, its members having been given several months' newspaper training by the Board of Political Training.

Where type printing would involve great inconvenience or is not available, lithography or mimeography are resorted to in the publication of these concise editions. The Flash News units also publish booklets, cartoons, weeklies, special editions, and wall papers.

Some of the Chinese armies publish their own papers for distribution among soldiers and also civilians in the district in which the army is stationed. In the fighting in southern Kwangsi in December, 1939 and January, 1940, the Fifth Army published "temporary editions" of its paper called *New Life*. A radio receiving set, a mimeograph machine, stencils, Chinese paper and ink were the essential equipment in the editorial "office" where the entire staff of a radio operator and the editor ate, lived and worked. The field headquarters kept the office informed of the situation. Real work began every night when the radio operator took down the Central News Agency broadcasts, and the editor put the wanted messages in shape, wrote the headlines and cut the stencil. Two thousand copies were mimeographed after midnight and delivered to all the units before dawn.

News of the local front was rarely featured, it being taken for granted that the men and officers at the front were keeping in close touch with the day's developments. Victories in other war zones occupied prominent places. An average of one-eighth of the daily space was devoted to foreign news. The paper measured two and a quarter feet by one and three quarters feet.

Then there is the *Tang Chun Jih Pao*, or the *Party Army Daily*, published by the Central Military Academy. It was first mimeographed but later type printing was adopted. Its copies are circulated outside the academy too. Its branches

and other military academies also print their own papers.

Chief reliance of news work in wartime China is placed on radio sets, especially in the case of newspapers published in rural towns and outlying districts. The Central News Agency, whose correspondents are stationed in important centers all over Free China, operates its own wireless service. Its daily news broadcasts are recorded and transcribed by its branch agencies and circularized among their subscribers. Rural papers record the radiograms themselves. Radio broadcasting stations, of which there are seventeen in Free China, also disseminate the day's news far and wide. The International Broadcasting Station in Chungking devoted 602 hours in 1942 to the broadcasting of news and speeches of timely interest. A number of papers published at places far away from communication centers are known to listen to these broadcasts carefully for the following day's headlines.

Armed with a radio set and a mimeograph machine, a group of zealous newspapermen have gone behind the Japanese lines to keep the people in Japanese controlled areas informed of the situation at home and abroad, and to counteract Japanese propaganda. Some of the most exciting journalistic experiences have been written by them. In the fighting in Chungtiao mountain range in southeastern Shansi in May, 1941, two members of the Flash News Corps were killed. During the third Changsha battle in north Hunan in December, 1941, a correspondent of the *Cheng Chung Jih Pao*, or the *Battle News*, lost his life at the front.

Chinese journalists known to have sacrificed their lives to uphold the highest ideals of the profession since the war began number 24, including one in Tientsin, six in Shanghai, six in Shantung, four in Chungking, and seven in other places.

SHANGHAI JOURNALISTS

The part played by Chinese newspapermen in Shanghai in China's journalistic field in wartime made headlines the world over. For four years, until the enemy occupation of the whole of Shanghai on December 8, 1941, they continued to work in the face of bribes, coercion, threats, violence, and terrorism. In their continuous fight against evils and treachery, they sustained casualties, but succeeded in evincing a spirit which

all journalists in Free China have adopted as the principal canon of their profession.

The following is a list of cases of violence and intimidation:

Journalists murdered: Six;

Journalists attacked but escaped alive: Three;

Newspaper employees who died from wounds received during bombing attacks on newspaper offices: Four;

Attempted bombings of newspaper offices: Seven;

Kidnapping of journalists and newspaper employees: Thirteen;

Sending of threatening letters to newspapers: More than twenty.

Of the six journalists murdered, four were of the *Ta Mei Wan Pao*, a Chinese evening paper published by the Post-Mercury Company of Shanghai. They were: Chu Hsin-kung, editor of the literary page; Samuel H. Chang, director; Cheng Cheng-chang, editor of international page; and Li Chun-ying, manager. The other two killed were: Shao Hsu-pai, president of the *Ta Kuang News Agency*, and King Hua-ting, correspondent of the *Shun Pao*.

Chu Hsin-kung, the first victim, fell on August 24, 1939. In reply to a threatening letter, he made further scathing attacks on Wang Ching-wei in an article published in his page, in which he said there were many causes of death, but to be murdered by puppets would make him a martyr and therefore would be the most glorious death one could hope for. He said his family would be proud of him should he die an independent, true Chinese. He would not be intimidated and neither would he ask for mercy, for by following the dictates of his conscience he found peace in his heart.

Samuel H. Chang, affectionately referred to by his journalistic colleagues as "Sammy," was the second journalist killed. While sitting in a cafe on Bubbling Well Road in the International Settlement on July 19, 1940, he was shot dead by two gunmen. The *China Weekly Review*, of which J. B. Powell was the editor and publisher, wrote in its July 27 issue the following:

"Sammy's crime in the eyes of his slayers was his patriotism, his loyalty to his native land, his spirited independence, his refusal to serve the Japanese

invaders and their Chinese hirelings. His slayers saw in him all those virtues which they so utterly lack. Eaten by a gangrenous envy and a malevolent hate, they struck him down in his prime, for he was only 40 years old when he died.

"But more was involved than the familiar hatred of the base for the virtuous. By killing Sammy, the dastards expected so to frighten Shanghai pressmen as to end opposition to the Nanking regime and the sell-out to Japan which its leaders are preparing in their current 'negotiations' with the Tokyo warlords. In their efforts to win fresh adherents and to wean both Chinese and foreigners away from their loyalty to the recognized Chinese Government at Chungking, the puppets have been singularly unsuccessful. Everyone recognizes the puppets for what they are....."

The wave of terrorism persisted, but the journalists remained truthful and loyal to their profession, their ideals, and their country. Even "over the dead bodies" of the two killed pressmen, the puppets and their masters failed to get what they went out to achieve. Even with the passing of their two colleagues, the staff of the *Ta Mei Wan Pao* remained firm in their attitude. The journal lost its third journalist, Cheng Cheng-chang, editor of the paper's international page, and later the paper's manager, Li Chun-ying, both murdered.

The Chinese press in Shanghai encountered difficulties after the withdrawal of the Chinese troops in November, 1937. The papers situated in the International Settlement and the French Concession were able to continue their publication, but not for long. Refusing to submit their copies for censorship by the Japanese the *Shun Pao*, *Ta Kung Pao*, *China Times*, *Min Pao*, *Sheng Chou Jih Pao*, and *Lih Pao* closed down one after another. The following year saw the publication of seven new papers, all of which were foreign-registered. The *Shun Pao* and *Sheng Chou Jih Pao* also became American concerns and resumed publication, thus dodging enemy censorship.

Efforts were vainly exerted to bribe and intimidate the pressmen. Included in the list of 83 "traitors" proscribed by the Nanking puppets, 47 were newspapermen. Beginning in August, 1939 when the first journalist was killed, terrorist activities continued until the outbreak of the Pacific War in December,

1941. Throughout the period, newspapers were literally published behind armed guards, sand-bags, and iron grills, but the spirit as enunciated by the first victim, Chu Hsin-kung, remained unrestricted.

TWO FOREIGN AWARDS

In 1941 two foreign awards were received, one by the *Ta Kung Pao* and the other by Norman Soong, former correspondent of the *New York Times* and now accredited correspondent of the Central News Agency to the U. S. Army Headquarters in China, India and Burma.

The *Ta Kung Pao* was awarded the "Medal of Honor for Distinguished Service in Journalism" by the Missouri School of Journalism during the 32nd annual Journalism Week ceremonies which took place at the school on May 15. The citation reads:

"For the excellence and thoroughness of its national and international news coverage throughout one long period in which China has faced serious internal and external problems; for the power and wide influence of its fearless and trenchant editorials; for its unusual liberal and progressive policies since its founding in 1902; for its provision, adaptability and persistence in continuing through the years of war and its long established tradition of constructive journalism; for its unchanged prestige despite financial difficulties, threats and mechanical handicaps; for its courage, ingenuity and resourcefulness in removing its press, machinery and staff against tremendous odds from Tientsin to Shanghai, to Hankow, to Chungking and to Hongkong the fortunes of war have demanded; for its spirit and determination in publishing in bomb-proof shelters and matsheds and missing only one or two issues; for its determination to maintain despite successive bombings its outstanding position as China's most respected, enlightened and best-edited Chinese newspaper; and for its career without parallel in the history of journalism in China."

Norman Soong received the U. S. Navy Expeditionary Medal in the autumn of 1941, four years after the bombing and sinking of the U.S.S. "Panay" on the Yangtze on December 12, 1937 during the evacuation of Nanking. The letter signed by Secretary of Navy, Frank Knox, which accompanied the medal, reads in part:

"I wish to express the deep appreciation of the United States Navy for the courage you displayed and the part you played during the bombing and sinking of the U.S.S. 'Panay.'"

The journalist was with the *New York Times* then, taking a series of 72 photos during and after the bombing, the series forming an exhibit in the Navy Department files as evidence.

CENTRAL NEWS AGENCY

The growth of the Chinese press in the last several years is contained in the story of the Central News Agency of China.

The Agency saw daylight in Canton in 1924. It was started by the Kuomintang Party for the dispatch of news of party activity to newspapers in various parts of the country. But it was only a news agency in name. When Nanking became the new capital of China in 1928, the Central News Agency was still a subsidiary organization of the Central Kuomintang Headquarters.

In its early days Central News was looked upon by the press in China as a propaganda institution and its services, though distributed free of charge, had difficulty in getting into print.

It was not until 1931, when Mr. T. T. Hsiao took over the Central News, that it really began to grow. Mr. Hsiao first detached it from the Central Kuomintang Headquarters, hired a staff of competent men, sent out correspondents to various parts of the country to gather news, and established a nation-wide radio network for collecting and relaying news to metropolitan and leading interior publishing centers.

Today, Central News is a full-fledged news agency whose growth is being restrained only because of wartime difficulties in obtaining imported mechanical equipment and trained personnel necessary for expansion.

From a one-room affair with a string correspondent in Shanghai, the Central News now maintains 16 domestic bureaus, war correspondents at 12 key points, and special correspondents at five border centers. In addition, Central News stations correspondents in Washington, London, Geneva, and Delhi as well as a war correspondent attached to the American Army Headquarters for China, India and Burma.

From a skeleton staff, Central News now employs nearly 700 men, serving

500 metropolitan and country dailies in Free China, 1,300 rural news publications, and 200 army newspapers, making a total of 2,000 and covering every county and divisional unit throughout Free China. These figures do not include several hundred journals in occupied territories that are known to be recording and using Central News daily newscasts regularly.

A far-cry from its infant days, Central News now serves the largest public reached by any news agency in China. This is not to say that it serves all of China's 450,000,000 people, but it reaches every newspaper reading person in China, plus those who listen to its news broadcast through various radio stations throughout the country.

A foreign correspondent wrote of Central News way back in 1936, one year before the Sino-Japanese war: "Today, it is the leading news agency in China and its services are so complete and of such high standard that no respectable native language newspaper in this country can afford to stay off its subscription list."

Through its radio circuit, Central News' head office handles on the average an out-going service of 15,000 words a day and an in-coming service of 30,000 words. By news exchange agreements, Reuters (British) releases its news services in Chinese and the United Press (American) releases its news services in Chinese and English in China through Central News.

Prior to the war, similar arrangements were made with the International News Service (American), Havas (French), and Transocean (German).

Central News was one of the victims of the Japanese invasion of China in 1937. Its Peiping bureau was the first to be closed down, followed by its Tientsin bureau. When the Chinese forces withdrew from Shanghai in November the same year, its Shanghai bureau had to be disbanded. Then followed the Nanchang bureau, the Canton bureau and the Hankow bureau. The Pacific War forced the closing down of the Central News bureaus in Hongkong and Singapore.

The head office of Central News twice was the target of Japanese air bombings—the first time in Nanking in September, 1937, and the second time in Chungking in May, 1939. Several Central News offices near the battle zones have also

been flattened by Japanese bombs. But throughout the war Central News has never suspended its service for one day.

This was made possible by the establishment of secondary radio stations in the hinterland of China. As soon as one station was disabled, another one would take its place. Like many other institutions in China, the Central News head office trekked 1,400 miles inland and finally settled down in Chungking, which has since become the news center of the country.

Considering the hazards of travel in wartime China, the lack of air defense in many parts of the country, the lack of transportation facilities, Central News has suffered comparatively little in the loss of men and equipment. Only two staff members have been killed during air-raids since the war. Much of the equipment in the Chungking head office was saved and moved up from Nanking over five years ago.

Central News in Chungking has a completely equipped underground office, enabling it to receive foreign broadcasts, edit the news, and mimeograph it without interruption during air-raids. As soon as the "all-clear" is sounded, Central News services are ready for distribution.

Central News has nine departments: Chinese, English, Reporting, News Photo, Business, Wireless, Research, Translation and Personnel. It has eight American-trained Chinese on its staff.

CHINA NEWS DISPATCHED

Between January and November in 1942, news dispatches composed of

897,429 words were sent to the U.S.S.R. and the United States by correspondents of foreign papers abroad. Those dispatched to England were relayed from America.

The outbreak of the Pacific War in December, 1941, eclipsed events in China. In January, altogether 54,869 words were sent. Only 47,401 words were filed in February which was the leanest month of the year.

Fighting in Chekiang and Kiangsi provinces pushed the China front to prominence. In June, when the hostilities kept on spreading, 122,655 words were sent, which topped all other ten months in the number of words filed in one single month. The activities of the famous air unit, American Volunteer Group, in that month also formed the topic of a number of news dispatches.

October was the second heaviest month as far as news dispatches were concerned. In that month, Wendell Willkie, President Roosevelt's personal envoy, arrived in China. His movements, activities and talks in China were recorded in minute detail. Mr. Owen Lattimore, the Generalissimo's Political Advisor, who has been granted leave to enable him to take up another post, Dr. T. V. Soong, Foreign Minister, and Dr. Wellington Koo, Ambassador to the Court of St. James, also returned to Chungking in that month, which was another reason for the increase in the number of words dispatched.

The following list shows the number of words sent in the eleven months:

1942	Moscow	San Francisco	Los Angeles	Honolulu	Total
January	10,329	12	44,417		54,758
February	6,144	1,036	40,221		47,401
March	5,671	3,222	57,271	2,183	68,347
April	6,508	3,895	53,994	1,520	65,917
May	14,045	20,615	68,605	183	103,448
June	17,740	14,181	90,734		122,655
July	13,938	12,365	83,471		109,774
August	8,148	6,862	57,775		72,785
September	7,726	4,196	51,240		63,162
October	9,748	5,682	95,952		111,382
November	11,550	3,003	63,247		77,800
TOTAL	111,547	75,069	706,927	3,886	897,429

The above list does not include a small percentage sent to London, Australia, Maymyo, Singapore and other South Sea districts when wireless communications with these districts were still possible. In consideration of greater speed and cheaper toll, messages to Europe were sent by way of America.

RADIO BROADCASTS

Press messages dispatched by wireless consisted mainly of spot news. Through arrangements made by Dr. Hollington K. Tong, Vice-Minister of Information, accredited correspondents of foreign papers are given radio broadcasting facilities for the transmission of feature articles. In 1942, 312,000 words were thus sent to foreign papers, while the correspondents of the magazine *China at War* sent a total of 208,000 words.

The arrangement was made ten days after the outbreak of the Pacific War on December 8. The service is not available for spot news but chiefly for feature items and radio round-ups, and each correspondent is entitled to use the service once weekly. The daily capacity is 1,500 words. Transmissions are mainly directed to North America, although for a time, Australian correspondents in Chungking utilized the service for the broadcasting of feature articles to Australia.

FOREIGN CORRESPONDENTS

Twenty-five correspondents and photographers of foreign news and picture services abroad were in Chungking in January, 1943, to cover China news. They were Brooks Atkinson of the *New York Times*, Frank Cancellare of Acme, Spencer Moosa and J. R. O'Sullivan of the Associated Press, Thomas Chao and Henry Bough of Reuter's, Robert P. Martin, George K. T. Wang and Karl J. Eskeland of the United Press, N. E. Protzenko, I. M. Nomerotsky, and M. F. Yakshamin of Tass News Agency, Israel Epstein of *Allied Labor News*, John Jarrell, Francis Lee and Robert Bryant of I. N. S., Arch T. Steele of *Chicago Daily News*, Ernest O. Hauser of *American Reader's Digest*, James L. Stewart of C. B. S., Guenther Stein of *Manchester Guardian*, Mrs. Margit Stein of *London News Chronicle*, Norman Soong of Overseas News Agency, J. Fischbacher of *Francaise Independent*, S. Speight of *Sydney Morning Herald*, Harrison Forman of *London Times*, H. S. "Newsreel" Wang of United News, Theodore W. White of *Time Magazine* and Father Mark

Tennien of *Field Afar*. DeWitt MacKenzie of A. P. stopped over in Chungking briefly that month.

Others who visited Chungking in 1942 were: P. Grover of A. P., H. Matthews of the *New York Times*, Soniar Tomara of the *New York Herald Tribune*, Martin Moore of the *London Daily Telegraph*, M. Subhan, Indian journalist, A. W. Tozer, 20th Century Fox, W. McGaffin of A.P., G. Waterfield of Reuter's, Edgar Snow of the *London Daily Mail*, Arthur Moore of the *Statesman*, Calcutta, F. Karaka of the *Bombay Chronicle*, W. Bosshard of *Zurich Zeitung*, A. Wagg of London Allied Newspapers, D. Wilkie of Australian Associated Newspapers, R. Clapper, news columnist, Andre Guibut, *Francaise Independent*, Eve Curie of the *New York Herald Tribune*, Betty Graham, I.N.S., L. C. Smith of Reuter's, Roderick K. MacDonald of *Sydney Morning Herald*, Colin M. McDonald of the *London Times*, Jack Belden of *Time* magazine, Charles Fenn of *Friday* magazine, A. H. Monin of Tass News Agency, Wilfred G. Burchett of the *London Daily Express*, and W. MacDougal of the United Press.

Without counting the number of foreign correspondents who came to Shanghai after the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war, about 500 journalists, authors and writers have visited interior China. Among them were many of the world's best known correspondents and writers.

FACILITIES FOR CORRESPONDENTS

Perhaps the most familiar government institution to the foreign correspondents is the International Department of the Ministry of Information, which, as a part of its functions, takes care of resident as well as visiting foreign journalists and writers.

The facilities with which the department has provided foreign correspondents range from the arrangement of travel and lodging matters to the construction of a special wireless station for the press to speed up the dispatch and delivery of news dispatches at much reduced rates. Its public relations section arranges interviews with high government officials for foreign correspondents and if necessary provides interpreters to accompany correspondents during interviews or travels in interior China.

Side by side with the department is the Press Hostel wherein are located

offices of foreign news agencies and journals. First built in July, 1939, the hostel has expanded to a capacity of 33 rooms besides kitchen, dining room, bath rooms and servants' quarters. The kitchen and dining room are in the charge of a mess committee of three members nominated by hostel residents.

Its construction financed by Dr. H. H. Kung, Vice-President of the Executive Yuan and Finance Minister, the Hostel was damaged many times during enemy raids. In July, 1941, the hostel's annex, main building, dining room and servants' quarters received direct hits which rendered it uninhabitable until September the same year when repairs were completed. They were the only months when the press hostel was vacated although enemy raiders had concentrated their attacks on the spot, and bombs rained in and around the compound.

Following the completion of a new building in October, 1942, the surroundings of the hostel have been further improved by the creation of a garden in memory of the late *Time* and N.B.C. correspondent Melville Jacoby whose tragic death in a plane accident in Australia in April, 1942, was widely mourned by his numerous friends in Chungking. The \$18,000 fund for the garden was given by his mother and his widow, nee Annalee Whitmore.

The hall of the International Department has been the scene of press conferences at which important government officials have presided. The same hall has been the venue of social functions in which correspondents take part. At the end of 1942 the hostel residents and the department staff jointly put on a New Year's Eve program of games, stage play and movies. The "Murder in the Press Hostel," a skit written and presented by foreign correspondents, drew rounds of applause and laughter. Mr. and Mrs. Spencer Moosa, Arch T. Steele, Ernest O. Hauser, Henry Bough, Mr. and Mrs. Karl J. Eskeland, Israel Epstein, S. Speight, and Harrison Forman were among those who took part in the play.

Affiliated or working in close co-operation with the department are several organizations including the China Information Committee which publishes daily bulletins and other things containing informative matters. The Committee sends men to cover important events both at the front and in the rear.

Thomas Kwang Studio portrays present-day China with films and pictures. The services of both the committee and the studio are within easy reach of the correspondents.

The department maintains offices in the United States, London, Australia, and India.

One of the contributions of the department to the press is the completion of a wireless station exclusively for press messages. Foreign correspondents need no longer send messengers any great distance to file their dispatches. Their messages are sent directly to Los Angeles a few steps from the Press Hostel.

Built by Li En-tze, former chief engineer of the department, and with the machinery carefully concealed in a dug-out, the new station was inaugurated on May 18, 1942. The inaugural messages to Dr. Hu Shih, then Ambassador to Washington, and Colonel William J. Donovan, former Coordinator of Information, at Washington, were acknowledged within eight minutes of their dispatch from Chungking.

The station opens an entirely new route of wireless communication with North America, thereby reducing to nil any question of delay or congestion. Through negotiations conducted by the Ministry of Communications with foreign concerns, press telegrams rates have been reduced.

The International Department functions under the personal supervision of Vice-Minister of Information Hollington K. Tong, Missouri trained journalist. H. P. Tseng, writer and journalist, is the director of the department. Maurice E. Votaw, also Missouri trained, is advisor to the department.

PRESS CENSORSHIP

China's press censorship system in wartime was touched upon by the *Ta Kung Pao*, an independent journal in Chungking, in an editorial on November 22, 1942, the day the British Parliamentary Mission inspected its premises. The editorial served as a self-introduction, in which China as a democratic nation, the freedom of speech, and the attitude of the paper toward national and social affairs were discussed.

On the question of censorship, the journal said: "If you ask whether or not the *Ta Kung Pao* enjoys the freedom of speech, our answer is yes,

because the freedom of speech is guaranteed by law. The nation is passing through a period of emergency, but still criticisms on general politics have not been forbidden by law during these years. While there has been a press censorship system during wartime, what the Government forbids to publish during this period is only limited to views prejudicial to the prosecution of the war. The *Ta Kung Pao* has persistently refrained from expressing opinions of this nature and has therefore conformed with the Government's press censorship principles. But if incidentally our opinions or reports do not conform with the viewpoints of the censors, and if we believe we are not in error, then we would still publish them, and the Government too would understand and let it go by.

"During the war, our opinions and reports go through censorship, but not only what we want to express is a matter of our own, but also our opinions and viewpoints do not necessarily conform with those of the Government. We are free to criticize any person and any matter. For an example, if we should find a serious fault in Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek who commands the confidence of the whole nation, we would not at all consider it our duty to defend him. On the contrary, we would severely criticize him just as the British press could criticize Prime Minister Churchill and the American Press President Roosevelt"

Chapter Four of the revised *Publication Law* broadly outlines the kinds of news items that should be suppressed. According to the articles, no publication shall carry any speeches or propaganda calculated to undermine the Kuomintang or violate the Three People's Principles, to overthrow the National Government and damage the interests of the Chinese Republic, or to disturb public order, or carry anything affecting good morals and customs, or discussion of a court case *sub judice*. Article XXIV of the Law, which is listed under the chapter, reads:

"In war, emergency, or time of necessity under special circumstances, publications shall be forbidden or restricted, in accordance with the orders the National Government may then issue, to carry items dealing with politics, military and foreign affairs, or district peace and order."

On December 11, 1939, the standard for wartime news censorship was revised with the approval of the National Military Council. The standard consisted of five chapters of 55 articles dealing with the suppression of reports prejudicial to national defense, the Kuomintang and National Government, China's foreign relations, national finance and economics, and reports liable to disturb peace and order, or affect war efforts or good social morals. A further revision was recommended by censors in December, 1942. The standard as a result of the revision becomes more detailed and easier for the censors to follow, but the general principles have by no means been changed.

Press censorship is carried out by the Wartime Press Censorship Bureau under the National Military Council, which appoints censors to various places in Free China. Foreign press dispatches are censored by the International Department of the Ministry of Information. Under orders of the Council, a public relations officer was appointed by the department to the Chinese Expeditionary Force to Burma in March, 1942.

PRESS LAWS

The first press law published in 1914 was rescinded in 1916. On December 16, 1930, the present *Publications Law* was promulgated by the National Government. The Ministry of Interior and the Ministry of Information, which functions under the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang, drafted regulations governing the application of the law the following year, and these regulations were enforced on October 7, 1931. The revised *Publications Law* (see Appendix) was promulgated on July 8, 1937, and the revised regulations governing its application came into force on July 28 the same year.

The regulations governing the application of the *Publications Law* fix the capitals of newspapers and news agencies published at different localities. The amounts range from \$500 to more than \$10,000 for newspapers, and \$100 to over \$3,000 for news agencies. If newspapers are published at places not specified in these regulations, then the local authorities are to fix their capital.

The qualifications of a newspaper publisher are fixed by the regulations as follows: (1) Certified graduate of a

university or a technical college recognized by the Ministry of Education; (2) Graduate of a high middle school recognized by the Ministry of Education who at the same time has been in the newspaper profession for more than three years and is in possession of a certificate to this effect; (3) One who has served in a press administrative organization for more than three years and is possessed of a certificate to this effect; (4) One who has been in the newspaper profession for more than five years with adequate verification.

According to Article IX of the *Publications Law*, the publisher of a newspaper or a periodical shall, prior to its circulation for the first time, apply for registration with the proper authorities. The number of newspapers which registered with the Ministry of Interior in 1942 was 231, that of news agencies, 19, and that of periodicals, 344. The distribution of newspapers, news agencies, and periodicals follows:

Provinces, etc.	News- papers	News Agen- cies	Periodicals	Total
Szechwan	7	0	2	9
Hunan	22	1	13	36
Kwangtung	25	3	34	62
Fukien	9	3	3	15
Honan	9	2	7	18
Chekiang	8	0	4	12
Kiangsu	2	1	0	3
Kiangsi	18	4	17	39
Hupei	17	1	1	19
Kwangsi	15	1	35	51
Yunnan	0	0	2	2
Kweichow	4	1	6	11
Shensi	3	0	7	10
Kansu	2	1	1	4
Chinghai	0	0	1	1
Shansi	2	0	0	2
Shantung	0	0	1	1
Suiyuan	1	0	4	5
Sikang	2	0	0	2
Anhui	10	0	4	14
Chungking	4	0	56	60
Army	71	1	146	218
TOTAL	231	19	344	594

It must be noted that figures of registration do not represent the actual number of newspapers or periodicals in circulation and news agencies in operation that year.

JOURNALISTS' DAY

On September, 1, 1933, the Executive Yuan ordered the Ministry of Interior and Ministry of Military Affairs to give adequate protection to pressmen. Two years later, the press in China proclaimed the day as Journalists' Day, and henceforth every year that day is celebrated by the Chinese press.

The day in 1942 was chosen by the Chinese National Press Association to hold its first annual meeting, although the association was established on March 16, 1941. In their leading articles that day, the press in Chungking expressed gratification at the solicitude shown by the Government to the pressmen, while the newspapermen were urged to live up to the highest ideals of the profession.

The annual meeting dug deep into the questions of newspapermen's qualifications and the profession's code of ethics. The Government was requested to form a journalists' union which will enable the pressmen to participate in the election of members for the forthcoming People's Congress.

Inspired by the stirring examples set by the journalists in Shanghai and other enemy controlled areas, the gathering unanimously stressed the importance of upholding the tradition.

The association aims at raising the professional standard of Chinese journalism and the improvement of Chinese newspaper enterprises. Article V of the association's regulations defines the qualification of membership as follows:

"Anyone who has been in the newspaper profession for more than two years, or has studied journalism in school above the grade of technical colleges and is interested in both journalistic enterprises and journalism, believes in the Three People's Principles, and supports the association's purpose may become a member after having been recommended to the association jointly by more than three members and the recommendation passed at general meeting or by the board of directors."

NEWSPAPERMEN'S LAW

The freedom of speech is further guaranteed by the National Government in the *Newspapermen's Law* passed by the Legislative Yuan at a meeting held on January 30, 1943. The article in question reads: "Within the boundary

permissible by law, newspapermen are free to express their opinions."

The law contains 31 articles. The procedure governing the issuance of newspapermen's certificates is defined in Articles I to VI. The remaining articles concern newspapermen's unions, the duties of newspapermen and fines.

Publishers, writers, editors, and reporters of daily newspapers or news agencies, and those in charge of circulation and advertisements are called newspapermen. The qualifications of a newspaperman are defined as follows:

"Anyone who has graduated from a school of journalism or a journalism institute; or graduated from literature, education, social science, political science, economics, or law courses in a university or technical college; anyone who has been a professor of literature or education in a university or technical college for more than a year; anyone who has graduated from a senior middle school and who has been in the newspaper profession for more than two years; or anyone who has been in the newspaper profession for more than three years."

Membership in newspapermen's unions is limited to certified newspapermen serving in the profession. Newspapermen's unions are divided into city, *hsien*, provincial, and national associated unions.

A member who is found guilty of serious irregularities in the execution of his duties or in his morals, is expelled from the union. Expulsion charges must be considered only at a general meeting attended by two-thirds of the total members. He is expelled if three-fourths of those in attendance vote against him.

PUBLICATIONS LAW

CHAPTER ONE: GENERAL PROVISIONS

Article I.—Any book, piece of writing and picture printed by mechanical or chemical process and sold or distributed is considered a publication by this Law.

Article II.—Publications are classified as follows;

- (1) Newspapers: Bearing a fixed name and published daily or at an interval of less than six days;
- (2) Periodicals: Bearing a fixed name and published weekly or at an interval of less than three months. If they contain principally items of current events, they shall be regarded as newspapers.

- (3) Books and other publications: Everything belonging to neither of the above two classes.

Extra and special editions and supplements of a newspaper or a periodical are regarded as newspapers or periodicals.

Article III.—Any person in charge of a publication is considered a publisher by this Law.

Article IV.—The author of a book or piece of writing and the illustrator of a picture is considered an author by this Law.

One who records another person's narrative in a publication or asks another to have the recorded narrative published is regarded as an author, but the narrator who acknowledges the narrative shall bear the same responsibility as an author.

The editor or compiler of a piece or pieces of writing is regarded as an author, but the original author who acknowledges the piece or pieces of writing shall bear the same responsibility as an author.

The translator of any piece of writing is regarded as an author.

The representative of a school, company, society or an organization under the name of which a piece of writing is published is the author of that piece of writing.

The client who inserts an advertisement in a newspaper is an author, but if the client is unknown or is incapable of assuming responsibilities in the event of civil disputes, then the publisher becomes the author.

Article V.—One who is in charge of the editing of a newspaper or periodical is called an editor by this Law.

Article VI.—One who is in charge of printing matters is called a printer by this Law.

Article VII.—The responsible district administration mentioned in this Law is the *hsien* government or municipality in a province, or the bureau of social affairs of a city government in a city which comes directly under the Executive Yuan.

Article VIII.—The publisher shall submit a copy to each of the following organizations of any publication at the time of its circulation;

- (1) Ministry of Interior;
- (2) Ministry of Information;
- (3) Responsible district administration.
- (4) National library and the library of the Legislative Yuan.

Revised and corrected copies of an original publication shall also be submitted accordingly.

Publications by Kuomintang or government offices shall be sent to the first two organizations.

CHAPTER TWO

NEWSPAPERS AND PERIODICALS

Article IX. The publisher of a newspaper or a periodical shall, prior to its circulation for the first time, apply for registration with the responsible district administration and the application shall be forwarded within fifteen days to the provincial government or the city government which comes directly under the Executive Yuan for the necessary approval for the circulation of the publication. Unless special circumstances exist, the provincial government or the city government shall decide on the application within 28 days and in turn request the Ministry of Interior for a registration card.

After the issuance of a registration card, the Ministry of Interior shall send a copy of the application form to the Ministry of Information. The information to be given in an application form shall include ;

- (1) Name of newspaper or magazine,
- (2) Organization of the publishing concern
- (3) Capital and financial condition,
- (4) Period of publication (In case of a newspaper, number of pages.)
- (5) Names and addresses of the publishing concern and printing plant,
- (6) Names, ages, experience and addresses of the publisher and editor.

Article X.—In the event of a change in information given in an application form in accordance with Article IX, the publisher shall within seven days after the change ask for a change in registration by the same procedure as that of applying for registration.

If the change involves a change in publisher and in the name of a newspaper or periodical, then the original registration card shall be submitted while applying for new registration in accordance with the specifications of Article IX.

Article XI.—No fee shall be charged for the registration specified in Article IX and Article X.

Article XII.—If necessary, the responsible district administration may investigate the organization, circulation and business condition of any concern in the newspaper field whose business is limited to the circulation of news reports.

Article XIII.—Those within one of the following categories shall not be publishers or editors of a newspaper or periodical ;

- (1) Those who have no domicile in the country ;
- (2) Those who are not permitted to have property ;

- (3) Those who are serving a prison term or serving a sentence of detention of more than one month ;
- (4) Those who have been deprived of their civil rights.

Article XIV.—Those falling into one of the following categories cannot continue as publishers or editors of a newspaper or periodical ;

- (1) Those who are sentenced in the criminal branch of the court on charges of violating the specifications of Article XXI.
- (2) Those who are sentenced in the criminal branch of the court on charges of corruption and extortion.

Article XV.—The publisher, on the suspension of publication of a newspaper or periodical, shall ask for the cancellation of registration by the same procedure as that of applying for registration. A newspaper which is fully three months behind the scheduled date of publication and a periodical which is fully six months behind the scheduled date of publication shall be regarded as having given up the right of publication.

Article XVI.—A newspaper or a periodical shall always print the name of the publisher, the number of the registration card, the date of publication, and the names and addresses of the publishing concern and printing plant.

Article XVII.—Any request for a correction or for the publication of a contention of anything published in a newspaper or periodical made by the person involved or the person directly concerned shall be published within three days after its receipt in the case of a daily, and in the case of other newspapers and periodicals it shall be published before the second issue after its receipt. This article does not apply to the following cases : If the contents of a correction or contention are contrary to law, or if the request bears no name or address of the sender, or if the request is made more than six months after publication.

The position to be given to a correction or contention shall be equal in importance with that in which the original item is published.

CHAPTER THREE: BOOKS AND OTHER PUBLICATIONS

Article XVIII.—Books and other publications shall carry on the last page the names and addresses of the author and publisher, the date of publication, and the names and addresses of the publishing concern and printing plant.

Article XIX.—The specifications of Article XVIII shall not apply to notices, regulations, business reports, catalogues, handbills, advertisements, programs, all kinds of forms, certificates, bonds and photographs.

Article XX.—Handbills or slogans dealing with politics shall not be printed or distributed without the approval of the responsible district administration.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESTRICTIONS ON CONTENTS OF PUBLICATIONS

Article XXI.—No publication shall carry any speeches or propaganda ;

- (1) Calculated to undermine the Kuomintang or violate the Three People's Principles.
- (2) Calculated to overthrow the National Government and damage the interests of the Chinese Republic.
- (3) Calculated to disturb public order.

Article XXII.—No publication shall carry anything affecting good morals and customs.

Article XXIII.—No publication shall carry discussion of a court case *sub judice*.

Article XXIV.—In war, emergency or time of necessity under special circumstances, publications shall be forbidden or restricted, in accordance with the orders the National Government may then issue, to carry items dealing with politics, military and foreign affairs or district peace and order.

Article XXV.—The above four articles shall apply also to anything inserted in publications in the form of advertisements, etc.

CHAPTER FIVE: PUNISHMENT

Article XXVI.—Any newspaper or periodical, issued without first applying for registration in accordance with Article IX or making inaccurate entries in the application form shall be stopped from circulating.

Any newspaper or periodical, failing to make necessary changes in its application in accordance with Article X, shall be suspended until the required change in registration is applied for by proper procedure.

Article XXVII.—The punishment mentioned in Article XXVI shall be carried out by the *hsien* government or municipality with due approval of the provincial government if the newspaper or periodical is published at the seat of a *hsien* government or municipality, but if the newspaper or periodical is published at the seat of a provincial government or a city government (directly under the Executive Yuan), then the punishment shall be carried out by the provincial government or the city government with the approval of the Ministry of Interior. Punishment carried out with the approval of the provincial government shall be reported to the Ministry of Interior for record.

Article XXVIII.—If a publication is found by the Ministry of Interior to be carrying one

of the items prohibited under Article XXI or to be violating the specifications of Article XXIV, the Ministry shall point out the offense and prohibit the sales and circulation of the publication and if necessary seize the copies. At the request of the publisher, the detained copies shall be returned after the item in question is deleted or the ban specified in Article XXIV is lifted.

If the offense of the first kind is not of a serious nature, then the responsible district administration, with the approval of the provincial government or the city government, may warn the publication, and the provincial government or city government shall in turn report the matter to the Ministry of Interior.

Article XXIX.—If a publication is found by responsible district administration to be carrying one of the items prohibited under Article XXI, the administration shall, if necessary, suspend the sales and circulation of the publication or temporarily seize the copies, and at the same time the approval of the Ministry of Interior shall be asked through the provincial government or the city government (directly under the Executive Yuan).

Article XXX.—If the publication is a newspaper or a periodical, and is issued at the seat of a *hsien* government or municipality, then the punishment specified in Article XXIV shall be reported by the *hsien* government or the municipality to the provincial government for approval. If it is issued at the seat of a provincial government or city government (directly under the Executive Yuan) then the punishment shall be reported by the provincial government or the city government to the Ministry of Interior for approval.

Article XXXI.—The Ministry of Interior shall ban the entry of any publication issued in foreign countries, if that publication falls within the category as listed in the first section of Article XXVIII or the first section of Article XXXIV.

The provincial government or the city government shall seize the publication at the time of its entry if the publication is banned in accordance with the above specification.

Article XXXII.—The Ministry of Interior shall suspend for a certain period or permanently any newspaper or periodical if the offense of the newspaper or periodical against the specification of the first section of Article XXVIII is of a serious nature. The responsible district administration shall seize any publication circulated contrary to a suspension order.

Article XXXIII.—If necessary, the original type forms of books and other publications detained may be seized.

The second part of Article XXVIII shall apply to cases of seizure of original type forms.

Article XXXIV.—Whereas any publication violating the Criminal Code shall be dealt with in accordance with law, the Ministry of Interior or the responsible district administration, with the approval of the Ministry, shall prohibit the sales and circulation, and if necessary, seize the copies when the contents of a publication are found to violate seriously the specifications of Article XXII.

If the offending publication is a newspaper or a periodical, its publication may be suspended for a certain period.

Article XXXV.—Any publisher failing to submit copies of publications in accordance with the first or the second section of Article VIII shall be fined a sum of not more than \$30.

Article XXXVI.—Any publisher issuing a newspaper or periodical without first applying for registration in accordance with the specifications of Article IX or Article X shall be fined a sum of not more than \$100.

Article XXXVII.—Any person publishing or editing a newspaper or periodical but falling within the categories listed under Article XIII or Article XIV shall be fined a sum of not more than \$100.

Article XXXVIII.—Any publisher violating the specification of the first section of Article XV shall be fined a sum of not more than \$1,000.

Article XXXIX.—The publisher of any publication failing to give the information required by Article XVI or Article XVIII or giving inaccurate information shall be fined a sum of not more than \$100.

Article XL.—Any editor violating the specifications of Article XVII shall be fined a sum of not more than \$100.

Article XLI.—A higher government organization, petitioned to by a newspaper concern against any punishment listed in this chapter, shall arrive at a decision within ten days after the receipt of the petition.

CHAPTER SIX: FINES

Article XLII.—The publisher or printer found violating the specifications of Article XX shall be fined a sum of not more than \$100.

Article XLIII.—The publisher, editor, author and printer, found violating the specifications of Article XXI, shall be sentenced to prison terms of not more than one year or a fine of not more than \$1,000. If a heavier sentence is specified in other laws, the other laws shall apply.

Article XLIV.—Any editor or author found violating the specifications of Article XXII or XXIII shall be sentenced to detention or to a fine of not more than \$300.

Article XLV.—The publisher, editor, author, and printer, found violating the ban or restriction specified in Article XXIV shall be sentenced to prison terms of not more than one year or a fine of not more than \$1,000.

Article XLVI.—The sentences specified in Article XLIII and Article XLV involving the part of author shall apply only to the author who signs his name to the published item if the publication is a newspaper or a periodical.

Article XLVII.—The circulation of a newspaper or a periodical contrary to the suspension order specified in Article XXVI shall subject the offender to a fine of not more than \$200.

Article XLVIII.—Obstruction to the execution of an order to seize copies of a publication as specified in Article XXIX shall subject the offender to a fine of not more than \$200.

Article XLIX.—A publisher found violating the suspension order coming within the scope of the first section of Article XXVIII shall be sentenced to a prison term of not more than one year or a detention sentence or to a fine of not more than \$1,000. The selling or circulating of a publication knowing that the publication has been suspended under the first section of Article XXVIII, shall bring a prison term of not more than six months or a detention sentence or a fine of not more than \$500 to the offender.

This ruling shall apply to a case in which the publication banned under the first section of Article XXXI is imported and sold or circulated, or it is imported and sold, or circulated with the knowledge that it is banned under the first section of Article XXXI.

Article L.—Obstruction to the execution of seizure orders specified in the first section of Article XXVIII, the second section of Article section XXXI, the second of Article XXXII and Article XXXIII shall bring a sentence of not more than six months, or a detention sentence or a fine of not more than \$500 to the offender.

Article LI.—Any publisher found violating the ban imposed under the first section of Article XXXII shall be sentenced to a prison term of not more than one year, to a detention sentence or to a fine of not more than \$1,000. The selling or circulating of any newspaper or periodical, knowing that it is banned under the first section of Article XXXII, shall bring a prison term of not more than six months, a detention sentence or a fine of not more than \$500 to the offender.

Article LII.—The right to impose punishment and fines for violations outlined in this Law shall be lost on account of lapse of time if not executed within one year. With reference to Article XLIII and Article XLV, the year period in which the right is valid shall be counted from the date of publication.

CHAPTER SEVEN: APPENDIX

Article LIII.—The detailed regulations for the enforcement of this Law shall be decided by the Ministry of Interior.

Article LIV.—This Law shall be enforced on the date of promulgation.

CHAPTER XIX

RELIEF ACTIVITIES

Resistance and reconstruction do not categorically describe the activities of China at war. In parallel to this two-fold program is her dual task of relief and rehabilitation. For the relief and rehabilitation of the millions of civilian refugees and wounded soldiers, numerous government, civic, religious and humanitarian bodies have been organized.

NATIONAL RELIEF COMMISSION

First and foremost is the National Relief Commission, pivot of China's machinery for relief and rehabilitation. A review of the Commission's work will give a general idea of the progress made in war relief in the country as a whole inasmuch as most other organizations in the field receive financial assistance from the Commission and their activities are under its supervision. The Commission's six years' work also reflects in part the story of China's six years' resistance against Japan—whole-sale privations and suffering, misfortunes relieved and lost hopes regained. Thanks to the efforts of the Commission and its affiliated organizations, a great number of the war-stricken refugees, war orphans and air-raid sufferers have found succor, anchorage and means to stand on their feet in refugee camps and orphanages, in factories and land-reclamation colonies.

The immensity of the Commission's task is shown in the sums of money spent and number of persons given aid to. Relief funds appropriated during the past five and a half years totalled \$214,217,968 benefitting more than 40,000,000 refugees suffering from war or famine. Of the funds appropriated, \$75,985,462 was spent during the period April, 1938 to December, 1940 ;

\$56,820,067 in 1941 and approximately \$81,412,439 during the period January-October, 1942. Of the relief beneficiaries, 25,684,022 were aided by the Commission and its affiliated organizations during the period April, 1938 to December, 1940 ; 1,074,220 in 1941 and more than 4,000,000 during the period January-October, 1942. In addition, 9,236,697 persons were aided by provincial and municipal commissions during the past five and a half years.

The Commission had as its predecessors the National Emergency Relief Committee of the Executive Yuan, organized in September, 1937, and the Central Relief Commission which was already in existence. These two organizations were amalgamated and renamed the National Relief Commission on April 27, 1938, with Dr. H. H. Kung, vice-president of the Executive Yuan and Minister of Finance, as chairman ; Mr. Hsu Shih-ying, former Chinese ambassador to Japan, as acting chairman ; and Mr. Chu Ying-kwang, veteran relief worker, as vice-chairman.

NETWORK OF RELIEF ORGANIZATIONS

The Commission, proceeded with the establishment of a network of relief organizations throughout the country. These include provincial, municipal and district commissions, sections, general stations and joint offices for emergency air-raid relief. In the different provinces, there had been, prior to the inauguration of the National Relief Commission, provincial branches of the Central Relief Commission and the National Emergency Relief Committee. These were dissolved and in their place there was organized in each province a Provincial Relief Commission headed by the chairman of the provincial government. Municipal relief commissions were set up in Shanghai, Nanking, Hongkong, Macao and

Chungking. The numbers of refugees under the care of provincial and municipal commissions up to the end of 1940 are shown in the following table:

Provinces & Municipalities	No. of Refugees Helped		TOTAL
	Oct. 1937-Dec. 1939	Jan.-Dec. 7, 1940	
Kiangsu	1,081,150	2,000	1,083,150
Chekiang	573,468	2,903	576,371
Anhwei	531,482	99,276	630,758
Kiangsi	535,905	192,145	728,050
Hupei	482,947	742,000	1,224,947
Hunan	462,184	157,881	620,065
Szechwan	119,038	12,718	131,756
Kwangtung	97,855	84,467	182,322
Kwangsi	16,000	31,765	47,765
Fukien	174,249	7,047	181,296
Yunnan	660	2,297	2,957
Kweichow	11,700	3,743	15,443
Hopei	135,136	unreported	135,136
Shantung	260,000	96,583	356,583
Honan	600,707	255,748	856,455
Shansi	271,000	unreported	271,000
Shensi	330,599	38,337	368,936
Kansu	8,252	unreported	8,252
Suiyuan	10,000	unreported	10,000
Chungking	unreported	260	260
Hongkong and Macao	580	14,168	14,748
Shanghai	421,500	unreported	421,500
Nanking	580,000	unreported	580,000
TOTAL	6,704,412	1,743,338	8,447,750

The war zones from which refugees were rescued and transported to the rear were divided into sections. At first ten field sections were established. The

numbers of refugees under the care of the ten sections during the period June, 1938 to December, 1940 are shown in the following table:

Sections	No. of Refugees Helped		TOTAL
	June, 1938-Dec. 1939	Jan.-Dec. 1940	
First Section	2,084,363	50,211	2,134,574
Second Section	unreported	99,183	99,183
Third Section	678,734	184,980	863,714
Fourth Section	160,821	unreported	160,821
Fifth Section	595,471	254,201	849,672
Sixth Section	564,652	31,216	595,868
Seventh Section	609,076	225	609,301
Eighth Section	1,661,941	145,374	1,807,315
Ninth Section	unreported	72,494	72,494
Tenth Section	unreported	unreported	unreported
TOTAL	6,355,058	837,884	7,192,942

By the end of 1940, they had been reduced to the following six sections:

Sections	Sphere of Activities
First Section	Nanking, Shanghai, Hangchow, Kashing, Huchow and northern Kiangsu
Second Section	Entire province of Shantung
Third Section	Entire province of Anhwei, Chekiang-Kiangsu border, eastern and western Chekinag, eastern Hupeh and northern Kiangsi
Fifth Section	Shensi, Honan and Shensi provinces and northern Hupeh
Ninth Section	Kwangtung, Kwangsi and Fukien provinces and Hongkong and Macao
Tenth Section	Western, central and southern Hupeh and western Hunan.

To help refugees in transit, the Commission set up a string of general stations, linked every 30 kilometers by sub-stations and every 15 kilometers by rest houses. Places where such general stations were established during the early stages of the war included Hankow, Wuchang, Ichang, Shasi, Siangyang and Itu in Hupeh province;

Hengyang and Changsha in Hunan province; Chuanchow, Chuchow, Kweilin, Wuchow, Tientung and Nanning in Kwangsi province; Nanchang in Kiangsi province; Sinyang, H s u c h a n g , Chengchow, Loyang, Shangcheng and Nanyang in Honan province; Chungking, Wanhsien and Chengtu in Szechwan province; Kweiyang in Kweichow province; Kinhwa, Yungchia (Wenchow) and Ningpo in Chekiang province; Tienshui in Kansu province; Tungkwan, Sian, Hanchung, Paoki and Suiteh in Shensi province; Kunming in Yunnan province; Tunsu in Anhwei province; Huiyang in Kwangtung province and Kienyang in Fukien province.

By the end of 1940 ten general stations were still in existence: The Heng-Chu-Shao (Hengyang and Shaoyang in Hunan and Chuchow in Kwangsi), I-Sha (Ichang and Shasi in Hupeh), Lo-Tung (Loyang in Honan and Tungkwan in Shensi), Hsu-Nan (Hsuehchang and Nanyang in Honan), Kin-Chin-Yung (Kinhwa, Yungchia and Ningpo in Chekiang), Chang-Yuan (Changsha and Yuanling in Hunan) and Si-Pao (Sian and Paoki in Shensi). The three stations at Nanning, Huiyang and Siangyang remained.

The numbers of refugees helped by the general stations during the period July 8, 1938 to December 7, 1940 are shown in the following table:

General Stations	No. of Refugees Helped		TOTAL
	July 8, 1938- Dec. 1939	Jan.-Dec. 7, 1940	
Chungking	11,665	2,659	14,324
Wanhsien	22,690	8,779	31,469
Chengtu	1,348	446	1,794
Ichang-Shasi	25,685	11,351	37,036
Siangyang	21,435	3,245	24,680
Nanchang	302,961	252,878	555,839
Kinhwa-Wenchow	48,595	3,523	52,118
Changsha-Yuanling	204,612	9,425	214,037
Hengyang-Chuchow-Shaoyang	120,898	3,711	124,609
Kweilin	42,787	13,204	55,991
Nanning	2,024	31,751	33,775
Sian-Paoki	14,834	90	14,924
Hanchung	8,310	989	9,299
Hsuehchang	270,212	37,464	307,676
Loyang-Tungkwan	128,534	85,658	214,192
Kweiyang	12,208	7,533	19,741
Kunming	204	5	209
Ningpo	unreported	1,986	1,986
Tunsu	unreported	unreported	unreported
Kienyang	unreported	unreported	unreported
Huiyang	unreported	unreported	unreported
TOTAL	1,239,002	474,697	1,713,699

The above table does not include 82,592 refugees aided by the general stations at Wuchang, Hankow, Sinyang, Shangcheng and Chengchow.

AIR-RAID RELIEF

The first Joint Office for Emergency Air Raid Relief was organized in Chungking on January 19, 1939, four days after the first bombing of Chungking by Japanese air-raiders. Mr. Hsu Shih-ying, acting chairman of the National Relief Commission, was concurrently chairman of the joint office in which all local Party, government and military organizations were represented. A special medical relief committee was organized which had under its direction numerous rescue and first-aid and stretcher-bearing corps. Receiving stations for air-raid victims were set up in the downtown and outlying districts of the city, while local hospitals, both Chinese and foreign, helped in treating the air-raid wounded. The Emergency Air Raid Service Corps, in which thousands of able-bodied citizens were mobilized, was also organized.

The Chungking Joint Office for Emergency Air Raid Relief and the numerous A.R.P. units under its direction had their hands full during the years 1939 and 1940 when the capital had a total of 162 air raids. Among the worst bombing days were May 3 and

May 4, 1939 and August, 19 and 20, 1940.

Afflicted families were paid \$30 for each family member killed while those wounded were paid \$20 or \$10 each, varying according to the condition of wounds, besides being sent to temporary hospitals for dressing or treatment. A total of \$77,855 was distributed to air-raid victims in this connection. Other sums appropriated included \$714,680 for emergency relief and \$297,150 for the evacuation of superfluous residents. Aid was also rendered to those affected by air raids in the form of small credit loans totalling \$129,800. It was estimated that 4,913 air raid wounded were treated in temporary hospitals, 1,469 corpses buried, 7,347 residents evacuated and 6,341 received into camps.

Up to the end of 1940, 352 joint offices for emergency air raid relief were set up in the fifteen provinces of Chekiang, Anhwei, Kiangsi, Hupeh, Hunan, Szechwan, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Fukien, Yunnan, Honan, Shensi, Kansu, Sikang and Suiyuan. The total air-raid casualties, including Chungking, were estimated at 169,634. Funds appropriated during the period April, 1938 to December, 1940 totalled \$4,923,012. Air-raid casualties handled by the Joint Office for Emergency Air Raid Relief are shown in the following table:

Provinces & Municipalities	April, 1938 to December, 1939				January-December, 1940			TOTAL	TOTAL
	Slightly Wounded	Severely Wounded	Fatalities	TOTAL	Slightly Wounded	Severely Wounded	Fatalities		
Chekiang	2,121	2,630	3,399	8,150	562	1,391	1,397	3,440	11,590
Anhwei	2,792	3,425	4,243	10,460	319	423	579	1,321	11,781
Kiangsi	2,902	4,362	5,434	12,698	828	1,137	1,218	3,183	15,881
Hupeh	3,135	3,850	4,748	11,733	874	2,509	3,977	7,360	19,093
Hunan	1,907	6,098	2,037	10,042	588	940	1,192	2,720	12,762
Fukien	667	152	811	1,630	173	386	970	1,529	3,159
Szechwan	2,457	1,497	4,418	8,372	957	4,042	387	5,386	13,758
Kwangtung	1,122	1,783	2,230	5,135	81	315	165	561	5,696
Kwangsi	784	589	1,374	2,747	958	220	431	1,609	4,356
Honan	1,344	1,718	3,747	6,809	726	1,004	1,362	3,092	9,901
Shensi	410	1,186	2,024	3,570	170	1,087	1,491	2,748	6,318
Shansi	105	346	233	684	96	104	206	406	1,090
Shantung	855	158	177	1,190	19	144	214	377	1,567
Kansu	87	682	721	1,490					1,490
Yunnan	127	287	509	923	475	558	709	1,742	2,665
Kweichow	533	172	564	1,269	18	49	59	126	1,395
Ningsia	63	150	170	383					383
Suiyuan	2	2	44	48	60	60	37	157	205
Chungking	991	81	2,937	4,739	661	1,044	1,819	3,024	7,763
TOTAL	22,404	29,848	39,820	92,072	7,655	15,413	15,713	38,781	130,853

Refugees in camps are apt to become depressed and demoralized. To keep up their morale, the National Relief Commission, in cooperation with the Board of Political Training and War-Area

Party and Political Affairs Commission of the National Military Council, initiated the organization of Refugees' Organization and Training Committees in the various provinces and relief centers. By

the end of 1940, 17 such committees had been established in Chekiang, Szechwan, Yunnan, Kweichow, western, southern and central Hunan, southern Kiangsi, northern Shensi and Chungking, Kweilin and Wanh sien.

Refugee relief work in areas immediately behind the front was handled by the different sections and stations concerned. Besides, special representatives were sent from time to time to the war zones and were stationed in the political training department of the military headquarters of the different war areas to direct relief work. For the relief of people in guerilla districts and behind the enemy lines in North China, Honan, Shantung Shansi, and Chahar as well as in the Japanese-occupied cities of Nanking and Shanghai, the help of foreign missionaries and other groups was enlisted. Funds appropriated in this connection totalled \$260,000 in 1938, \$132,973 in 1939 and \$579,000 in 1940, aggregating \$971,973.

Special attention was paid to such particular groups of refugees as students, skilled laborers and technicians, able-bodied citizens, seamen, fishermen, overseas Chinese, Mohammedans and north-easterners. After the withdrawal of Chinese forces from Shanghai and Nanking, large numbers of students in Kiangsu province evacuated to Hankow and were in need of urgent relief. The Kiangsu Provincial Guild in Hankow organized a special committee for the relief of these war-stricken students. Among other things, it established a factory-school where these young wanderers could work and at the same time continue their studies. For this work, the Commission made a grant of \$200,000. Later the committee was removed first to Changsha and finally to Chungking and in 1940 its factory was placed under the direct control and management of the Commission. In addition, the Commission appropriated \$100,000 to the Ministry of Education for the relief of students from war zones. A training school for students from Shanghai was established in conjunction with the *San Min Chu I* Youth Corps, for which the sums of \$34,440 and \$45,000 were appropriated by the Commission: the former amount as expenses for the school and the latter as traveling subsidies to enable students to come from Shanghai to participate in the work of the Youth Corps in Chungking. The total funds for student relief appropriated by the Commission during the period August,

1938 to December, 1940 was estimated at \$1,194,814 as shown in the following table:

<i>Appropriations to</i>	<i>Amount</i>
Student Relief Committee of the Kiangsu Provincial Guild	\$ 200,000
Ministry of Education	100,000
Ministry of Education	100,000
Training School for Students from Shanghai	34,440
Fuhtan University	70,000
Great China University	70,000
War-area Middle School in Central Hupeh	1,800
Ministry of Education	304,000
Student Service of the Y.M.C.A. & Y.W.C.A.	10,000
<i>San Min Chu I</i> Youth Corps Central Headquarters	40,000
Great China University	20,000
Ta Kung Vocational School	42,210
Northeastern Student Relief Department, Ministry of Education	1,764
Ministry of Education	15,000
Canton University	60,000
Ministry of Education	6,000
Chung-Nan Middle School	15,000
Kweichow Branch of the <i>San Min Chu I</i> Youth Corps	10,000
Northeastern National Reconstruction Association	4,000
<i>San Min Chu I</i> Youth Corps Central Headquarters	45,000
Tung Fang Middle School	7,000
Anhwei Middle School	30,000
Yale Middle School	3,600
Provisional Middle School of Kiangsu Province	5,000
TOTAL	\$ 1,194,814

For the relief of Chinese seamen thrown out of employment as the result of the war, the Commission appropriated \$3,000 in 1938 and \$1,250 in 1939 to a special committee for the relief of Chinese seamen in Shanghai. In addition, the Commission in 1940 placed \$200,000 at the disposal of General Yang Hu, former Garrison Commander in Shanghai, for the relief of Chinese seamen who had evacuated to the interior from the coastal provinces.

During the same period Chinese fishermen in Kwangtung and Chekiang were constantly subjected to maltreatment by the Japanese. To alleviate their sufferings, the Commission remitted to the Chekiang provincial government \$100,000 while an additional \$10,000 was sent to the *hsien* government in Fenghwa, Chekiang, to be distributed among the affected fishermen in that district. A monthly subsidy of \$1,100 was granted to the Hongkong Fishermen's Association as maintenance fee for its school with an additional \$10,000 for relief of war affected fishermen. The relief of Chinese fishermen in Fukien province was handled by the Commission's representatives in charge of the Ninth Field Section.

Realizing the need for skilled labor and technical personnel for the development of the interior, the National Government in 1938 gave the Commission \$1,000,000 for relief and training of skilled laborers and technicians. From this fund, \$400,000 was allocated to the Chinese Industrial Cooperatives and \$50,000 to the Production Department of the Women's Advisory Committee of the New Life Movement Association. In view of the multitudes of farmers engaged in sericulture and tea raising in southern Anhwei and the provinces of Kiangsu, Chekiang, Kiangsi, Hunan and Hupeh who were driven from their homes by the Japanese, the Commission appropriated \$100,000 to the China National Tea Corporation and \$50,000 to the Yunnan Sericultural Improvement Bureau for the moving of such refugees to Yunnan to participate in the silk and tea industries in that province. The Commission also appropriated \$10,000 for the transportation to Szechwan of skilled laborers of the Ta Kung Iron Works in Shanghai. In 1938, a short-term training class was opened by the Ministry of Communications for railway employees in Hunan for which purpose the Commission appropriated \$72,000.

As a result of the Japanese occupation of French Indo-China in 1940, overseas Chinese there were seriously affected. The Commission at once remitted \$50,000 to the Chinese Consulate-General at

Hanoi for their relief. The representative of the Kwangsi Provincial Relief Commission at Hongkong was given \$50,000 by the Commission to distribute among refugees from overseas in the Crown Colony. An additional \$100,000 was placed at the disposal of the Yunnan provincial government for the relief of refugees on the Yunnan-Burma border.

The Chinese Islamic National Salvation Federation in Chungking was allocated \$120,000 by the Commission and entrusted with the care of Chinese Muslims in need of relief. An additional \$80,000 was remitted to the Commission's Fifth Field Section for the relief of Hasaks in Kansu province.

WORK-RELIEF PROGRAM

The rehabilitative aspect of the Commission's work which aims at regaining and replenishing the refugees' ability for self-sustenance comes in its work-relief program. This was promoted almost as soon as war began and assumed larger and larger proportions as time went on. By the end of 1940 no less than 1,000,000 war sufferers were put back on their feet through occupational relief. The program has been carried out through land reclamation, establishment of factories and promotion of handicrafts.

Outstanding among the land reclamation districts financed and managed by the Commission are those at Huanglungshan (Yellow Dragon Mountain) and Liping in Shensi province. The former's 5,000,000 mow (six mow to an acre) accommodated 630,000 settlers, the latter's 200,000 mow accommodated 6,000 settlers. The Commission appropriated to the two refugee colonies the sums of \$713,336 and \$75,150 for capital and administrative expenses. Among the refugee colonies helped by the Commission, five are under provincial and nine under private management. They are located in the provinces of Fukien, Hunan, Honan, Kiangsi and Kwangsi. A model reclamation district under the management of the Ministry of Social Affairs is also assisted by the Commission. The money appropriated by the Commission in this connection during the period ending December, 1940 totalled

\$3,327,578. The total land under reclamation, national, provincial and private, was estimated at 6,799,302 mow, as shown in the following table :—

Colony	Location	Acreage (in mow)	Refugees Accommodated
Huanglungshan Colony	Shensi	4,426,196	630,056
Liping Colony	Shensi	24,000	6,000
Kiangsi Colony	Kian-Kukiang-Taiho	25,604	5,224
Fukien Colony	Chungan & 9 other hsien	800,000	80,000
Hunan Colony	Chihkiang & Yuanling	43,800	4,000
Honan Colony	Tenghsien	400,000	40,000
Kwangsi Colony	Liuchow & Feng- shanho	unreported	1,000
Kweilin Colony	Tachungshiang	119,300	8,480
Kiangsi Chishui Colony	Chishui-Shuinan	9,260	1,800
Paoki-Fenghsien Colony	Shensi	40,000	5,000
Chaohsien Colony	Kwangsi	2,142	720
Hupei Colony	Chunhsien	9,000	1,500
Chinfoshan Colony	Szechwan	900,000	25,000
Shensi Mei-Fu Colony	Meih sien-Fufeng	unreported	unreported
Shapuh Colony	Kwangsi	unreported	unreported
Lichuan Colony	Kiangsi	unreported	unreported
TOTAL		6,799,302	808,780

By the end of 1940 factories established by the Commission numbered 15 giving employment to more than 10,000 refugees who had been industrial workers, factory hands and artisans. These factories are scattered in the provinces of Szechwan, Hunan, Yunnan, Sikang,

Anhwei, Kiangsi, Fukien and the municipalities of Chungking and Shanghai. Money appropriated by the Commission to these factories during the period ending December, 1940, is shown in the following table :

Factory	Location	Nature of Works	Appropriation
No. 1	Kiangtsin, Szechwan	Spinning, Weaving & Dyeing	\$ 450,000
No. 2	Hochwan, Szechwan	Paper Manufacturing	219,000
No. 3	North Bank, Chungking	Spinning and Weaving	170,000
No. 4	Kiangtsin, Szechwan	Porcelain and Pottery	218,279
No. 6	Yungchuan, Szechwan	Paper Manufacturing	35,000
No. 7	Hsianghsiang, Hunan	Spinning and Weaving	100,000
No. 8	Hengyang, Hunan	Spinning and Weaving	100,000
No. 9	Kunming, Yunnan	Spinning, Weaving & Leather-tanning	100,000
No. 10	Yaen, Sikang	Paper-making, Dyeing and Rattan Works	80,000
No. 11	Lihuang, Anhwei	Spinning and Weaving	100,000
No. 12	Chengtui, Szechwan	Making Army Blankets	23,000
No. 13	Taiho, Kiangsi	Spinning and Weaving	10,000
No. 14	Shaowu, Fukien	Paper Manufacturing	115,000
No. 15	Shanghai	Hosiery	100,000
TOTAL			\$1,820,279

Factory No. 5 was not listed because its establishment, originally planned in Shanghai, was postponed due to unfavorable circumstances prevailing in that city. Factory No. 15 was established in Shanghai in October, 1940, and run by local philanthropic organizations.

Field sections and general stations have also started small factories to put

the unemployed to work. These include a handicraft factory at Suiteh in Shensi in the Sixth Section, a women's hand-weaving and spinning factory in Lanchow, Kansu, in the Fifth Section, a spinning and weaving factory and a leather tannery in western Hunan in the Eighth Section, a refugee factory under the General Station at Paokhi, Shensi, a leather-tanning plant under the General

Station at Kweilin, Kwangsi, a gauze factory under the General Station of Kinhsia and Yungchia, Chekiang. In addition, the Commission gives grants to factories managed by local governments or public bodies which employ refugees.

The Credit Loan Service established by the Commission in May, 1939, has also contributed towards the occupational relief of refugees and poor people in general. Up to December, 1940, \$1,789,000 was appropriated as a sinking fund for credit loans and \$1,029,000 lent through 18 credit loan head offices, 16 branches and 34 sub-offices. Through such financial aid, upwards of 100,000 people have found means of livelihood.

It was estimated that during the period ending December, 1940, the Commission distributed \$10,077,750 in occupational relief, not including land reclamation and colonization.

RELIEF OF REFUGEE CHILDREN

The motto of relief and rehabilitation as a one-in-two and two-in-one objective of the Commission's work has been emphasized more especially in regard to refugee children, generally referred to as "warphans." In this work, the Commission worked closely with such child welfare organizations as the National

Refugee Children's Association, founded by Madame Chiang Kai-shek, the China Wartime Child Relief Association, the National Child Welfare Association of China and the former Hankow Municipal Children's Education Committee. A set of regulations governing the rescue of children from war zones and their relief and education was promulgated and circularized to all the provincial, municipal and *hsien* governments throughout the country. Children's homes were established wherever and whenever necessary. A special advisory corps of 30 men was organized to inspect the various homes from time to time. The curriculum in the homes is similar to that in primary schools with special emphasis on agricultural and manual education so that the youngsters may learn how to make a living.

In addition to making grants to orphanages established by other child welfare organizations, the Commission has its own child relief and educational institutions. This work was begun in October, 1938 in Chungking when a special committee on the upbringing and education of afflicted children was organized. The number of orphanages which have since been established and their inmates are shown in the following table:—

Orphanages	Location	Date Established	Inmates
Chungking No. 1	Pahsien	Nov. 1938	(dissolved in 1939)
Chungking No. 2	Pahsien	Nov. 1938	261
Chungking No. 3	Peipei	Oct. 1939	254
Chungking No. 4	Pishan	Oct. 1939	358
Kwangtung Warphanage	Shaokwan (Kukong)	March, 1939	2,000
Kwangsi Warphanage	Kweilin	May, 1939	1,000
Northwest Warphanage	Nancheng	Nov. 1939	525
Children's Reformatory— North Bank, Chungking	Chungking	July, 1940	114
Pinglu Warphanage	Pinglu, Shansi	August, 1939	500
Ankang Warphanage	Ankang, Shensi	Oct. 1939	251
Tsiyuan Warphanage	Tsiyuan, Honan	Jan. 1939	500
Sian Warphanage	Sian, Shensi	Dec. 1940	unreported
Loyang Warphanage	Loyang, Honan	Sept. 1940	97
Suiteh Warphanage	Suiteh, Shensi	Oct. 1938	200
Taihu Warphanage	Taihu, Kiangsi	May, 1940	150
Tungcheng Warphanage	Tungcheng, Anhwei	June, 1940	150
Wuwei Warphanage	Wuwei, Anhwei	May, 1940	150
Shouhsien Warphanage	Shouhsien, Anhwei	May, 1940	150
Fuyang Warphanage	Fuyang, Anhwei	March, 1940	150
Lihuang Warphanage	Lihuang, Anhwei	May, 1940	250
Chingteh Warphanage	Chingteh, Anhwei	Dec. 1940	200
Chihteh Warphanage	Chihteh, Anhwei	Oct. 1940	150
Hohsien Warphanage	Hohsien, Anhwei	Sept. 1940	unreported
Chungking Nursery	Koloshan	May, 1940	46
TOTAL			7,456

The Chungking Nursery at Koloshan was transferred to the Ministry of Social Affairs at the end of 1940.

The number of orphanages maintained by national, provincial, municipal, *hsien*, private and other organizations, established and aided by the Commission is shown in the following table:—

Nature of Organization	No. of Orphanages	No. of Children
National	25	7,456
Provincial	9	1,605
Municipal	3	440
<i>Hsien</i>	4	1,423
Private	82	46,969
Others	19	6,863
TOTAL	142	64,756

FLOOD RELIEF

In response to the outcry for help of flood sufferers, a special Flood Relief Commission for North China was established in 1939 and funds distributed to the provinces of Hopei, Honan, Shantung and Shensi, totalled \$3,190,000, including administrative expenses of \$80,000. Of this amount, the Honan Provincial Relief Commission raised \$20,000, the Kuomintang Headquarters \$100,000, the Executive Yuan \$3,000,000, women in the Philippines \$20,000. The remaining \$50,000 came from contributions by local provincial authorities.

In addition to these sums, the National Relief Commission in 1939 spent \$1,440,551 for the rehabilitation of refugees affected by the Yellow River flood in the four North China provinces as well as other flood-affected provinces. Appropriations made for the latter included \$150,000 for Kiangsu, \$20,000 for Chekiang, \$34,000 for Hupeh, \$20,000 for Kweichow and \$5,000 for Anhwei. Most of the refugees from districts along the Yungting River in Hopei were migrated to Tientsin and for their emergency relief an additional appropriation of \$80,000 was made by the Commission.

Flood sufferers were given industrial and agricultural relief. They were employed for dike repairs, dredging of rivers, canals, harbors and lakes, building bridges and roads in the provinces of Chekiang, Kiangsu, Anhwei, Honan, Hupeh, Shensi, Shansi and Fukien. Improved seeds and better farming implements were given to the stricken farmers. Commission appropriations for these purposes totalled \$1,952,359.

There were floods, droughts, plagues and earthquakes in Kiangsu, Chekiang, Shensi, Kweichow, Chinghai, Hupeh and Ningsia. To meet the immediate requirements in these provinces, the Commission during the period 1938-40 dispensed \$2,931,170 for general relief through the provincial governments or officials sent to the spot.

SOCIAL RELIEF

In the field of social relief the Commission up to December, 1940 spent \$7,998,322. The main portion went to the training of the idle and unemployed in productive enterprises, to institutes for the care of the disabled and to other philanthropic organizations engaged in social relief work.

In Chungking, for instance, the Commission maintains a model bureau for the training of the idle. This was established in May, 1939, in accordance with a resolution adopted by the People's Political Council. More than 500 were admitted to the bureau where they received instruction in political and military subjects, weaving, printing and the making of chemicals, industrial and agricultural implements. Courses on house and road building were later added to the curriculum. By June, 1940, when the bureau was transferred to the Ministry of Social Affairs, 233 had been "graduated."

Another noteworthy instance of the social relief program started by the Commission was its model hospice for the disabled and invalided at Kiangtsin, Szechwan, founded in December, 1939. Vocational courses were given in this hospice to enable the inmates to earn a living. In other parts of the country, schools for training the deaf and blind also received grants from the Commission toward their financial upkeep. Such social relief work is now under the Ministry of Social Affairs.

In addition, the Commission has erected hospitals and clinics in the interior to give free treatment to the poor and has given grants to foreign and Chinese hospitals and clinics in the provinces of Szechwan, Kweichow, Yunnan, Kwangsi, Kwangtung, Hunan, Hupeh, Anhwei, Fukien, Kiangsu, Chekiang and Kiangsi. During the period ending December, 1940, the Commission appropriated a total of \$672,907 of which \$51,669 was for its own hospitals and clinics. Other hospitals and clinics aided by the Commission are shown in the following table:—

<i>Hospitals and Clinics</i>	<i>Grants</i>
Shanghai Sino-Foreign Hospital	\$ 2,000
Chungking Municipal Hospital	52,000
Chungking Catholic Hospital	2,000
Methodist Union Hospital	30,000
Shanghai Refugee Tuberculosis Hospital	600
Ichang-Wanhsien Francis Xavier Convents	4,400
Chungking Red Cross Hospital	68
Kiangtsin Yen-Nien Hospital	5,200
National Health Administration Clinics	80,000
Francis Xavier Convent of Chungking Catholic Hospital	1,000
Wanhsien War-Area Medical Service Corps	500
Hongkong St. John's First-Aid Corps	5,000
Tzekung Municipal Administration Committee	1,000
Tunsi Municipal Hospital	2,000
Chinese Mission to Lepers	6,000
Border Service of General Assembly of Church of Christ	80,000
Northern Hunan Mobile Medical Corps	2,000
Hankow Canossian Mission	3,000
Kiangtsin Tungchi Hospital	2,400
Kiangtsin Tung-Jen Hospital	2,400
Shanghai People's Hospital	11,000
Mobile Medical Clinic	14,000
Yunnan Buddhist Association O.P.D.	400
Chunghsien Canadian Mission Hospital	3,600
Fupao Branch of World Swastika Society	2,000
Northern Hupeh Mobile Medical Corps	21,000
Canadian Mission Hospital O.P.D. for Poor	5,800
National Kiangsu Medical College	3,000
Kanhsien Clinic	6,000
Chinese Red Cross Society	10,000
Kinhwa People's Hospital	1,000
Yuanling-Hengyang Chinese Dispensaries	6,000
Fulin Advertiser Mission	20,000
Chungking Canadian Mission Hospital	5,000
Central Maternity Hospital	9,500
Clinic of Chungking Police Bureau	20,000
Canton Fang-Pien Hospital	2,000
Chungking Branch of Wuhan Sanatorium	15,000
Anhwei Epidemic-Prevention Corps No. 24	400
Chungking Refugee Hospital	2,000
Fukien Mobile Medical Corps	1,800
Ankiang Medical Clinic	470
Liling Health Clinic	500
Kweilin Baptist Mission Refugee Relief	1,000
Chungking Municipal Government	20,000
Chengtu Air-Raid Relief Hospital	80,000
Kweichow Provincial Animal Diseases Prevention Society	25,000
Wanhsien Chinese Physicians' Service Corps	20,000
Changsha Epidemic-Prevention Committee	3,200
North China Catholic Service Corps	20,000
Kwangtung World Swastika Society Service Corps	2,000
Chungking University	3,000
Western Chekiang First Provisional Middle School	500
Western Chekiang Third Provisional Middle School	500
Hangchow Shu-Fan Middle School	1,000
Anhwei Provincial Guild in Chungking	3,000
TOTAL	\$ 621,238

The total number of patients treated in the Commission's hospitals and clinics and those helped by it during the period January 1 to December 7, 1940, was estimated at 921,812.

FUNDS APPROPRIATED BY THE COMMISSION DURING THE PERIOD

April, 1938 to December, 1940 are shown in the following table:—

Nature of Relief	APPROPRIATION			
	April 27-Dec., 1938	Jan.-Dec., 1939	Jan.-Dec., 1940	TOTAL
Emergency Relief	\$7,756,831.30	\$6,994,572.44	\$11,711,491.28	\$26,462,895.02
Air-Raid Relief	348,422.48	2,377,676.80	2,196,913.46	4,923,012.74
Refugee Transportation	37,637.60	1,131,719.04	2,144,991.78	3,314,348.42
Relief of Warphans	690,462.00	2,410,319.96	7,070,625.29	10,171,407.25
Flood Relief	957,073.52	274,000.00	209,478.00	1,440,551.52
Famine Relief	343,492.50	1,088,830.00	1,498,857.00	2,931,179.50
Industrial & Agricultural Relief		1,112,632.60	839,726.57	1,952,359.17
Social Relief	981,808.00	2,663,259.30	4,353,254.83	7,998,322.13
Relief of Technicians	1,528,726.00	6,093,505.00	2,455,528.64	10,077,759.64
Land Reclamation	780,004.00	1,037,846.00	1,509,728.95	3,327,578.95
Hospitals & Medical Supplies	462,632.75	865,588.13	1,058,671.30	2,386,892.18
Administrative Expenses	244,268.28	264,484.27	490,403.80	999,156.35
TOTAL	\$14,131,358.43	\$26,314,433.54	\$35,539,670.90	\$75,985,462.87

The numbers of refugees helped by the Commission, its subsidiary organizations and other philanthropic groups aided by it during the period April, 1938 to December, 1940 are shown in the following table:—

Organizations	NO. OF REFUGEES		
	May, 1938-Dec. 1939	Jan.-Dec. 1940	TOTAL
Field Sections	6,355,058	837,884	7,192,942
General Stations	1,239,002	474,697	1,713,699
Provincial & Municipal Branches	6,704,412	1,743,338	8,447,750
Other Groups	7,451,246	747,532	8,198,778
Air-Raid Relief Joint Offices	92,072	38,781	130,853
TOTAL	21,841,790	3,842,232	25,684,022

To promote the constructive side of relief work, the Commission in 1941 strengthened its organizations for the training of refugees.

The work of organizing and training refugees was started in 1940. The 14 refugee organizing and training committees established that year were increased to 21, located in Shantung province and such centers as Chungking,

Kweilin, Loyang, Hsuchang, Enshih (Hupeh), Kinhwa, Taiho (Kiangsi), Kucheng (Hupeh), Sian, Hengyang, Kukong, Hsingchu, Tsunsi, Nanping (Fukien), Huanglungshan, Wanhhsien, Shenpa (Suiyuan), Changsha, Linchuan (Kiangsi) and Kunming. Training given the refugees embraces political, military and productive affairs. It was estimated that 134,500 refugees were trained during 1941 as compared with 55,000 in 1940.

OCCUPATIONAL RELIEF

With a view to re-establishing the war-stricken on their own feet, the Commission in 1940 found jobs for 2,008 refugees through the assistance of the Chungking Vocational Advisory Bureau and the Yunnan Refugee Employment Committee. Beginning in 1941, the Commission adopted this work as a regular feature of its program for refugee relief and rehabilitation. Up to December, 1941, 91 refugee employment bureaus were established by its various field sections, general stations, provincial, municipal and district branches throughout the country, and employment was found for 101,444 refugees.

In 1941, the Commission continued its efforts to enable the war-afflicted to engage in small trades for self-sustenance. This service was rendered on a larger scale than ever before by the Commission's general stations at Hsueh-chang-Nanyang, Siangyang, Kunming, Loyang-Tungkwan, Kian-Taiho, Kihwa-Yungchia-Ningpo, Hengyang-Chuchow-Shaoyang, the Third, Fifth, Ninth and Tenth Field Sections and the Hupeh Provincial Relief Commission. Funds appropriated in this connection totalled \$37,200.

Relief through occupation alone applied to some extent to famine relief work. Emergency relief for famine sufferers in 1941 cost the Commission \$7,825,562. In addition, \$375,276 was appropriated as "industrial relief" and \$25,000 as "agricultural relief."

Of the \$5,827,580 appropriated for work-relief, \$1,629,580 went as circulating fund for the Commission's 14 refugee factories. The Commission's plan, effective from April, 1941, called for the establishment of two factories every three months. New factories set up in accordance with this plan included the 16th factory at Chensi in Hunan, the 17th factory in Chungking, the 18th factory at Lochang in Kwangtung, the 5th factory at Sanyuan in Shensi, the 19th factory at Weinan in Shensi and the 20th factory at Tienhsui in Kansu. Funds appropriated to these newly

established refugee plants totalled \$2,000,000. To help women in Chungking affected by air raids, the Commission established in the wartime capital a refugee women's factory capitalized at \$60,000. The Chungking women's handicraft bureau was taken over by the Commission and its capital was increased by \$100,000.

An experimental farm was established at Huan Shan (Yellow Mountain) for which an initial capital of \$10,000 plus \$8,000 for current expenses for the period May to December, 1941, was appropriated.

Other appropriations for work-relief included \$749,050 as subsidies to productive organizations engaged in occupational relief of refugees and \$2,000,000 as sinking fund for the Credit Loan Service. During the year, 15 more credit loan offices were established bringing the total to 84. In addition to the Commission's own network, the Northeastern Refugee Relief Association and Oberlin-in-Shansi were appointed agencies and given \$60,000 by the Commission as sinking fund. The Chekiang Provincial Relief Commission obtained a loan of \$1,000,000 from the Chekiang Provincial Bank as its credit loan sinking fund, for the interest payment of which the Commission in Chungking appropriated \$50,000. It was estimated that no less than 179,800 persons were benefited by the credit loan service in Free China.

According to reports sent to the Commission, the number of refugees in camps in the different provinces in 1941 averaged 200,000 each month. This showed a decrease as compared with the previous years, attributable to the fact that the work-relief program, pushed on a larger scale than before had borne fruit. Funds appropriated during the year for the maintenance of these camps totalled \$4,990,000.

Funds appropriated and the numbers of refugees helped by the Commission's six field sections are shown in the following table:—

Section	Appropriations	No. of Refugees Helped
First Section	\$ 110,000	101,963
Second Section	10,000	250,435
Third Section	436,960	83,450
Fifth Section	938,597	138,707
Ninth Section	1,633,620	75,600
Tenth Section	314,903	305,978
TOTAL	\$3,444,080	956,133

The year 1941 saw the abolition of the three general stations at Nanning, Huiyang and Siangyang. A new station known as Ki-Tai (Kian and Taiho in Kiangsi province) was established. Another station named Yu-Wan was set up to replace the two stations at Chungking and Wanh sien which were abolished in 1940. Funds appropriated to the various stations totalled \$2,024,765 and the number of refugees handled totalled 145,000.

AIR RAID RELIEF

Chungking's air-raid relief forces in 1941 were centered under the Auxiliary Capital Air-Raid Emergency Relief Commission which was independent of the National Relief Commission. General Liu Shih, Garrison Commander, acted concurrently as chairman of the newly-formed Commission. Its six departments were in charge of fire-fighting, first-aid and medical relief, control of dugouts, lights and communications during raids, distribution of money for the wounded and killed, repair of telegraph and telephone lines, waterworks and electricity, and auditing and accounting.

Forces mobilized by the Commission included the police and garrison forces of Chungking and residents who volunteer their services. Able-bodied citizens, members of the "righteous and brave" corps, fight fires, extinguish incendiary bombs and handle "duds" during raids. Other groups included first-aid, stretcher-bearers, burial, debris-cleaning, transport and supplies and intelligence and communication corps.

Under the Commission is the Medical Relief Commission, which maintains three independent hospitals for the heavily wounded and cooperates with thirteen public and private hospitals in Chungking with a total of 1,057 beds. The Commission has also 29 first-aid stations and 23 first-aid corps. Altogether there are more than 1,000 doctors, nurses, health experts and other staff members in these hospitals, clinics and stations.

Throughout the bombing season of 1941, the Medical Relief Commission treated more than 3,000 heavily and slightly wounded persons. The three independent hospitals for heavily wounded received 800 air-raid victims, while the first-aid stations handled 1,795 cases.

From May 7 to June 4, the Auxiliary Capital Aid-Raid Emergency Relief Commission gave \$374,670 for air-raid

relief. Of this, \$6,240 went as compensation to the families of 104 killed (\$60 each); \$2,960 to 74 seriously wounded (\$40 each); \$1,350 to 90 slightly wounded (\$15 each); and \$364,100 as emergency relief to 18,205 people affected by raids (\$20 each). During the latter part of 1941, the Commission was reorganized with Mr. Hsu Shih-ying, acting chairman of the National Relief Commission, assuming duties as chairman in place of General Liu Shih. Appropriations made for air-raid relief during this period totalled \$507,283.

During the year 1941, the joint offices for air-raid emergency relief maintained by the National Relief Commission was increased by 96, bringing the total to 448. Funds appropriated totalled \$3,961,886. The numbers of air-raid casualties handled by these offices were 28,637 wounded and 14,870 killed.

The year 1941 saw major battles in northern Hunan, Honan, Kiangsi, Chekiang, Anhwei, Suiyuan and Kwangtung. In each case, the Commission sent representatives to the affected areas to distribute relief funds among the war sufferers. It was estimated that \$4,337,000 was spent for accommodation of refugees in camps, \$8,057,062 for general relief and \$35,000 as sinking fund for the emergency needs of the various field sections.

The Commission cooperated with the Kuomintang Board of Organization in providing relief and transportation for Chinese students who had remained in occupied territory but who were desirous of coming to Free China. Funds appropriated for this purpose totalled \$442,000 by which 3,890 students were helped. They have either been enrolled in schools in the interior or recommended for employment.

MEDICAL RELIEF

In medical relief, the number of hospitals and clinics established by the Commission was increased to 21. Funds appropriated totalled \$474,850 benefiting more than 204,200 persons. Every effort was made to strengthen the cooperation between refugee relief organizations and the National Health Administration, the Chinese Red Cross and local health administrations. Subsidies given by the Commission to the World Swastika Society and its first-aid corps and the epidemic-prevention corps of the National Health Administration in Anhwei province totalled \$40,000.

Fifty-eight private hospitals and clinics and other philanthropic organizations cooperated in the treatment of refugees. Subsidies granted by the Commission totalled \$753,500 and the number of refugees helped, according to reports received by the Commission by the end of 1941, totalled more than 67,000.

In places remote from the Commission's relief stations, medical relief to the refugees and the poor people in general is taken up as much as possible by the various provincial relief commissions. During 1941 the Commission established two clinics in Kiangsi province with an appropriation of \$107,000; organized eight mobile medical and surgical corps in Fukien with \$48,000 and set up a medical and pharmaceutical bureau in Hunan with \$46,000. In addition, \$60,000 was granted for the medical relief of flood sufferers in Honan province, while the eight circulating medical corps organized by the Honan Refugee Clinic were helped with an appropriation of \$56,000. More than 85,500 persons were benefited by these organizations.

Since the outbreak of the war in Europe, there has been an acute shortage of medical supplies in China. During 1941, the Commission appropriated in different instalments a total of \$103,000 for the purchase of medical supplies from China and abroad for distribution among various organizations engaged in medical relief work.

Medical relief work in occupied territories and guerilla districts was continued under the trusteeship of missionary hospitals and other international benevolent organizations. Funds appropriated in this connection totalled \$64,500.

The various war-area medical service corps organized by the National Sun Yat-sen University, the World Swastika Society in Canton and teachers and students in Chekiang province drew from the Commission total grants of \$36,500. Medical supplies valued at \$18,000 were distributed among the North China War-Area Service Corps (formerly led by the late Father Vincent Lebbe), Young Men's War-Area Service Corps and the Korean Nationalist Service Corps. Other appropriations included \$60,000 for Shantung, \$12,000 for Shansi and \$5,923 for middle school students in occupied Anhwei.

For the prevention of summer diseases, the Commission distributed a sum of \$28,100 for the purchase of vaccine and serum to give free injections to refugees and poor people in general. An additional \$20,000 was spent in epidemic-prevention work in cooperation with the National Health Administration and the Chinese Red Cross.

Increasing attention was paid to orphans. The number of orphanages maintained by the Commission was increased to 28. Orphanages established in the various war areas by the military headquarters were taken over by the Commission's provincial branches, field stations or general stations. The number of orphanages operated and aided by the Commission by the end of 1941 totalled 150, caring for more than 60,000 children. Funds appropriated during the year totalled more than \$13,000,000.

Particular attention was paid to health and medical care of orphans. Medical supplies distributed among the orphanages under the Commission's management were valued at \$13,000 while those given orphanages run by private child welfare organizations were valued at \$15,000.

For the work in 1942, reports in the possession of the National Relief Commission give data and information up to the end of October.

RELIEF OF SOUTH SEAS CHINESE

A new feature of the Commission's program was the relief of South Seas Chinese affected by the war in the Southwest Pacific. Of the \$81,412,439 spent during the ten-month period, \$44,350,000 was appropriated during the first eight months of the year for the relief of South Seas Chinese refugees. Sundry other appropriations made for the same purpose during September and October totalled \$1,531,243.71.

The fund was handled mainly by the Commission, aided by a string of other government organizations including the Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission, the Kuomintang Board of Overseas Affairs and the Ministry of Education. The provinces, organizations and relief centers in China and abroad through which \$44,350,000 was distributed are shown

in the following table:—

<i>Provinces</i>	<i>Amounts</i>
Kwangtung ...	\$13,600,000
Yunnan ...	11,700,000
Fukien ...	5,100,000
Kwangsi ...	4,000,000
Kweichow ...	500,000
Chekiang ...	50,000
Hunan ...	50,000
Kiangsi ...	50,000
<i>Relief Centers in China—</i>	
Chungking ...	150,000
Kinhwa ...	20,000
<i>Relief Centers Abroad—</i>	
Calcutta ...	500,000
Lashio ...	1,000,000
Batavia ...	400,000
Others ...	1,150,000
<i>Organizations—</i>	
Ministry of Education ...	2,000,000
Kuomintang Secretariat	1,200,000
Ministry of Information	200,000
Wartime Personnel Readjustment Committee	100,000
Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission ...	50,000
Kuomintang Board of Organization	50,000
Reconstruction-Education Coordination Committee ...	50,000
Kuomintang Board of Overseas Affairs ...	13,000
Others ...	2,417,000
TOTAL ...	\$44,350,000

No up-to-date figures are yet available as to the total number of South Seas Chinese and Chinese residents from Hongkong and Shanghai who have been given relief. According to reports already received by the Commission, the numbers of refugees handled in the various provinces are shown in the following table:—

<i>Province</i>	<i>Refugees Helped</i>	<i>Date Reported</i>
Kwangtung	771,855	June
Kwangsi	541,993	July
Kweichow	23,961	July
Yunnan	23,393	September
Fukien	6,428	June
TOTAL	1,367,630	

When the Pacific War began, the National Relief Commission and its

subsidiary organizations made preparations for the relief of overseas Chinese refugees. On December 8, 1941, it telegraphically advised its representative in Kowloon and its branch office at Kukong to take care of refugees in their respective areas.

A joint committee to direct overseas relief matters was formed comprising members of the National Relief Commission, the Secretariat of the Central Kuomintang Headquarters, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Ministry of Education, the Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission and the Kuomintang Board of Overseas Affairs. This committee proposed that \$100,000,000 be set aside for the relief of overseas Chinese, which proposal was approved by the Executive Yuan.

Special committees were organized by the provinces concerned to look after the relief of overseas Chinese refugees. The Kwangtung Provincial Emergency Relief Committee formed of representatives from the Kwangtung military headquarters, government and public organizations, was established on January 1, 1942. The committee has its head offices at Kukong and six regional offices at Waiyang, Fengshun, Hingning, Kaoyao, Kaiping and Moiming, in addition to 73 relief stations located within 20 miles of one another in the area between southern Kwangtung and Kukong and other parts of the province.

In Yunnan, a similar committee was organized under the leadership of General Lung Yun, governor of Yunnan, which works in close cooperation with the Kunming office of the National Relief Commission.

Next to Kwangtung and Yunnan, Fukien province is an important relief center as a large number of the South Seas Chinese have their ancestral homes in Changchow, Chuanchow and other Fukien cities. The Fukien Provincial Emergency Relief Committee is headed by General Liu Chien-hsu, governor of Fukien.

Kwangsi's Emergency Relief Committee has 20 receiving stations at Tsangwu, Kweiping, Tenghyun, Kweih sien, Watlam, Hingyeh, Luchwan, Liuchow, Kweilin, Kinchengkang, Tsingsi, Chenpien, Leiping, Shangkin, Lungtsin, Pingsiang, Ningming, Mingkiang, Szelo and Nanning. It has five refugee factories at Kweilin, Liukiang, Kweiping, Tsangwu and Nanning.

Many of the overseas refugees repatriated via Kunming passed through Kweichow province. The care of these refugees in transit is entrusted to an emergency relief committee headed by Mr. Wu Ting-chang, governor of Kweichow.

Relief work in other provinces is conducted by the provincial branch offices of the National Relief Commission in consultation with the provincial authorities concerned.

The joint committee in Chungking has disposed of \$150,000 locally for the relief of refugees from the South Seas who have arrived here via Yunnan and other routes. The Ministry of Education, with \$2,000,000 at its disposal, has been looking after students from North, East and South China as well as the South Seas whose financial resources have been affected by the outbreak of the Pacific War. Middle school students have been admitted to a special training class at Chingmukwan outside Chungking, free of tuition. After six months of supplementary training, they will be assigned to various government middle schools in Szechwan province. Collegians are being sent to various governmental institutions of higher learning.

The Secretariat of the Central Kuomintang Headquarters has spent \$1,200,000 for the construction of a hostel at Huangkoya, South Bank, Chungking, for overseas Chinese coming to Chungking. Before the hostel was ready, many of the South Seas Chinese stayed at temporary quarters maintained by the Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission. The Cultural Affairs Committee of the Ministry of Information gives relief to incoming cultural workers and newspapermen. The Wartime Personnel Readjustment and Reconstruction-Education Coordination

Committees help the refugees secure jobs. The Kuomintang Board of Organization was instrumental in the evacuation of Kuomintang workers from Shanghai while the Kuomintang Board of Overseas Affairs helped Chinese in Thailand and French Indo-China in their flight to China.

READJUSTMENT AND REORGANIZATION

The year 1942 saw further readjustments and reorganization of the Commission's relief network as necessitated by changing circumstances of the war. The objective of such reshuffle is retrenchment of finances and personnel by reducing the number of field sections and general stations and transferring their duties wherever possible to the various provincial, municipal and district branches of the Commission. The Second Section, for instance, was closed up at the end of 1941 and its duties were transferred to the provincial relief commission of Shantung. The care of overseas Chinese refugees in the provinces of Kwangtung and Fukien was entrusted to the Seventh Section with headquarters at Kukong while the Ninth Section was shifted to the provinces of Kwangsi and Kweichow with offices at Kweilin and Kweiyang. Thus there are six sections, namely, the First, Third, Fifth, Seventh, Ninth and Tenth Sections.

General stations dissolved during the year include those at Hsueh-Nanyang, Chungking-Wanhshien and Patung (Ichang-Shasi), their duties having been transferred to local relief organizations. Thus there are only five general stations, namely, Kian-Taiho, Kienhwa-Yungchia-Ningpo, Hengyang-Chuchow-Shaoyang, Loyang-Tungkwan and Kunming. The numbers of refugees helped by these stations are shown in the following table:—

General Stations	No. of Refugees Helped	Period Covered
Hengyang-Chuchow-Shaoyang	21,107	January-October
Kienhwa-Yungchia-Ningpo	5,303	January-April
Kian-Taiho	25,642	January-June
Loyang-Tungkwan	2,992	January-June
Kunming	unreported	
TOTAL	55,044	

By the end of 1941, 22 provincial branches had been established in Honan, Fukien, Hunan, Kansu, Chinghai, Kwangtung, Suiyuan, Shensi, Chekiang, Yunnan, Sikang, Kwangsi, Szechwan, Kweichow, Kiangsi, Kiangsu, Shantung, Anhwei, Hupeh, Ningsia, Shansi and Hopei. Municipal, *hsien* and district agencies totalled 1,166. In those provinces where the new county system has been enforced the Commission's relief network has penetrated to the *hsiang*, *chen* and *pao* as in the case of Yunnan, Kwangsi and Kiangsi.

The emphasis on occupational relief has borne more fruit in 1942 as evidenced by the decrease in the number of refugees in camps. Up to the end of October, 1942, the number of refugees in camps conducted by the Commission in the different provinces totalled only more than 100,000 which marked almost a 50 per cent decrease as compared with the previous year.

While Chungking enjoyed a year of quietude in the air, the enemy air force has nevertheless been active in other parts of the country. The bombings of Kunming in Yunnan and Kukong in Kwangtung in December, 1941, the bombings of Changting in Fukien and Kanhsien in Kiangsi in January, 1942, the attack of Nanning in Kwangsi in February, Paoshan in Yunnan in April and places in northern Fukien in July all resulted in great damage and considerable casualties for which the Commission's joint offices for emergency air-raid relief distributed relief and compensation. The year saw a further addition of 12 joint offices bringing up the total to 451. Appropriations made included \$400,000 for air-raid relief in Paoshan and \$100,000 for Hokeou (Yunnan-Indo-China border).

WAR-AREA RELIEF

Early in January, 1942, people in northern Hunan were again subjected to Japanese barbarism in their third futile Changsha campaign and the Commission sent two instalments of \$1,000,000 and \$600,000 for relief. These sums were also handled by the Tenth Section in consultation with the Hunan provincial authorities. In June, the enemy launched an assault on the Chekiang-Kiangsi Railway line resulting in unprecedented sufferings among the civilians not only in Chekiang and Kiangsu but also in Anhwei. For the alleviation of their wretched plight, the Commission

appropriated \$3,100,000 for Chekiang, \$2,000,000 for Kiangsi and \$500,000 for Anhwei.

Other appropriations made for refugee relief in war areas during the period January to October, 1942, included \$1,000,000 for the Kiangsu-Shangtung-Honan border region, \$500,000 for student relief in the Chekiang-Kiangsi war area, \$3,000,000 for Shantung and \$100,000 for Suiyuan.

Relief work behind enemy lines and in guerilla districts was seriously affected following the outbreak of the Pacific War. However, the Commission's First Field Section has continued its efforts for the relief of refugees in the Nanking-Shanghai area, while means are being devised to continue the coordination of missionary and international organizations for relief activities in Shanghai and other enemy-held centers.

In 1942, famine affected the province of Honan, Hupeh Kwangtung, Chekiang Shensi, Chinghai, Kansu and Hunan. With the approval of the Executive Yuan, the Commission appropriated \$4,000,000 for emergency relief and \$6,000,000 for industrial relief in Honan; \$2,000,000 in cash and \$2,000,000 worth of foodstuffs for Hupeh; \$1,000,000 for flood relief in Kwangtung, \$1,000,000 for flood relief in Chekiang, \$500,000 for flood relief and \$841,250 for spring famine in Shensi; \$1,200,000 for Chinghai, \$100,000 for drought relief in Kansu and \$500,000 for flood relief in Hunan.

FAMINE RELIEF IN HONAN

In view of the gravity of the famine situation in Honan, the Executive Yuan in December, 1942, appropriated an additional sum of \$100,000,000 for immediate relief. At the same time authorization was given to the Honan provincial government to negotiate for a loan of the same amount with the Bank of China and the Farmers' Bank of China, for purchasing foodstuffs to be sold to the famine refugees at government-fixed prices.

The Farmers' Bank of China had previously decided to grant a seed wheat loan of \$5,000,000 to the Honan provincial government. In addition, the bank ordered its Honan branch to do its best to extend the general cooperative credit to the full amount of about \$8,000,000 as prescribed in the agreement between the bank and the Honan Provincial Government for 1942.

The Honan provincial government, on its part, decided to raise \$21,842,527 plus 15,750,000 piculs of cereals from among the rich landowners in the province as advance payment of their share of the land tax for 1942. The tax and cereals were collected from the landowners in 25 counties, including Loyang, which alone raised \$10,000,000. The money is being used as a sinking fund for the purchase and sale of cereals at government-fixed prices.

In response to requests from foreign missionaries in Honan appealing for help on behalf of the Honan famine sufferers, the American Advisory Committee sent over \$5,000,000, of which \$1,700,000 to buy seed grain for the affected areas, in the last three months of the year.

According to a report submitted to the United China Relief by a group of Honan representatives, all the 68 *hsien* in unoccupied Honan had been affected. These are divided into two areas, namely, the area where rice and wheat were affected and the area where miscellaneous crops were affected. The former area consists of 34 *hsien* west of Chungmu, east of Linpao, north of Yencheng and Nanchow and south of the Yellow River. In this area the harvest of rice and wheat was only 2.8 per cent. The area where miscellaneous crops were affected included all the 68 *hsien*. No detailed reports have been received from the 45 *hsien* in occupied Honan.

The unprecedented famine in Honan has its indirect cause in the fact that just at harvest time last October, Chengchow, Kwangsu, Chungmu and vicinity were invaded by the Japanese who stayed there for more than a month, resulting in the abandonment of rice crops and the delay of planting of wheat by the farmers in those districts.

The direct causes include the drought of 1941 which continued well into the spring of 1942 with frost and thunderstorms in the areas of Chengchow, Hsuehchang and Loyang. Crops around the region of Weishih, Hsihwa, Yochuan, Changke, Hsuehchang and Paofeng were affected by locusts. In Weishih, rabbits played wrought havoc to the crops.

The famine led to one of the most pathetic mass migrations. According to Bishop Megan of the Catholic Church in Loyang in a report to the American Advisory Committee, the movement of refugees started in July and by the end

of July about 1,000 people passed daily through Loyang on their way to the west. By the end of August, the number of migrating refugees had grown to 3,000 a day. This was further increased to four to five thousand in mid-September.

The Honan provincial government remitted relief funds to the local charity organizations in Loyang. Each refugee was given \$5 traveling money for the westward journey. The railway administration provided free transportation.

The pathos of these sufferers is vividly described in a letter written by Mr. E. P. Ashcraft, of the American Free Methodist Mission in Chengchow to the American Advisory Committee. The following excerpts therefrom depict some typical cases.

"Only this morning we sent food to one of our neighbors, a family that we have known for years. The mother has just given birth to a child. They had been without food for four days. The husband formerly worked as a rattan chair maker, inside decorator, etc. There is now no work at all for such craftsmen. They do not know how to beg. Have not done it before. And their case is typical of thousands. They do not have enough money to migrate to the west. All who do have already gone.

"At Mihsien a few days ago, six children were tied to one tree by their parents, so they could not follow them as they went on west in search of food. One mother, with a baby and two older children, tired from her long search for food, sat down to rest under a tree. She sent the two older children into the village ahead to beg a little food. When they returned, the mother had died from starvation, and the baby was still trying to nurse at her breast. Parents of two little children, crazed by hunger, killed both the children because they insisted on crying for food."

Moved by the miserable conditions all around them, foreign missionaries in Loyang have organized a special relief committee known as the Loyang Church Relief Committee, with Bishop Megan of the Catholic Church as chairman, Mr. Hanson of the Lutheran Church, vice-chairman, and Mr. I. A. Asperberg of the Swedish Mission, secretary-treasurer. Sub-Committees were organized in other famine-affected districts of the province. The following lines of work were being

followed by the committees in December 1942:

- (1) Helping people to stay on their land and plant their fall wheat, by giving them grants to buy seed and food to carry them over the crisis.
- (2) Direct relief to refugees passing through and care for the old and young children by giving them gifts of money.
- (3) General and medical care of children, rescue work for girls who are being sold to get money to feed the other members of the family.

The Huangshan Reconstruction Commission was granted \$50,000 in aid of its refugee relief program through land reclamation, while the Refugee Land Reclamation Association and Refugee Land Reclamation Corps in Anhwei province were granted \$90,982 and \$195,000, respectively, by the National Relief Commission.

The work of helping the students in occupied areas in their travel to Free China in 1942 was carried out in cooperation with a special committee organized by the National Military Council. Funds appropriated in this connection totalled \$972,338.

The organization and training of refugees to participate in productive and constructive activities continue to be one of the central objectives of the Commission's work. The 1942 program calls for training of 40,000 refugees every three months. By August, 1942, there were ten refugee organizations and training centers at Kunming, Shenpa, Wanhhsien, Huanglungshan, Nanping, Shantung, Hsingchu, Sian, Kweilin and Tunshi.

By August, 1942, the number of refugee employment bureaus established by the Commission was increased to 95. The Commission circularized instructions assigning these bureaus to secure jobs each month for at least five per cent of the total number of refugees in their respective districts. Old and decrepit refugees as well as women and children unable to do strenuous work were given small amounts of money as capital with which to start some trade on a small scale. Effective from November, 1941, the amount given was increased from \$10 to \$30 each person. It was estimated that by the end of 1942, 6,298 refugees would have been benefited by this plan.

The number of orphans cared for in the Commission's own orphanages up to end of April, 1942 totalled 11,030. Five new homes were established in Honan and Shensi provinces where more than 2,500 children stricken by war and famine were given shelter and education.

By the end of 1941, the Commission was maintaining 20 refugee factories, one experimental farm, a refugee women's factory and women's handicraft bureau, scattered in Szechwan, Sikang, Hunan, Kiangsi, Yunnan, Anhwei, Fukien, Shensi and Kansu and Shanghai. In 1942, the Chungking refugee women's factory was closed.

A further extension of the Credit Loan Service was effected in 1942. Since October, 1941, 14 new credit loan offices have been established in the provinces of Kwangsi, Kiangsi, Hupeh, Hunan, Shensi, Kweichow, Kansu, Fukien, Honan and Szechwan bringing the total number of such offices to 84.

In 1942 the Commission's medical relief organizations clinics, health stations and circuit medical corps numbered 28. Appropriations for these organizations totalled \$730,320. The number of patients treated up to the end of September totalled 288,365.

Fifty-five private hospitals and clinics and other philanthropic organizations engaged in medical relief work received \$600,705 from the Commission in 1942. A total of 55,725 patients were treated.

Medical relief work in the various war zones and guerilla districts in 1942 cost the Commission \$295,000. Appropriations made in this connection included a monthly subsidy of \$5,000 each for the medical relief organizations and mobile medical corps of the World Swastika Society, \$15,000 for the Fukien Provincial Relief Commission, the Christian First-Aid Corps at Linyin in Honan province, the Chinese Mission to Lepers in Shanghai and a hospital at Changchow in Fukien province. An additional \$60,000 was granted to the Hsiangya (Yale-in-China) Hospital at Changsha and \$20,000 to the refugee hospital maintained by the Ninth Section.

Medicines and medical supplies distributed among hospitals and health organizations cooperating with the Commission in medical relief work up to September, 1942, were valued at \$957,601. Beginning from July 1, 1942, efforts

were made to improve the medical and health provisions in the various orphanages maintained and subsidized by the Commission. Medicines and supplies which have been distributed since then totalled 439 kinds valued at \$198,000.

NATIONAL REFUGEE CHILDREN'S ASSOCIATION

Best known in the field of wartime child welfare work is the National Refugee Children's Association founded in Hankow in March, 1938 by Madame Chiang Kai-shek. This organization has provided anchorage for China's young ones, orphaned or semi-orphaned by Japan's war of aggression while thousands of warphans who would otherwise have been killed or "kidnapped" by the Japanese have been rescued from the war zones and sheltered and educated in the Association's network of orphanages.

At one time, the Association maintained a string of 49 orphanages housing 25,000 of China's future citizens. As time went on, however, many have "graduated" and secured jobs while others have been claimed back by their parents. To date, over 5,000 of the children have been sent away. Among them,

3,000 were assigned to study in middle schools and 2,000 were sent to factories as apprentices.

The majority of the children on the student list were sent to three government middle schools, two in Yungchuan, Szechwan province and one in Chihkiang, western Hunan. The apprentices were placed in factories, governmental and private, located near their orphanages. The students continue to draw their support from the warphanages they came from during the first year in school. Afterwards, their fees and expenses will be covered by loans and scholarships granted by the Ministry of Education. Those under training in factories, likewise, are supported by their respective orphanages during the period of their apprenticeship.

At present, the Association is caring for more than 20,000 warphans in its 37 orphanages in ten Free China provinces. Seven of these warphanages are maintained by the Association's head office in Chungking while the remaining 30 are under the management of its 12 branches throughout Free China. The date of founding of these branches and the number of warphanages under their management are shown in the following table:

<i>Branch Associations</i>	<i>Date of Founding</i>	<i>Warphanages</i>	<i>Location</i>
Szechwan Branch	April 24, 1938	5	Chungking
Chengtu Branch	May 29, 1938	3	Chengtu
Kweichow Branch	May 22, 1938	3	Kweiyang
Kwangsi Branch	May 22, 1938	2	Kweilin
Kwangtung Branch	April 22, 1938	4	Kukong
Hunan Branch	June 5, 1938	3	Leiyang
Kiangsi Branch	April 4, 1938	2	Taiho
Chekiang Branch	June 5, 1938	2	Chingning
Fukien Branch	May 14, 1938	1	Nanping
Shensi Branch	June 10, 1941	2	Sian
Shensi-Kansu-Ningsia Border Branch	July 4, 1938	1	Fushih
Shansi Branch	Jan., 1940	2	unreported

The date of founding and location of the 37 warphanages are shown as follows:—

Under the Association's General Headquarters:—

<i>Orphanages</i>	<i>Date of Founding</i>	<i>Location</i>
First Orphanage	Jan. 1, 1942	Koloshan
Third Orphanage	June 2, 1939	North Bank
Fourth Orphanage	June 24, 1939	Pishan
Fifth Orphanage	Aug., 1939	Pishan
Seventh Orphanage	Aug. 1, 1939	Nanchuan
Eighth Orphanage	Sept. 1939	Wanhhsien
Eleventh Orphanage	Oct. 15, 1940	North Bank
Warphans' Hostel		Chungking
Sanitorium	Oct., 1941	Koloshan

Under the Szechwan Branch Association :—

<i>Orphanages</i>	<i>Date of Founding</i>	<i>Location</i>
First Orphanage	April 24, 1938	Chungking
Second Orphanage	Jan. 1, 1939	Yungchuan
Fifth Orphanage	July 8, 1938	Hokiang
Sixth Orphanage	Sept. 29, 1938	Tzekung Municipality
Eighth Orphanage	Jan. 1, 1939	North Bank, Chungking

Under the Chengtu Branch Association :—

<i>Orphanages</i>	<i>Date of Founding</i>	<i>Location</i>
Second Orphanage	Sept. 16, 1938	Pih sien
Third Orphanage	Sept. 1, 1939	Chienyang
Fourth Orphanage	Sept. 1, 1939	Hsinchin

Under the Kweichow Branch Association :—

<i>Orphanage</i>	<i>Date of Founding</i>	<i>Location</i>
First Orphanage	Oct. 1, 1938	Kweiyang
Second Orphanage	March 8, 1939	Tungsin
Third Orphanage	Nov. 24, 1938	Tsunyi

Under the Kwangsi Branch Association :

<i>Orphanages</i>	<i>Date of Founding</i>	<i>Location</i>
First Orphanage	Aug. 2, 1938	Kweilin
Second Orphanage	July 1, 1938	Liuchow

Under the Kwangtung Branch Association :—

<i>Orphanages</i>	<i>Date of Founding</i>	<i>Location</i>
First Orphanage	July 1, 1938	Lienhsien
Second Orphanage	Oct. 19, 1938	Lienhsien
Third Orphanage	unreported	Pingshihchen
Fourth Orphanage	unreported	Lochang

Under the Hunan Branch Association :

<i>Orphanages</i>	<i>Date of Founding</i>	<i>Location</i>
First Orphanage	Aug. 1, 1938	Yungsui
Second Orphanage	Aug. 1, 1939	Chaling
Third Orphanage	Feb. 16, 1939	Yuanling

Under the Kiangsi Branch Association :

<i>Orphanages</i>	<i>Date of Founding</i>	<i>Location</i>
First Orphanage	May 1, 1938	Yunghsin
Second Orphanage	Jan. 7, 1940	Kanhhsien

Under the Chekiang Branch Association :

<i>Orphanages</i>	<i>Date of Founding</i>	<i>Location</i>
First Orphanage	July 15, 1938	Yunhohsien
Second Orphanage	Nov. 1, 1939	Sungsi (Fukien)

Under the Fukien Branch Association :

<i>Orphanage</i>	<i>Date of Founding</i>	<i>Location</i>
First Orphanage	unreported	Kienow

Under the Shensi Branch Association :

<i>Orphanages</i>	<i>Date of Founding</i>	<i>Location</i>
First Orphanage	unreported	Tsaichiapo
Second Orphanage	unreported	Sian

Under the Shensi-Kansu-Ningsia
Border Branch Association :

<i>Orphanage</i>	<i>Date of Founding</i>	<i>Location</i>
First Orphanage	Dec. 2, 1938	Fushihhsien

Under the Shensi Branch Association :

<i>Orphanages</i>	<i>Date of Founding</i>	<i>Location</i>
First Orphanage	Feb. 10, 1940	Sanyuan
Second Orphanage	unreported	Chihsien

In addition, the following organizations act as the Association's agencies in caring for warphans :—

Catholic Church	Chihkiang, Hunan
Bethel Mission Orphanage	Tushan, Kweichow
Bethel Mission Branch-Orphanage	Pichien, Kweichow
Herman Liu Orphanage	Suifu, Szechwan
War Zone Orphanage	Yunghsing, Hunan

THE CHINA WARTIME CHILD RELIEF ASSOCIATION

homes in Hankow no less than 5,000 children.

Another organization doing wartime child welfare and relief work is the China Wartime Child Relief Association founded in April, 1938 in Hankow by a group of government and Kuomintang leaders including Ku Cheng-kang, Minister of Social Affairs, and Ma Chao-chun Vice-Minister of the Kuomintang Board of Organization. Rescue corps sent out by the Association during the Hankow days brought to the provisional children's

At present, the number of warphans under the Association's care has been reduced to 3,413. Of the other 1,587 warphans, 45 per cent had been sent to schools; 28 per cent claimed back by their parents; 11 per cent had left the homes; nine per cent had died and seven per cent had been given jobs as apprentices in factories. The 3,413 warphans are cared for in six homes maintained by the Association as listed below:—

<i>Orphanages</i>	<i>Date of Founding</i>	<i>Location</i>
First Orphanage	Sept. 1, 1938	Pushih, Hunan
Second Orphanage	Aug. 22, 1938	Kancheng, Hunan
Third Orphanage	Oct. 1, 1938	Tungan, Hunan
Fourth Orphanage	Sept. 1, 1938	Wanhshien, Szechwan
Fifth Orphanage	Aug. 1, 1939	Fenghuang, Hunan
Sixth Orphanage	July, 1939	Shanjao, Kiangsi

THE NATIONAL CHILD WELFARE ASSOCIATION OF CHINA

The National Child Welfare Association of China is the oldest organization of the kind in the country. Dr. H. H. Kung, Vice-president of the Executive Yuan and Minister of Finance, is its founder and president. The Association, in addition to its ordinary care for orphans, has also actively engaged in the relief of refugee children. The work was begun in Shanghai shortly after the outbreak of hostilities on August 13, 1937, with the establishment of a refugee children's camp and a nursery. In the former were sheltered more than 400 war-stricken children ranging in age from 4 to 14. In the nursery were 40 deserted babies below four years old.

The Shanghai orphanage established by the Association ten years previously continued to care for 140 children between 6 and 12.

The Association started its wartime child welfare work in the rear in the summer of 1938 when its headquarters was removed from Shanghai to Chungking. It organized and sent rescue corps to the various war zones and placed the rescued warphans in a string of homes set up in the provinces of Szechwan, Shensi, and Honan. At present it maintains ten orphanages in these provinces, caring for a total of 5,025 warphans. The orphanages, their location and number of children cared for are listed below :—

Orphanages	No. of Orphans	Location
Institute for Soldiers' Children	254	Chungking
Wanh sien Orphanage	563	Szechwan
Fenghsiang Orphanage	400	Shensi
Meih sien Orphanage	220	Shensi
Weipei Orphanage	245	Shensi
Sian Orphanage	78	Shensi
Chingyang Orphanage	216	Shensi
Yuh sien Orphanage	1,177	Honan
Hsuchang Orphanage	1,462	Honan
Tenghsien Orphanage	410	Honan

Relief of war-stricken children in occupied areas and guerilla districts was done in cooperation with the National Christian Council. At one time, no less than 6,430 orphans were cared for in more than 20 homes located in enemy-occupied cities in the provinces of Kiangsu, Chekiang, and Honan. Helping in this humanitarian task of the Association were 150 foreign missionaries.

The Association's orphanages in centers under Japanese control were distributed as follows: four in Soochow caring for 400 children; one in Sungkiang, 60 children; 10 in Chinkiang, 3,000 children; eight in Hangchow, 1,500 children; one in Kashing, 200 children; three in Huchow, 200 children; two in Shanghai, 906 children. In Honan province, an orphanage was established at Loyang caring for 164 children.

This aspect of the Association's work has been affected by the Pacific War, but efforts are being made to continue these institutes for homeless children wherever possible.

NATIONAL CHRISTIAN SERVICE COUNCIL FOR WOUNDED SOLDIERS

The far-flung network of army relief organizations maintained by the National Christian Service Council for Wounded Soldiers in all war areas gave aid to 1,882,711 officers and soldiers during the period January to October, 1942, according to a report released by the Council. The beneficiaries included 60,052 wounded soldiers in transit and 1,822,659 troops marching to the front.

The Council was organized in Hankow in April, 1938, by the General Assembly of the Church of Christ in China, with Dr. H. H. Kung, Vice-President of the Executive Yuan and Minister of Finance, serving as president and Dr. T. C. Fan as general secretary.

During the battles of Hsuechow and Wuhan, the Council maintained a string of receiving stations at Hsuechow in Kiangsu, Kaifeng, Chengchow, Loyang, Hsuechang and Sinyang in Honan and Tayueh, Yangsin and Sianning in eastern Hupeh. With the rapid changes in the war situation, the Council removed its headquarters from Hankow to Chungking in the latter part of 1938 and organized more than 20 mobile service units in various war areas.

In 1940, these units were dissolved in compliance with instructions from Chinese military authorities and their personnel was distributed among 120 newly-established hostels for "honor soldiers." By the spring of 1942, the number of such hostels was increased to 140.

The number of branch offices, hostels for "honor soldiers" and staff members distributed in the various provinces are shown in the following table:—

Province	No. of Branches	No. of Hostels	No. of Staff
Kiangsi	3	14	106
Kwangtung	1	10	62
Kwangsi	3	14	106
Hunan	3	14	106
Honan	3	36	216
Hupeh	2	24	162
Shensi	2	14	92
Yunnan		4	20
Chekiang	2	6	54
Shansi	1	4	32
Szechwan	2		24
TOTAL	22	140	980

Attached to each branch is a service unit consisting of three to 15 persons whose duties are to look after wounded soldiers. The hostels are located along the different routes through which wounded soldiers are transported from the fronts to base hospitals. There is

one hostel every 15 kilometers. In each hostel is a director with four staff members. Their duties are to provide food and tea, to dress wounds and help wounded soldiers in whatever way

they can. Besides wounded soldiers, troops and civilian refugees are also aided by these hostels. The services rendered during the period January to October, 1942 are shown in the following table:—

Month	Wounded Soldiers	No. of Beneficiaries	Civilian Refugees	Dead Bodies Buried
January	7,930	15,440	4,400	nil
February	3,240	6,000	3,910	nil
March	6,390	16,260	2,089	nil
April	6,278	114,185	2,028	nil
May	4,691	159,096	423	nil
June	5,131	185,990	731	3
July	5,856	583,789	1,040	52
August	6,811	442,871	130	5
September	9,291	218,649	105	14
October	4,434	80,379	55,746	1
TOTAL	60,052	1,822,659	68,602	75

Whenever there is a lull on the front, the Council's workers at the hostels are engaged in their spare time in mass education and war propaganda work. In 1942, 85 mass education schools with a total enrolment of 9,807 students were conducted. In addition, 54 "honor soldiers" service clubs were organized, to which 2,920 Chinese villagers were admitted as members. Both

students of the mass education schools and members of these clubs were mobilized into service for wounded soldiers.

The following table shows the activities in propaganda and publicity undertaken by the workers of the various hostels for "honor soldiers" during the period January to October, 1942:—

Publicity Methods	No. of Times or Copies	Attendance or Beneficiaries
Drama Performances	75	10,540
Monthly Meetings	65	107,000
Anniversary Meetings	50	129,000
House-to-House Visits	311	1,340
Periodicals	9,090	
Wall Newspapers	2,750	
War Cartoons	1,900	

Y.M.C.A. EMERGENCY SERVICE TO SOLDIERS

The motto, "Service Above Self" of the Chinese Y.M.C.A., was extended to China's soldiers with the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war in 1937. With experience in war work gained in connection with the campaign along the Great Wall in 1933 and again with the campaign in Suiyuan in 1936, the Y.M.C.A. in August, 1937, organized its Emergency Service to Soldiers with Mr. Hsiao Feng-yuan, former general secretary of the Peiping Y.M.C.A., as director. During the past five and a half years, the activities of its staff of

more than 300 covered the 18 provinces of Hopei, Honan, Shantung, Shansi, Shensi, Kiangsu, Anhwei, Hupeh, Hunan, Szechwan, Kwangsi, Kiangsi, Kwangtung, Chekiang, Kweichow, Suiyuan, Fukien and Yunnan.

During the early stages of the war the Service had its first headquarters at Tsinan, Shantung, and its working force scattered along the Tung-Pu, Lunghai, Ping-Han and Tsin-Pu railways. By January, 1938, as the tide of war had shifted southward the Service removed its headquarters to Chengchow in Honan. In June of the same year it was further transferred to Hsuehchang in Honan and

Hankow in Hupeh. Then it had 20 service units stationed in the four main districts of Shensi, Honan, Szechwan-Hupeh and Hunan-Kiangsi.

The withdrawal of Chinese forces from the Wuhan sector necessitated further removal of the service headquarters to Chungking. The working districts were increased to six, namely, Shensi, Szechwan-Hupeh, Shansi-Honan, Hunan-Kiangsi, Hunan-Kwangtung and Kwangsi. The number of service units was increased to 30.

The organization was again reshuffled in October, 1939, when the service zone was divided into five districts of Shensi-Honan, Szechwan-Hupeh, Hunan-Kiangsi, Hunan-Kweichow and Kwangsi.

Since the removal to Chungking of the National Committee of the Y.M.C.A., after the outbreak of the Pacific War, the Service's headquarters has been attached to the National Committee with offices in Chungking. Its service units have been increased to 38 and the working zone has been redivided into seven districts, namely, Suiyuan, Shensi, Honan-Hupeh, Chekiang-Fukien, Kiangsi-Kwangtung, Yunnan and Hunan-Kwangsi.

The forms of service fall under four main categories: (1) education and publicity, (2) comforting and receiving soldiers, (3) dressing wounds and giving first aid, and (4) entertainment and recreation. Under these categories are club-houses for army officers and soldiers; receiving stations for wounded soldiers; dressing stations, mobile service units showing motion pictures and lantern slides and giving performances in modern drama; service units attached to armies, on troop and Red Cross trains and aboard ships; letter-writing stations for soldiers, dormitories, dining halls, bath houses and barber shops. The Service also publishes wall papers, organizes singing corps, provides athletic facilities, holds discussion meetings and conducts mass education classes, all for the benefit of soldiers.

FRIENDS OF THE WOUNDED SOCIETY

Over and above the multitudes of civilian refugees are China's wounded soldiers, equally if not more in need of relief, medical and otherwise. One of the civic organizations engaged in this important branch of war relief work is the Friends of the Wounded Society, which in the early summer of 1940 became a national organization under the auspices of the New Life Movement Association.

The man who was mainly responsible for the organization of the Society is Mr. William Hsu, American-trained educator. He was formerly principal of a Methodist Mission middle school in "occupied" China. Disgusted with the Japanese attempts to interfere with his school, he decided to come to Free China.

When he arrived at Hengyang in Hunan, thousands of wounded soldiers were gathered there following the big fire in Changsha in 1938. He was deeply moved by their appalling plight and he resolved to do something for them. The spirit of giving was then prevailing as Christmas was approaching. But goodwill among men could be better expressed by aid to the suffering. He invited several friends to a meeting and several thousand dollars were raised as a winter-garment fund for the wounded soldiers. The beginning of what was to become a nation-wide Friends of the Wounded Movement happened in Hengyang on December 23, 1938, when the Hengyang branch of the Society was inaugurated.

From Hengyang he proceeded to Kweilin, capital of Kwangsi province, where he was supposed to assume his office as head of the Kweilin Branch of the Chinese Industrial Cooperatives. He had, however, already determined on his wartime career and his determination was strengthened when he succeeded in raising more money at Kweilin for the wounded. The Kweilin chapter of the Friends of the Wounded Society was founded on January 23, 1939. He came to Chungking to continue his efforts for the promotion of the Friends of the Wounded Movement on a wider scale.

In the wartime capital, Mr. Hsu succeeded in enlisting the support of many local organizations and individuals. Among the latter was Madame Chiang Kai-shek who suggested that the Friends of Wounded work should be made one of the principal activities of the New Life Movement Association.

Thus a membership campaign of the Friends of the Wounded Society was launched in Chungking on the occasion of the celebration of sixth anniversary of the founding of the New Life Movement Association on February 19, 1940, which also marked the establishment of the Society's national headquarters in Chungking. Ten teams were organized, namely, Party, Women, Political, Military and Police, Educational, International, Youth, Commercial, Agricultural and Labor and Industrial. The results of the

campaign are shown in the following table :—

<i>Teams</i>	<i>Members</i>	<i>Group Members</i>
Party	235,405	258
Women	25,176	15
Political	37,763	125
Military and Police	186,092	36
Educational	63,948	68
International	13,991	12
Youth	66,992	4
Commercial	13,144	74
Agricultural & Labor	32,990	8
Industrial	27,646	12
Special Donors	34	10
TOTAL	703,181	622

Membership fees and other contributions received up to the end of 1941, totalled \$7,204,298.09. The sums collected by the Society's national head-

quarters and by the various teams during the period 1939-41 are shown in the following table :—

National Headquarters	AMOUNTS			
	1939 \$60,651.79	1940	1941	TOTAL \$60,651.79
TEAMS—				
Party		\$2,485,879.60	\$2,436,960.08	\$4,922,839.68
Political		362,709.37	81,427.39	444,136.76
Military & Police		278,878.38	22,954.28	301,832.66
Educational		155,611.55	28,156.56	183,768.11
Agricultural & Labor		53,366.16	6,104.00	59,470.16
Commercial		55,204.49	2,886.00	58,090.49
Women ...		553,600.77	879.00	554,479.77
Industrial		36,023.89	113,892.65	149,916.54
Youth ...		89,082.77	14,657.85	103,740.62
International		113,915.80	5,308.50	119,224.30
Special ...		90,305.85	89,959.53	180,265.38
Other Donations			70,846.09	70,846.09
TOTAL	\$60,651.79	\$4,274,578.63	\$2,874,031.93	\$7,209,262.35

The Society's National Headquarters in Chungking directs 156 service corps consisting of 702 workers, both men and women. They are stationed in various hospitals and convalescent camps in the neighborhood of Chungking, and their work consists of prescribing diet,

delousing, providing baths, laundry, sewing and other services needed by the wounded soldiers. The numbers of wounded soldiers benefited by these service corps during the period 1939-41 are shown in the following table :—

SERVICE	Number of Wounded Soldiers Helped			
	1939	1940	1941	TOTAL
SPECIAL DIET—				
Liquid	136	59,422	99,211	158,769
Half-Liquid	97	36,563	196,563	233,223
Beri-Beri	60	2,123	7,938	10,121
Saltless Food	74	3,427	9,364	12,865
Delousing	214	16,200	34,165	50,579
Bathing	129	62,566	266,155	328,850
Scabies	96	4,316	21,316	25,728
Laundry	327	72,594	360,870	433,791
Sewing	269	20,988	361,250	382,507
Health Supplies		6,783	15,960	22,743
Ordinary Diet		146,399	2,907,440	3,053,839
TOTAL	1,402	431,381	4,280,232	4,713,015

One of Mr. Hsu's slogans for his F. O. W. work is "crippled but not disabled." Early in 1941, he enlisted the cooperation of the Chinese Industrial Cooperatives and the Relief Commission of the Chinese Red Cross for the organization of a commission for the rehabilitation of wounded soldiers. The principal task was to put the crippled back on their feet by setting up industrial cooperatives for them. The three organizations constituting the commission take care of different aspects of the work. The Relief Commission of the Chinese Red Cross takes care of the orthopedic work with Kweiyang and Chungking as centers. The C.I.C. follows up with training the wounded in simple handicrafts. The F. O. W. extends financial

aid to the cooperatives in the form of loans at the low interest rate of 2 per cent.

To date, the establishment of 37 crippled soldiers industrial cooperatives at Chungtu, Kwangsi ; Hsingkuo, Kiangsi, Paoki, Shensi ; Kweiyang, Kweichow and Chungking has been reported to the Society's national headquarters in Chungking. Of these, those in Chungtu, Hsingkuo, Paoki and Chungking reported a total membership of 941. No reports have been received from those cooperatives established or planned in Chengyuan in Kweichow and Chengku in Shensi. Loans extended by the Society totalled \$143,000. The following table shows the distribution of cooperatives, membership and loans :—

Cities	No. of Cooperatives	Membership	Loans
Chungtu	14	370	\$30,000
Hsingkuo	14	414	40,000
Paochi	2	57	18,000
Kweiyang	5	unreported	20,000
Chenyuan	unreported	unreported	20,000
Chengku	unreported	unreported	10,000
Chungking	2	100	5,000
TOTAL	37	941	\$143,000

NATIONAL WOMEN'S WAR RELIEF ASSOCIATION

Chinese women have been active in war relief. A cross section of their activities may be found in the work of the Chinese National Women's War Relief Association. During the past five and a half years, the Association has collected as gifts for the troops, wounded and sick soldiers, the air force, soldiers' families and orphans cash and materials valued at many millions of dollars.

The Association was organized on August 1, 1937, in Nanking with Madame Chiang Kai-shek as president while more than 50 Chinese women leaders serve as its directors. Its headquarters has been twice removed, to Hankow and thence to Chungking, from which the work of more than 40 branches scattered in the provinces of Honan, Kwangtung, Shensi, Hunan, Szechwan, Kweichow, Fukien, Yunnan and Kwangsi is directed.

The Association's work in terms of cash and materials collected during the past five and a half years for war relief is

shown in the following table:

<i>Description of Gifts</i>	<i>Amounts</i>
Cash	\$2,681,288.23
Medicines	1,500,000.00
Cotton-padded Coats	200,000 pieces
Cotton-padded overcoats	450,000 pieces
Cotton-padded vests	25,000 pieces
Underwear	28,440 pieces
Leather overcoats	1,000 pieces
Leather vests	1,000 pieces
Raincoats	5,000 pieces
Gloves	30,000 pairs
Woolen Sweaters	1,000 pieces
Socks	25,000 pairs
Straw Sandals	898 pairs
Army blankets	14,701 pieces
Cotton-padded quilts	3,048 pieces
Mosquito nets	20,000 pieces
Towels	43,774 pieces
Eatables	35,000 bags
Soap	60,000 cakes
Toothbrushes	10,000
Flashlights	3,000
Generators	8,000
Tangerines	120,000
Eggs	10,000
Milk	10,158 cans
Moon-cakes	20,000 pieces
Rice	4,000 piculs
Cigarettes	10,150 tins
"Honor Soldier" Badges	30,000
Surgical Cotton	2,000 pounds
Ambulances	5
Beef	6,000 catties (16 ounces)

The Association maintains three factories for soldiers' families, namely, a spinning and weaving factory at Peisa, another at Peipei and a sewing

factory in Chungking. The work of these factories during the period October, 1941 to September, 1942, is described in the following table:—

<i>Factories</i>	<i>No. of Workers</i>	<i>No. of Machines</i>	<i>Output</i>
Peisa Factory	230	80	3,657 bolts of cloth 3,726 dozens of towels 3,155 pieces of clothing
Peipei Factory	60	30	3,336 bolts of cloth 3,960 dozens of towels
Chungking Factory	24	3	8,400 pieces of clothing

Under the Association's auspices, four medical and surgical corps have been organized and stationed in hospitals in various parts of the country for the

treatment of wounded soldiers, airmen and orphans. The personnel of these corps and their location are shown as follows:—

<i>Names</i>	<i>Personnel</i>	<i>Location</i>
The Fifth Corps	A leader, a doctor and five nurses	Clinic for Orphans, Kolo-shan, Chungking
The Sixth Corps	A leader, two doctors, eight nurses and a secretary	Air Force Hospital in Yunnan
The Seventh Corps	A leader, a doctor, seven nurses, and three staff members	14th Base Hospital, Kian, Kiangsi
The Eighth Corps	A leader, two doctors, 13 nurses and two assistants	A hospital in Kanhsien, Kiangsi

The work of these four medical and surgical corps during the period

September, 1941 to July, 1942, is shown in the following table:—

Medical Treatment	43,958 persons	Anti-Smallpox Injections	2,363 persons
Operation	569 times	Physical Examinations	892 persons
Dressing Wounds	19,701 times	Diagnosis	805 times
Scabies	4,198 persons	X-Ray Tests	363 times
Preventive Inoculations	49,553 persons	Air-Raid Wounded Treatment	46 persons

To look after wounded soldiers, the Association's eight "Honor Soldier"

service units are stationed in various base hospitals as listed below:

<i>Names</i>	<i>Location</i>
First "Honor Soldier" Service Unit	99th Base Hospital, Tzeyang, Hupeh
Second "Honor Soldier" Service Unit	160th Base Hospital, Wanhhsien, Szechwan
Third "Honor Soldier" Service Unit	11th Military Hospital, Changshou, Szechwan
Fourth "Honor Soldier" Service Unit	53rd Base Hospital, Nansi, Szechwan
Ninth "Honor Soldier" Service Unit	14th Base Hospital, Hokiang, Szechwan
11th "Honor Soldier" Service Unit	Ninth Military Hospital, Hochuan, Szechwan
12th "Honor Soldier" Service Unit	131st Base Hospital, Kiangtsin, Szechwan
16th "Honor Soldier" Service Unit	10th Military Hospital, Wanhhsien Szechwan

The work of these service units during the period 1938 to 1942 is reviewed in the following table:

<i>Description of Work</i>	<i>No. of Persons Helped</i>
Bath	160,716
Laundry	140,352
Nutrition	139,134
Sewing and Patching	99,345
Education	76,335
Writing Letters	67,626
Delousing	54,000
Manicure	34,560
Barber	28,800
Medical Treatment	13,140
TOTAL ...	814,008

FOREIGN RELIEF ACTIVITIES

Foreign relief funds for war and distress in China up to the end of 1942 totalled well over NC\$200,000,000. Funds transmitted to China from the proceeds of the United China Relief campaign in America during 1941 and the first three months of 1942 amounted

to US\$2,668,559 while those allocated for the period April 1, 1942 to March 31, 1943 amounted to US\$5,355,750. Britain's contribution through the medium of the Lord Mayor's Fund totalled £260,000 while the United Aid to China Fund, launched in London on July 7, 1942 under the leadership of Lady Cripps, was scheduled to have reached the goal of £250,000 by October 10, 1942. Of this, the first instalment of £120,000 has been remitted to China.

I. UNITED CHINA RELIEF

The United China Relief was formed in the United States in the spring of 1941 to coordinate the activities of the eight major American relief agencies. Its goal, originally set at US\$5,000,000 and later extended to US\$7,000,000, was scheduled to have been reached before the end of 1942.

The agencies which have cooperated in this united effort for the benefit of China and the amounts allocated to them from January, 1941, to the middle of March, 1942, are:

Funds Transmitted to China by United China Relief during 1941 and the first three months of 1942.

By Agencies participating in United China Relief—

<i>New York Committee</i>	<i>China Organization</i>	US \$
American Bureau for Medical Aid to China	American Bureau for Medical Aid to China	772,855
American Committee in Aid of Chinese Industrial Cooperatives	International Committee for Chinese Industrial Cooperatives; and Chinese Industrial Cooperatives	167,779
American Friends' Service Committee	Friends' Ambulance Unit	78,284
Associated Boards for Christian Colleges in China	13 Christian Colleges and Universities	319,778
American Committee for Chinese War Orphans and China Aid Council	National Association for Refugee Children—China Defense League	95,774
China Emergency Relief Committee		5,217
Church Committee for China Relief	American Advisory Committee	757,469
World Student Service Fund (Added later)	National Student Relief Committee	
By United China Relief, Inc.		73,864
Expenditures in United States for Servicing Programs in China		57,468
Cash Balance, including Appropriations made, Expenditures Incomplete		340,071
GRAND TOTAL U.S. \$2,668,559		

The fact that one-third of the funds transmitted was sent during the first three months of 1942 indicates the accelerated rate at which funds were received during the year.

The various types of relief which foreign agencies are engaged in are best illustrated by the summary in the report of the United China Relief published in March, 1942, for the period from January, 1941, to the middle of March, 1942, approximately fifteen months.

<i>Type of Work</i>	US \$
1. Medical and Public Health Programs	\$ 982,667
2. Child Welfare Programs	198,629
3. Educational Programs	338,784
4. Programs of Economic Reconstruction	201,779
5. Disaster Relief	385,729
Total of Relief Distributed	2,107,588
6. Other funds either available or used but not reported above	540,915
Total Contribution by United China Relief to March, 1942	US \$2,271,021

With the above funds, the medical and public health programs cared for 64,162 patients in 82 hospital clinics, dispensaries and first aid stations; operated several dozen mobile medical units in connection with four hospitals in guerilla areas; organized bands of volunteer students and teachers from university hospitals who organized themselves into units to assist wounded soldiers in transit; paid half of the cost of setting up the Friends' Ambulance Unit for civilian relief; purchased 12,000,000 doses of cholera vaccine, quinine for 100,000 persons, kala-azar for 2,500 children, antitoxins for 1,000 persons, medical supplies and equipment to the extent of US \$305,226; paid for training of medical personnel, US \$407,635; and gave other medical aid costing US \$37,400.

Child welfare programs included the complete care of 2,316 orphans for one year and indirect assistance to 25,000 children in Madame Chiang Kai-shek's 45 homes for orphans (later reduced to 37); the care of 20,160 children in 61 day nurseries; and aid to bean milk feeding projects and baby food and vitamin wafer projects.

Between April 1, 1942 and March 31, 1943, United China Relief earmarked US \$750,000 for helping the work of the National Refugee Children's

Association. Separate monthly grants and single grants are also being made to other child welfare organizations through the American Advisory Committee. Grants are also given to maintain a technical training center for warphans in the Northwest and fourteen children's nurseries in Yen-an through the China Defense League. The China Defense League is headed by Madame Sun Yat-sen.

The educational programs include emergency projects for the support of students, faculty and staff, and relief projects in cooperation with the 13 Christian colleges and universities in China which have 8,000 students.

University faculty members and their immediate families are among the beneficiaries of United China Relief funds. The American contributions also help to educate the children of faculty members and to give allowances for emergency needs.

This UCR wartime aid supplements the recent Chinese Government measure of helping full-time university professors and assistant professors serving in government or private universities. The Ministry of Education, which is in charge of the distribution of the \$2,000,000 special grant made by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek for this purpose, provides funds for research and publication. In the case of faculty members with families of more than five immediate dependants, \$200—\$400 monthly allowance is being granted. In the field of medical aid the Government gives a loan to cover expenses above \$500, to be repaid within five years after the end of the war.

The UCR medical aid to faculty members covers cost of hospitalization, operation fees, laboratory fees, prescribed medicines and cost of calls at outpatient departments. In giving educational aid to children, UCR money pays for the tuition of children in excess of two in the family of any faculty member. It is available from primary school through college. In the case of emergency aid, grants are made to cover bombing and evacuation losses and burial expenses. The amount of the aid given and the validity of the request will rest with the UCR's Committee for Aid to University Faculty, which is headed by Dr. Chang Po-ling, president of Nankai University and a member of the presidium of the People's Political Council.

Of the US\$200,000, which was equivalent to NC\$3,670,000 at that time (the official rate between US \$1 and NC\$18.35 was subsequently slightly changed), NC\$2,400,000 was used for medical aid. The children's education program received NC\$900,000, while emergency aid got NC\$370,000. In carrying out the program, the cooperation of the National Student Relief Committee and the International Relief Committee was solicited. Efforts are made to avoid overlapping and duplication of the UCR's service and the Chinese Government's aid to faculty members and their families.

The local committees on faculty aid under UCR arranges for accredited doctors and hospitals to give satisfactory service at the most reasonable rates to patients sent to them. The plan is to arrange some form of blanket medical service with a local hospital, covering physical examination, as well as the care and prevention of disease. Such a policy, it is believed, is more economical and effective than the payment of medical bills and other expenses incurred individually.

As a principle, the aid is confined to those giving full time as members of university faculties. Those doing outside remunerative work or giving only part time service are not eligible to this aid. Exceptional cases are left to the careful consideration and discretion of the committees empowered to grant funds. The personnel of university faculty rank serving in non-commercial research institutes and academies are also eligible for consideration for aid under the terms of this fund.

At least 60,000 students in 70 schools in Free China are being aided by United China Relief money contributed by their sympathetic American friends. Between July, 1941 and June, 1942, 10,000 students were aided through the UCR.

UCR student aid comes in the form of living subsidies, work relief, travel aid and other grants. The Chinese Government, in an effort to improve the living conditions of students, is feeding them with cheap government rice and extending small loans to those coming from occupied or war areas. The *San Min Chu I* Youth Corps Headquarters, with the cooperation of the Ministry of Education, has established reception centers at places near war zones for the benefit of students migrating to the interior.

Work relief and living subsidies are the most common forms of UCR student grants, which are made through local student relief committees. Other grants include funds or necessities, clothing, and summer work projects. In several cases, money has been allocated for operating student hostels. Scholarship grants were given to one school, while a student sanitarium was built in another place by UCR money.

Another UCR aid project to Chinese youths is selected relief. The measure calls for choosing 200 promising students from universities for helping to build postwar China. They will be given at least NC\$3,000 a year each. During their university years they will be subject to constant tutorial guidance in the choice of studies and also in their school life in general. During vacations they will be gathered together nationally or regionally to have an extended period of intensive camp training, or to take tours of educational value. The whole project requires an annual provision of NC\$700,000.

In Sha Ping Pa, Chungking's educational district, where 7,300 students are enrolled in National Central University, Chungking University, Central Industrial Technical College, Nankai Middle School and Szechwan Provincial Teachers' College, grants anticipated from UCR between July, 1942 and June, 1943, are NC\$500,000. Sixty per cent of the money is for living subsidies, 10 per cent for a service center, 10 per cent for travel aid, 5 per cent for initial expenses for new students and 15 per cent for summer work projects. Probably NC\$350,000 will be allocated for National Chiao Tung University (branch) and Fuhtan University at another center near Chungking. The money, which will help 3,510 students, will be divided into: 50 per cent for living subsidies, 25 per cent for work relief and 25 per cent for summer work projects.

In Chengtu, UCR has been requested to give NC\$120,000 for 2,700 students in West China Union University, University of Nanking, Ginling College for Women, Cheeloo University, West China Theological Seminary, Kwanghua University, the Agricultural College of the National Szechwan University and the Medical College of the National Central University. Seventy per cent is for necessities grants, 10 per cent for winter clothing, 10 per cent for a service center and 10 per cent for summer work projects.

In Chengku, Kulouba and Hanchung, Shensi province, Northwest China's new educational bases, the UCR has been approached for grants amounting to NC\$50,000 for 3,000 students. Seventy per cent of the fund is for travel aid and 30 per cent for living subsidies.

The 4,000 students in the National Southwest Associated University and the National Yunnan University in Kunming, Yunnan province, expect to receive NC\$430,000 to be split into: 55 per cent for work relief, 30 per cent for living subsidies, 5 per cent for service center and 10 per cent for summer work project.

Great China University, National Kweiyang Medical College, National HsiangYa Medical College, National Teachers' College, National Agricultural and Engineering College and Tangshan Engineering College of National Chiao Tung University which are all located in Kweiyang expect to share NC\$120,000 from the UCR pool. The money will be distributed among the aggregate enrolment of 2,000 in the form of 60 per cent for living subsidies, 30 per cent for work relief and 10 per cent for summer work projects.

United China Relief money has also benefited students in coastal Free China and will continue to aid more in the current year. In Shaowu, Yungan and Nanling, Fukien province, where 1,150 students are enrolled in Fukien Christian University and Fukien Provincial College and Hwanan Women's College, the anticipated NC\$80,000 UCR fund is for living subsidies, and necessities grants.

Many other schools in small cities are also making maximum use of UCR money. UCR money has been helping stranded students from Hongkong, Macao and Shanghai.

The programs of economic reconstruction include: (1) Grants to Chinese Industrial Cooperatives for revolving loan funds, investments in machinery, setting up cooperative units, training and special study, emergency rice subsidies and public health work, field work and administration, to a total of US\$167,779. Funds contributed before the United China Relief campaign through the International Committee for Chinese Industrial Cooperatives in Hongkong and United China Relief funds since March, 1942, bring the grand total through these channels for the Chinese Industrial Cooperatives by June 30, 1942, to over NC\$7,000,000 or US\$350,090. (2) Loans

to 7,500 farmers and tradesmen, US\$10,000. (3) Work relief projects including dike repairing, road building, spinning, making shoes, soap, mosquito netting, fish nets, by 21,000 individuals, US\$24,000.

Disaster relief include funds sent to the Changsha battle area in 1941 to support three refugee camps with 17,000 refugees, to purchase gasoline needed to evacuate the wounded, to assist in rebuilding and re-equipping the Hsiang-ya Hospital (Yale-in-China); funds sent to refugee camps in Kwangtung, Honan, Kiangsi, Shensi, Shansi and Hunan; funds sent to Chungking and other places in Szechwan for air raid victims; grants for kitchens and grain to feed 51,500 people, to provide clothing for 14,000 persons, cash grants to aid 130,000 persons in subsistence and travelling, and ambulances to help evacuate medical supplies from Rangoon.

Between April 1, 1942, and March 31, 1943, United China Relief will expend a total of US\$5,355,750 for various relief and social activities in China. This represents the major share of the US\$7,000,000 campaign now going on in the States. It is planned to launch a new fund-raising drive after the present goal is reached, so that this laudable work in China may be continued.

In allocating the funds, the relative priorities of needs are studied by UCR head-office in New York with recommendations from its committees in China. The tentative allocation of funds for 1942-1943 is 35 per cent for medical and public health, 20 per cent for education, 15 per cent for child welfare, 10 per cent for economic rehabilitation, 10 per cent for social rehabilitation and 10 per cent for disaster relief. In the use of UCR funds, close coordination is sought with both Chinese Government and private activities. The UCR program supplements but does not compete with them. It avoids overlapping and duplication. All possible local support is to be developed. In principle, UCR supports or works through existing organizations and does not lend itself to promoting new organizations. It pays special attention to worthy private organizations as agencies for utilizing its funds.

One of the important uses of UCR money is directed toward alleviating the evil effects of the rising cost of living upon private institutions and upon intellectual and middle classes. Experience

in European countries after the first World War showed such effects of the rising cost of living upon the elements that give intellectual and moral leadership. The use of UCR funds is helping to combat this evil in China—for the great benefit of society in future.

In allocating UCR money for relief or economic projects, attention is given to: first that the money should help to sustain the people by alleviating the ravages of war, counteracting effects of the rising cost of living, etc.; second, that the benefits should be realized in a reasonable time; third, the cost should not be disproportionate to the aim in view; fourth, that there should be real prospect of success; and fifth, that ordinarily new activities or expansion of old activities ought not to be begun if they can be postponed without detriment to the war effort.

Both in China and in the United States, UCR authorities and interested people are starting long term planning, bearing in mind postwar as well as current problems in China. The work carried out by UCR funds is being under constant review in China, including local inspection and investigation. All UCR programs aim to meet the needs of the Chinese people without regard for regional, sectarian or partisan considerations.

In order to realize best possible results from UCR money being expended on various projects, a number of committees have been formed, each charged with special functions. The Committee on Coordination with Dr. T. F. Tsiang, director of the Political Affairs Department of the Executive Yuan, as chairman and Dr. Arthur N. Young, financial adviser to the Ministry of Finance, as vice-chairman, is actively engaged in centralized planning and supervision of all UCR projects. There are also a medical committee headed by Dr. P. Z. King, director of the National Health Administration, and a committee on child welfare, led by Mrs. William C. Wang, secretary-general of the Women's Advisory Committee of the New Life Movement Headquarters. In addition, there is an advisory committee, with Madame Chiang Kai-shek, Ambassador C. E. Gauss, Dr. H. H. Kung and Madame Sun Yat-sen as honorary chairmen. The Committee which is constantly kept informed of the major directions of UCR work in China is requested to make recommendations from time to time. Other committees on education and

productive enterprises are being formed. The following is a summary of appropriations approved by the head-office of

United China Relief for the year April 1, 1942—March 31, 1943, with dates of payment to September 30, 1942:

	<i>Appropriated April 1, 1942- March 31, 1943</i>	<i>Paid 1st Quarter</i>	<i>Payable 2nd Quarter</i>	<i>Total Payable Sept. 30, 1942</i>
American Bureau for Medical Aid to China	US \$1,500,000	331,000	375,000	706,000
National Association for Refugee Children	750,000	100,000	216,000	316,000
Associated Boards of Christian Colleges	630,000	220,000	140,000	360,000
International Committee for Productive Relief	550,000	50,000	250,000	300,000
American Advisory Committee of the Church Committee for China Relief	1,070,000	300,000	170,000	470,000
National Student Relief Committee	175,000	25,000		25,000
China Defense League	120,000	80,000		80,000
Faculty Aid	200,000		50,000	50,000
Friends Ambulance Unit	160,000	40,000	40,000	80,000
Emergency Service to Soldiers of the Y.M.C.A.	37,500	15,000	7,500	22,500
Cost of Living Study	3,250		3,250	3,250
Middle School Faculty Aid	60,000	30,000	10,000	40,000
Contingency	100,000			
TOTAL	US \$5,355,750	1,191,000	1,261,750	2,452,750

Before the United China Relief campaign was launched, numerous organizations in the United States were engaged in war relief work in China. They included the International Missionary Council, the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America and China International Famine Relief, Inc. The latter organization had for years been securing and sending famine relief funds to China for distribution by the American Advisory Committee, which had been organized by the National Christian Council in Shanghai and had distributed several millions of dollars. A united approach was made to the American Red Cross which, after the outbreak of war in China in 1937, contributed US \$100,000 to be distributed by the American Ambassador with the assistance of an Advisory Committee appointed by him. Thus came into existence a second American Advisory Committee known as the American Advisory Committee for Civilian Relief.

In January, 1938, at the suggestion of President Roosevelt, the American

Red Cross began a financial campaign for relief in China which netted about US \$700,000. These funds were distributed by the American Advisory Committee for Civilian Relief in two forms: one, in subsidies and drugs to assist hospitals; and the other in wheat to be distributed among the destitute. This aided in maintaining the indispensable work of hundreds of mission hospitals whose paying patients had gone westward before the invading armies, and which were left to minister to increasing numbers of patients without the means of paying for either treatment or medicine.

Materials sent by the American Red Cross ran into hundreds of tons of absorbent cotton, gauze, blue drill cloth, unbleached sheeting and drugs, such as aspirin, sulfanilamide, boric acid, chloroform, emetine, ether, iodine, potassium iodide, procain hydrochil, quinine, and sodium bi-carbonate. In all, 60 hospitals in East China and 60 hospitals in West China were supplied with some 54 different kinds of drugs.

In addition, during 1941 the monthly shipment of cracked wheat and cracked rice to Shanghai, Hongkong and Canton totalled 2,200 tons. Up to July 1, 1942, the American Red Cross had sent to China money and supplies totalling US\$4,700,000 or NC\$94,000,000. Its budget for 1942 was US\$2,000,000.

In June, 1938, the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America, the Conference of Foreign Missionary Societies and China International Famine Relief, Inc., formed the Church Committee for China Relief and conducted a systematic, continuous campaign throughout the churches of America, both Protestant and Roman Catholic, to secure funds for civilian relief in China. This Committee designated the original American Advisory Committee in Shanghai as its distributing body, and from June 1, 1938 to May 31, 1940, collected and forwarded to Shanghai a total of US\$535,000. The goal set for the year 1940-41 was US\$1,000,000.

The American Advisory Committee had regional coordinating committees in Peiping, Chungking, Hankow, Tsinan and South China. The regional committee at Hankow was the International Red Cross established in the fall of 1937 by Dr. James L. Maxwell. It undertook world-wide publicity of the needs in Central China. It specialized on aid to hospitals. Since most of the

hospitals were under British auspices, there was little overlapping with the work of the American Red Cross Advisory Committee. Upon the fall of Hankow a small part of the work remained in Hankow, but central headquarters was removed to Kweiyang in Kweichow, where it continued to function in aid of medical work throughout Free China. Late in 1941 it was reconstituted as the International Relief Committee of China and in September, 1942, its headquarters was moved to Chungking.

With the outbreak of war in the Pacific, the West China Coordinating Committee in Chungking became the American Advisory Committee for the Church Committee for China Relief. It now handles allocations for all China.

During the period May 15, 1941 to January 31, 1943, a total of \$27,233,790.17 was distributed. Of this amount, \$7,313,536.27 was handled by the West China Coordinating Committee during the period May 15, 1941, to June 30, 1942, while the remaining \$19,920,253.90 was distributed during the period July, 1942 to January, 1943, when that committee became the American Advisory Committee for all China. The following two tables show the grants made from May 15, 1941 to June 30, 1942 and from July to December, 1942. For January, 1943, \$3,814,000 in grants were distributed.

Grants Made from May 15, 1941 to June 30, 1942

<i>Province</i>	<i>Amount</i>	<i>TOTAL</i>
Hunan	\$ 730,700.00	
Honan	1,403,700.00	
Shensi	130,000.00	
Fukien	83,000.00	
Szechwan	551,135.68	
Kiangsi	224,700.00	
Kwangsi	70,000.00	
Yunnan	55,000.00	
Kweichow	12,000.00	
Chekiang	158,000.00	
Hupei	5,000.00	
Kwangtung	646,000.00	\$ 4,069,235.68
<i>National Organizations</i>		
Chinese Industrial Cooperatives	137,818.09	
Chinese Red Cross	100.00	
Orphans	1,298,046.25	
International Relief Committee	1,154,000.00	
China Nutritional Aid Council	36,500.00	
National Student Relief Committee	467,836.25	
China Christian Educational Association	150,000.00	\$ 3,244,300.59
GRAND TOTAL		\$ 7,313,536.27

Grants Made from July to December, 1942

<i>Province</i>	<i>Amount</i>	<i>TOTAL</i>
Hunan	\$ 600,000.00	
Honan	6,973,393.75	
Shensi	2,040,000.00	
Fukien	786,950.00	
Szechwan	122,881.40	
Kiangsi	1,050,000.00	
Kwangsi	447,493.75	
Kweichow	99,375.00	
Hupei	46,000.00	
Kwangtung	1,400,000.00	\$13,566,093.90
<i>National Organizations</i>		
Orphans	1,008,260.00	
China International Famine Relief Committee	65,000.00	
<i>Social Organizations</i>	51,900.00	
International Relief Committee	775,000.00	1,900,160.00
<i>Middle School Relief</i>		640,000.00
GRAND TOTAL		\$16,106,253.90

The administrative expenses of the American Advisory Committee are drawn entirely from bank interest. It constitutes only three-tenths of one per cent of the total amount of funds handled. Thus every single cent of the money remitted from America has been used for relief in China.

II. BRITISH CONTRIBUTIONS

During the past five years Britain has contributed £260,000 to relief work in China through the medium of the Lord Mayor's Fund.

Other important grants have also been made. In the autumn of 1941,

£50,000 was voted by the British Government for relief of distress in China the bulk of the fund to be devoted to the Friends' Ambulance Unit. The Unit came out to the Far East in the summer of 1941, and is operating more than 60 trucks, and surgical and X-ray cars in Chinese war areas. An ambulance and surgical team of the Unit also served in the battle of Burma. Its trucks are cooperating with the International Relief Committee of China in distributing medical supplies to hospitals in China.

More recently in May, 1942, the British Government made an unconditional grant in aid to the Chinese Red Cross of £41,500, this sum being

additional to grants of £6,000 from the British Red Cross and £2,500 from the British Relief Fund. This latter fund has subsequently made a special contribution of £10,000 to Madame Chiang Kai-shek's Refugees and Orphans Fund. The Joint War Organization of the British Red Cross and St. John have made an offer to establish, equip and maintain a 200-bed Red Cross Hospital in China. The Chinese Red Cross and Medical Services have gratefully accepted this offer.

Finally, on July 7, 1942, a United Aid to China Fund was launched in London. This is sponsored by a British Fund for China Relief comprising the British Red Cross Society, China Association, Conference of the British Missionary Society, China Campaign Committee and the United Committee for Christian Universities in China, supported by other national organizations and many influential friends of China. The president of the Fund is Lady Cripps and the Bishop of Hongkong is chairman of its executive committee.

It is hoped that £250,000 will be raised by the Fund which ran an intensive campaign from July 7 to October 10, 1942. During this period, the sponsoring organs concentrated their relief activities for China on this fund, temporarily suspending their own sectional appeal, for it was desired to give a practical demonstration by this means of the united sympathy and admiration felt by the people of Britain for the people of China.

The first instalment of the funds collected by the United Aid to China Fund in Great Britain under the leadership of Lady Cripps amounted to £120,000. Since the draft for this amount was received, Madame Chiang Kai-shek has been in consultation with the British Embassy regarding its distribution. Some of the donors made specific requests regarding the application of their contribution and their wishes have been kept in mind.

After careful consideration by Madame Chiang Kai-shek, Sir Horace Seymour, British Ambassador to China, a plan of distribution was adopted which, as far as possible, makes allotments in accordance with the needs of organizations doing relief work, and also according to the wishes of the original donors. The following is the plan of distribution decided upon.

National Association for Refugee Children	£25,000
Chinese Industrial Cooperatives	20,000
Christian Institutions of Higher Learning	25,000
Chinese Red Cross	5,000
Friends of the Wounded Soldiers Society	5,000
The Chinese Blind Welfare Society	5,000
Production Work for Families of Recruits	5,000
Public Health	5,000
National Chinese Women's Association for War Relief	5,000
Honan Famine Sufferers	5,000
Relief for Faculty and Students of Christian Schools	7,000
National Christian Council	1,500
National Young Women's Christian Association	1,500
Emergency Fund	5,000

III. INDIAN CONTRIBUTIONS

Apart from these British sponsored gifts and projects, India has also shown her interest in relief work in China. In February, 1942, the Maharajah of Indore sent £3,750 to Madame Chiang Kai-shek to be devoted to the Red Cross, and on China Day, which was celebrated throughout India on March 7, the combined efforts of the government and the people of India to show the strength of the bond of sympathy between that country and China led to the collection of over Rs. 1,000,000 for Chinese relief organizations.

The first draft of Rs. 1,000,000 was sent by the Viceroy of India to Madame Chiang Kai-shek through Sir Horace Seymour, British Ambassador to China. The money was apportioned as follows:

- Rs. 500,000 to the National Association for Refugee Children.
- Rs. 200,000 to the Women's War Relief Association.
- Rs. 100,000 for promotion of production among families of recruits.
- Rs. 100,000 for Miscellaneous Emergency Fund.
- Rs. 100,000 for the Chinese Blind Welfare Society.

In addition, a large amount of medical supplies has been received from Indian friends supplying further proof of their sympathy with this country. These supplies have been handed over to the Chinese Red Cross.

APPENDIX

LIST OF UCR ORGANISATIONS IN U.S.A. AND CHINA
THROUGH WHICH UCR OPERATES

Designation	New York Committee	Designation	China Organization
ABMAC	American Bureau for Medical Aid to China	ARMAC	Chu Hwa Pan Shin Chu
ABCCC	Associated Boards for Christian Colleges in China	ABCCC	Chu Hwa Pan Shin Chu
ACCWO	American Committee for Chinese War Orphans	NARC	National Association for Refugee Children
CAC	China Aid Council	CDL	China Defense League
INDUSCO	American Committee in Aid of Chinese Industrial Cooperatives		International Committee for Chinese Industrial Cooperatives, Productive Relief Fund
CCCR	Church Committee for Chinese Relief	CIC	Chinese Industrial Cooperatives
AFSC	American Friends Service Committee	AMERCOM	American Advisory Committee
WSSF	World Student Service Fund	FAU	Friends Ambulance Unit, China Convoy
		NSRC	National Student Relief Committee
		IRC	International Relief Committee
		ESS	Emergency Service to Soldiers of YMCA
		CAUF	Committee on Aid to University Faculty

ADVISORY COMMITTEE

<i>Chairman</i>	Madame Chiang Kai-shek C. E. Gauss Dr. H. H. Kung Madame Sun Yat-sen	103 Chung San Road, Chungking American Embassy, Chungking The Executive Yuan, Chungking 3 Sin Tsuen, Liang Lo Kou, Chungking
Dr. Chang Po-lin		Nankai Middle School, Shapingpa, Chungking
Chen Li-fu		Ministry of Education, Chungking
Hsu Shih-ying		National Relief Commission, Chungking
Ku Cheng-kang		Ministry of Social Affairs, Chungking
Lt.-General J. W. Stilwell		United States Military Mission, Kuo Fu Lou, Chungking
Dr. Chung-hui Wang		Supreme National Defense Council, Chungking
Dr. C. T. Wang		Bank of Communications, Chungking
Wu Te-chen		Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, Chungking

COMMITTEE ON COORDINATION

Dr. T. F. Tsiang, <i>Chairman</i>	The Executive Yuan, Chungking
Dr. Arthur N. Young, <i>Vice-Chairman</i>	c/o Dr. C. B. Rappe, Chiu Chin Middle School, Chungking
O. Edmund Clubb	American Embassy Chungking
Mrs. William C. Wang	Women's Advisory Committee of the New Life Movement, Chungking

COMMITTEE ON COORDINATION—*Continued.*

Bishop W. Y. Chen	The National Christian Council of China, 10 Tai Chia Hang, Chungking
Dr. H. R. Wei	Dean, University of Nanking, Chungking
Dr. Phillips F. Greene	American Red Cross, Chungking
George A. Fitch	Chinese Industrial Cooperatives, 10 Tai Chia Hang, Chungking
Dr. J. Lossing Buck	University of Nanking, Hwahsipa, Chengtu
Mrs. Nora Tze Hsiung Chu	Women's Advisory Committee of the New Life Movement, Chungking
Dr. P. Z. King	National Health Administration, Chungking
Rev. C. B. Rappe	Methodist Mission, Chiu Chin Middle School, Chungking
S. Adler	Stabilization Board of China, Chungking
Rev. A. B. Vaught	Canadian Mission Business Agency, Mei Kuo Miao, Chungking
Dr. Lewis S. C. Smythe	University of Nanking, Hwashipa, Chengtu
O. K. Yui	Ministry of Finance, Chungking
Han Li-wu	Board of Trustees, British Boxer Indemnity Funds, Chungking
Dr. Franklin L. Ho	Wong Shan, South Bank, Chungking
Dr. Y. P. Mei	Yenching University, 29 Shensi Kai, Chengtu
Rt. Rev. Paul Yu-Pin	Ling Chiang Men, No. 8 Chuan Yen 3 Li, Chungking
H. C. Chang	Ministry of Social Affairs, Chungking
Dr. Robert K. S. Lim	Emergency Medical Service Training School, Tuyungkwan, Kweiyang

CHILD WELFARE COMMITTEE

Mrs. William C. Wang	Women's Advisory Committee of the New Life Movement, Chungking. (<i>Chairman</i>)
Mrs. Nora Tze Hsiung Chu	Women's Advisory Committee of the New Life Movement, Chungking. (<i>Executive Secretary</i>)
Mrs. James Stewart	American Information Service, Chiu Ching Middle School, Chungking
Miss Tien Kwei-len	Women's Advisory Committee of the New Life Movement, Chungking
Dr. R. Y. Lo	10 Tai Chia Hang, Chungking
Miss Nellie Lee	c/o Y.W.C.A., Chi Hsing Kang, Chungking
Mrs. Y. P. Mei	Yenching University, 29 Shensi Kai, Chengtu
Miss Chen Chi-yi	Women's Advisory Committee of the New Life Movement, Chungking
Mrs. Homer Liu	c/o Nanshan Primary School, Hsin Tsun, Hwang Kwa Ya, South Bank, Chungking
Dr. C. K. Chu	Director, National Institute of Health, Koloshan, Chungking
Mrs. H. C. Chang	c/o H. C. Chang, Ministry of Social Affairs, Chungking
Miss Chou Chih-lien	Women's Advisory Committee of the New Life Movement, Chungking
Miss Liu Te-wei	Ministry of Social Affairs, Chungking
Dr. Marion Yang	National Institute of Health, Koloshan

MEDICAL COMMITTEE

Dr. P. Z. King, <i>Chairman</i>	National Health Administration, Chungking
Dr. Geo. W. Bachman, <i>Executive Secretary</i>	American Bureau for Medical Aid to China, Chungking
Dr. Loo Chih-teh	Army Medical Administration, Chungking
Dr. Robert K. S. Lim	Emergency Medical Service Training School, Tuyunkuan, Kweiyang
Dr. Phillips F. Greene	American Red Cross, Chungking
Dr. P. H. Chu	Shanghai Medical College, Koloshan, Chungking

EDUCATIONAL COMMITTEE

Dr. Chang Po-lin, <i>Chairman</i>	President, Nankai University, Chungking
Han Li-wu, <i>Vice-Chairman</i>	Board of Trustees, British Boxer Indemnity Fund, Chungking
Dr. Chu Yu-kuang	Professor of Education, National Normal College, Lantien, Hunan
Dr. H. R. Wei	University of Nanking, Chungking
Dr. Ou Tsuin-chen	Director of Department of Higher Education, Ministry of Education, Chungking
Prof. P. W. Sun	Dean, Normal College of Central University, Chungking
Dr. Franklin L. Ho	Director, Nankai Institute of Economics, Shapingpa, Chungking
Dr. H. C. Zen	China Foundation, Chungking
Dr. S. Y. Chiu	General Secretary, Mass Education Movement, Hsieh Ma Chang, Chungking
Y. W. Wang	General Manager, Commercial Press, Chungking
Dr. E. H. Cressy	China Christian Educational Association, 10 Tai Chia Hang, Chungking
Dr. William P. Fenn	Representative of Associated Boards for Christian College in China, c/o University of Nanking, Chengtu
Mrs. Ruth Cheng Chen	Associated Executive Secretary, National Child Welfare Association, Hai Tang Chi, Chungking
Dr. Adam Su	Amy University, Changting, Fukien
Dr. L. C. Chen	President, National College of Social Education, Pishan, Szechwan
Dr. Wu Yi-fang	President, Ginling College, Chengtu
Mr. Y. S. Djang	Executive Director, International Relief Committee, 84 Ma Ti Kai, Chungking
Dr. Y. G. Chen	President, University of Nanking, Chengtu
Dr. Chiang Mon-lin	Southwest Associated University, Kunming
Kiang Wen-han (alternate Lyman Hoover)	National Student Relief Committee, 218 Shang Nanchu Malu, Chungking
Miss Shih Pao-chen	National Student Relief Committee, 218 Shang Nanchu Malu, Chungking

SOCIAL REHABILITATION COMMITTEE

Dr. D. Y. Lin, <i>Chairman</i>	Yellow River Commission, 5 Consulate Lane, Chungking
Dr. Y. C. James Yen, <i>Vice-Chairman</i>	Mass Education Movement, Hsieh Ma Chang, Chungking
H. C. Chang, <i>Exec. Secretary</i>	Ministry of Social Affairs, Chungking
Dr. W. T. Wu	Counsellor's Office, Supreme National Defense Council, Chungking
Dr. Cato Yang	Director, Department of Research, Foreign Trade Commission, Chungking
Miss Chang Hsiao-mei	Southwest Economics Research Council, Chungking
Dean C. W. Chang	University of Nanking, Chengtu
Dr. C. C. Chen	Szechwan Bureau of Health, Chengtu
Miss Tien Kwei-lan	National Association for Refugee Children, Chungking
P. T. Chen	Research Department, Central Bank of China, Chungking
Dr. S. Y. Chiu	Mass Education Movement, Hsieh Ma Chang, Chungking
Dr. Liang Chung-hwa	Chinese Rural Reconstruction Institute, Chengtu
C. C. Chang	Szechwan Water Conservancy Bureau, Kwanhsien, Szechwan
Dr. Lewis S. C. Smythe	University of Nanking, Chengtu
Dr. H. P. Cheng	Director, China Office, International Institute of Labor, Chungking
Dr. Fu Shang-lin	Central University, Shapingpa, Chungking
Dr. Chang Fu-liang	Kiangsi Provincial Government, Taiho, Kiangsi
Dr. C. M. Li	Nankai Institute of Economics, Shapingpa, Chungking

DISASTER RELIEF COMMITTEE

Bishop W. Y. Chen, <i>Chairman</i>	National Christian Council, 10 Tai Chia Hang, Chungking
Y. S. Djang, <i>Executive Secretary</i>	International Relief Committee of China, 84 Ma Ti Kai, Chungking
T. Y. Li, <i>Asst. Executive Secretary</i>	China International Famine Relief Commis- sion, Chiu Ching Middle School, Chungking
Mr. Yu Hsin Ching	National Relief Commission, Chungking
Y. K. Nan	Counsellor, National Relief Commission, Chungking
C. F. Hsieh	Director, Department of Social Welfare, Ministry of Social Affairs, Chungking
Father V. McGrath	St. Joseph's Cathedral, Minsheng Lu, Chungking
Dr. C. Pan	Secretary-General, National Red Cross Society, Fu Tze Chih, Chungking
Dr. H. C. Chang	Ministry of Social Affairs, Chungking
Rev. Arnold B. Vaught	American Advisory Committee, c/o Canadian Mission Agency, Chungking

DISASTER RELIEF COMMITTEE—Continued.

Dr. C. B. Rappe	Chiu Ching Middle School, Chungking
Rt. Rev. Mark Tennien	Catholic Mission, 84 Ma Ti Kai, Chungking
Li Pu-shen	Director, Ministry of Overseas Affairs, Chungking
Dr. T. C. Fan	General Director, National Christian Service Council for Wounded Soldiers, Chungking
William Hsu	c/o National Christian Council, 10 Tai Chia Hang, Chungking
Dr. Chang Fu-liang	Kiangsi Provincial Government, Taiho Kiangsi
Dr. Phillips F. Greene	American Red Cross, Chiu Ching Middle School, Chungking

ECONOMIC RECONSTRUCTION COMMITTEE

Dr. P. W. Tsou, <i>Chairman</i>	5 Chialing Villa, Chungking
C. Y. Hsiang, <i>Executive Secretary</i>	Stabilization Board of China, Chungking
M. C. Shaw	Director, National Cooperative Administration, Ministry of Social Affairs, Chungking
J. B. Tayler	Chinese Industrial Cooperatives, Chungking
Dr. Paul Hsu	Specialist, Bank of Communications, Chungking
Dr. D. K. Liu	Dean, College of Commerce, Chungking University, Shapingpa, Chungking
C. S. Wang	General Manager, Sin Hua Trust and Savings Bank, Chungking
Dr. J. Lossing Buck	Nanking University Hwahsipa, Chengtu
C. C. Wu	Ministry of Economic Affairs, Chungking
K. K. Wu	National General Mobilization Council, Chungking
S. Adler	Stabilization Board of China, Chungking
Z. Y. Chow	Chinese Industrial Cooperatives, Chungking
Dr. Lewis S. C. Smythe	Nanking University, Hwahsipa, Chengtu
Li Tsai-yun	China International Famine Relief Commission, Chiu Chin Middle School, Chungking

POLICY IN THE USE OF UNITED RELIEF FUNDS

1. UCR expenditures should contribute toward winning the war. Modern war involves not only direct military factors, but also sustaining the people's welfare and morale by various activities of relief, rehabilitation, et cetera.

2. The tentative allocation of funds (medical and public health 35 per cent, education 20 per cent, child welfare 15 per cent, economic rehabilitation 10 per cent, social rehabilitation 10 per cent, disaster relief 10 per cent) is a rough guide to the relative priorities of need. But allocations must be under constant study to assure the best possible use of the funds under changing conditions.

3. The UCR program should be closely coordinated with both Chinese government and private activities. It should supplement and not compete with them and avoid overlapping and duplication. All possible local support should be developed.

4. In principle UCR should support or work through existing organizations and not lend itself to promoting new organizations. UCR funds should be used to strengthen the work, improve the personnel, increase the efficiency, develop local support and increase public confidence in the organizations through which it works, helping to put them in position to continue after UCR support decreases or ceases. UCR should not assume responsibility for any organization.

5. Special attention should be paid to worthy private organizations as agencies for utilizing UCR funds. In selecting such organizations for support, account should be taken of their past record, accomplishments, personnel and prospects of successful work. The effort should be to sustain them both for the present and for the future.

6. Alleviation of the evil effects of inflation upon private institutions and upon the intellectual and middle classes is of special importance. In periods of inflation, farmers, working men and business men usually do not fare too badly, but salaried classes suffer—especially government personnel, teachers and social and religious workers. The income of educational and philanthropic institutions suffers. Experience in European countries after the War of 1914-18 shows the very bad effects of inflation upon the element that give intellectual and moral leadership. The use of UCR funds can help to counteract this evil in China—for the great benefit of society in future.

7. The relief program should not add gratuitously to the evils of inflation. For the present the program has to be carried out with materials already in China, except for limited quantities of medical supplies transportable by air. UCR has to get from Chinese government banks the money needed for its program, in exchange for US dollars. Under existing conditions this process tends to be inflationary, and the bad effects may outweigh the good unless the resulting funds are used in China with great wisdom. Therefore projects should be very closely scrutinized, having in mind that, in principle:

- (a) They should help in the war effort, broadly interpreted, *e.g.*, sustain the people by alleviating the ravages of war, counteracting effects of inflation, et cetera;
- (b) The benefits should be realized in a reasonable time;
- (c) The cost should not be disproportionate to the aim in view;
- (d) There should be real prospect of success, *e.g.*, competence of management, availability of needed personnel, equipment and supplies, et cetera;
- (e) New activities or expansion of old activities ordinarily ought not to be begun if they can be postponed without detriment to the war effort;

8. Economic projects, besides meeting the tests outlined under heading 7, should be limited in principle to those involving near-term increase in production of necessities and to immediate measures of rehabilitation. Ordinarily funds should not be used for buildings, but only in special cases for temporary emergency buildings.

9. Special attention should be paid to maintaining in the various organizations able and experienced personnel, procuring specialized Chinese personnel from abroad, and training existing and new personnel.

10. Special attention should be paid to rescuing from war zones and occupied areas individuals of present and future value to China, and to rehabilitating them when rescued.

11. The program should aim to meet the needs of the Chinese people without regard for regional, sectarian or partisan consideration.

12. Both in China and in the United States there should be long-term planning, bearing in mind post-war as well as current problems. The results being obtained from expenditure of UCR funds should be under constant review in China, including local inspection and investigation.

NATIONAL STUDENT RELIEF COMMITTEE

Members:

Dr. W. Y. Chen	<i>Chairman</i>
Mrs. Han Lih-wu	<i>Vice-Chairman</i>
D. W. Edwards	<i>Vice-Chairman</i>
Dr. C. S. Chen	<i>Secretary</i>
Dr. K. M. Hsu	<i>Treasurer</i>
Dr. C. B. Rappe	<i>Custodian</i>
Mrs. Chen Kuo-liang	
Dr. C. K. Chu	
Y. S. Djang	
Dr. Phillips F. Greene	
Dr. P. Y. Hu	
Mrs. David Kiang	
L. S. Peng	
Dr. Robert C. W. Cheng	
Mrs. William C. Wang	
Dr. Ou Tsuin-chen	
Dr. Wu Yi-fang	

Staff:

Kiang Wen-han	<i>Executive Secretary</i>
Miss Shih Pao-chen	<i>Executive Secretary</i>
Lyman Hoover	<i>Acting Administrative Secretary</i>
Miss Julia Cheng	<i>Associate Administrative Secretary</i>
George Liang	<i>Secretary</i>

NATIONAL STUDENT RELIEF COMMITTEE

FINANCIAL STATEMENT FOR THE YEAR 1942

RECEIPTS:

	\$
Previous Balance on Grants Account	34,277.34
United China Relief (US \$25,000, \$50,000, \$50,000)	2,443,144.90
World Student Service Fund (US \$10,000, \$6,000, \$6,000, \$13,000)	668,486.02
Church Committee for China Relief (US \$25,000)	467,836.25
American Advisory Committee	28,000.00
Contribution by Students at Shapingpa	1,374.00
Refund (Kanh sien \$628.93, Chungking SRC \$10,000)	10,628.93
Interest on accounts	7,138.56
Refund on telegrams	231.60
Previous Balance on Administrative Account	1,811.27
	<u>\$3,662,928.87</u>

DISBURSEMENTS:

Grants

Honan University	\$ 127,100.00	Paoki	\$ 54,000.00	
Sian	36,000.00	Kukong	278,900.00	
Kunming	377,800.00	Kinhwa	56,000.00	
Kweiyang	155,500.00	Yuanling	77,000.00	
Chengku	162,300.00	Chungking	407,000.00	
Kanh sien	131,000.00	Tsungyi	83,000.00	
Chengtu	418,000.00	West Fukien	37,000.00	
North Fukien	40,000.00	Hengyang	20,000.00	
Santai	55,400.00	Loshan	111,500.00	
North Shensi	110,000.00	Liangfeng	79,000.00	
Kweilin	10,000.00	Pishan	4,000.00	
Nanping	36,000.00	Transfer Brown Fund		
Shaowu	50,000.00	Joe Wang	2,806.50	
Lishui	40,000.00	William Nast Aca	5,000.00	2,964,306.50
			<u></u>	

Operating Expenses :

NSRC Office	47,000.00	
Custodian's Office	6,905.85	53,905.85
	<u></u>	
Scholarship Fund		39,000.00
Grants-in-Aid		16,500.00
Balance in Bank of China		588,909.64
Cash on Hand		306.88
		<u>\$3,662,928.87</u>

**NATIONAL STUDENT RELIEF COMMITTEE
(GRANTS FOR 1942)**

I. Local Student Relief Committees :

NAME OF S.R.C.		Student Population	Total 1942 Grants
Chengkü (Shensi)	Chengkü, Hanchung, Kuloupa	2,950	\$160,800
Chengtü (Szechwan)	Hwahsipa, Chengtū	4,250	390,000
Chungking (Szechwan)	Shapingpa, Tze Chi Kou, Chiu Lungpo, Peipei, South Bank, Kiangpei	9,680	397,000
Hengyang (Hunan)			20,000
Honan University (Honan)	Tan Tou, Sunhsien	1,267	120,100
Kiangsi	Taiho, Yunghsing, Kanhsien, etc.	5,900	131,000
Loshan (Szechwan)	Loshan Omei	4,000	111,500
Kinhwa-Lishiu (Chekiang)		1,200	96,000
Kukong (Kwangtung)	Kukong, Ta Tsun, Pingshek	8,350	278,900
Kunming (Yunnan)	Kunming	4,500	381,400
Kwangyuan (Szechwan)	Transient students (SRC organized December, 1942)		
Kweilin (Kwangsi)	Kweilin	400	10,000
Kweiyang (Kweichow)	Kweiyang, Hwachi, Pingyueh	5,350	155,500
Lanchow (Kansu)	Lanchow (SRC newly organized)	1,500	
Liangfeng (Kwangsi)	Liangfeng	1,300	79,000
Loyang (Honan)			3,000
Nanping (Fukien)	Nanping, Yangkow	1,130	36,000
North Fukien (Fukien)	Discontinued Summer 1942		40,000
Paoki (Shensi)			54,000
Pishan (Szechwan)	Pishan, Ting Chia Ngao	1,400	9,000
Santai (Szechwan)	Santai	1,600	55,400
Shaowu (Fukien)	Shaowu, Tsianglo	1,430	55,000
Shensi		2,800	110,000
Sian (Shensi)	Sian, Ichuan, Wukung	2,000	42,500
Sichang (Sikang)	Sichang (SRC newly organized)	2,000	
Tsunyi (Kweichow)	Tsunyi, Meitan, Yunghsing	1,500	83,000
West Fukien (Fukien)	Tingchow	800	37,000
Yuanling (Hunan)	Yuanling, Shensi	3,450	77,000
II. National Reconstruction Scholarship Fund (Es- tablished Fall 1942)	Scholarships and Grants-in-aid for 300 Scholarships and Grants-in-aid for 300 specially selected students..		700,000
III. NSRC Operating Ex- penses			47,000
		68,757	\$3,680,100

Total estimated requirements for 1943

\$12,525,350

Less—Medical items to be referred to the International Relief Committee
of China

400,000
525,350

To be raised in China

925,350

Balance to be provided

\$11,600,000
(US \$580,000)

COMMITTEE ON FACULTY AID

Dr. Chang Po-ling, <i>Chairman</i>	President, Nankai University, Chungking
Dr. Phillips Greene, <i>Vice-Chairman</i>	American Red Cross, Chungking
Mr. H. C. Zen, <i>Honorary Treasurer</i>	China Foundation, Chungking
Dr. C. B. Rappe, <i>Honorary Treasurer</i>	Methodist Mission, Chungking
Dr. Wu Yi-fang	President, Ginling College, Chengtu
Dean Paul C. T. Kwei	National Wuhan University, Loshan, Szechwan
Dr. Y. P. Mei	Yenching University, 29 Shensi Kai, Chengtu
Kiang Wen-han	National Committee Y.M.C.A., 38 Chung Hsueh Chieh, Tangtz Shih, South Bank, Chungking
Miss Shih Pao-chen	c/o Y.W.C.A., Chi Hsing Kang, Chungking
Bishop W. Y. Chen	National Christian Council, 10 Tai Chia Hang, Chungking
Dr. Frank Price	West China Union Theological Seminary, Chengtu
Dr. E. H. Cressy	China Christian Educational Association, 10 Tai Chia Hang, Chungking
Dr. Lo Chia-lun	Member of the Contral Yuan, Chungking
Mrs. Han Li-wu	Chairman, Chungking Student Relief Com- mittee, Chungking
Mrs. William C. Wang	General Secretary, Women's Advisory Com- mittee of the New Life Movement, Chungking
Ou Tsuin-chen	Director of Department of Higher Education, Ministry of Education, Chungking
Y. S. Djan, <i>Executive Secretary</i>	International Relief Committee, 84 Ma Ti Kai, Chungking
Dr. J. K. Fairbanks	American Information Service

STATEMENT OF THE UNITED CHINA RELIEF FUND ALLOCATED THROUGH
THE ASSOCIATED BOARDS FOR CHRISTIAN COLLEGES IN CHINA

April 1, 1942—March 31, 1943

(All sums in US dollars)

<i>University</i>	<i>Place</i>	<i>Allocation</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
West China University	Chengtu	132,499.00	
Ginling College	Chengtu	58,000.00	
Cheeloo University	Chengtu	45,000.00	
Nanking University	Chengtu	87,650.00	
Yenching University	Chengtu	95,000.00	Reopened in Chengtu September, 1942
Lingnan University	Kukong	31,500.00*	Reopened in Kukong August, 1942
Hwanan College for Women	Nanping	13,500.00	Reopened in connection with Lingnan Univer- sity, September, 1942
Soochow University College of Law	Kukong and Chungking	13,000.00	The College of Law re- opened in Chungking, 1943
Hwachung College	Tali	21,000.00	
Hangchow Christian University	Shaowu	13,000.00	Reopened in connection with Fukien Christian University September, 1942
Council of High Education, Chengtu		4,000.00	
Christian Educational Association		3,000.00	
		<u>562,149.00</u>	

AMERICAN ADVISORY COMMITTEE CHUNKING

List of administrative agencies through which relief funds are distributed :

FUKIEN

- Foochow*—International Relief Committee of North Fukien, Bishop Carlton Lacy, *Chairman*.
Futsing—International Relief Committee, Rev. E. Pearce Hayes, Methodist Mission.
Putien—Civilian Relief Committee, Rev. Charles E. Winter, Methodist Mission.
Nanping—Christian Relief Committee, Rev. F. Bankhardt, Methodist Mission.
Khielow—International Relief Committee, Archdeacon Williams, Church Missionary Society.
Khienyang—Young People's Service Committee, Chen Te-hsuan, Y.M.C.A., Army Service.

HONAN

- Chengchow*—International Relief Committee, Rev. E. P. Ashcraft, Free Methodist Mission.
Chumatiem—Miss Louise I. Arnold.
Hsuehang—International Relief Committee, Rev. Victor E. Swenson, Lutheran Mission. (Augustana Synod)
Kioshan—Orphanage, Rev. E. T. Larsen, Lutheran United Mission.
Loyang—(1) Rev. J. S. Aspberg, Swedish Mission, Treasurer.
 (2) Monsignor Megan, Catholic Hospital, *Chairman*.
Yencheng—Honan Loh International Relief Committee, Rev. Arthur R. Kennedy, China Inland Mission.

HUNAN

- Changsha*—International Relief Committee, Rev. A. H. Birkel, Presbyterian Mission.

HUPEH

- Tsaoyang*—Miss Mildred Werdal, Lutheran Brethren Mission.

KIANGSI

- Kanhsien*—Kan Nan International Relief Committee, Mrs. Chang Fu-liang, P. O. Box 11.
Lichwan—Rev. Kimber H. K. Den.
Yutu—Christian Refugee Camp, Miss Gertrude Cone, Baldwin School.
Yushan—International Relief Committee, Fr. Reyers, Catholic Mission.
Shangjao—(In process of formation), Fr. L. Fox, R. C. Mission, Hokou.
Jyang—(In process of formation), Fr. Deslaurier, R. C. Mission.
Kweichi—(In process of formation), E. G. Trickey, C.I.M.

- Yukiang*—International Relief Committee, Fr. Kuhn, R. C. Mission.

- Linchuan*—International Relief Committee, Cerny, C.I.M.

- Nancheng*—International Relief Committee, Bishop P. Cleary, R. C. Mission.

- Nanfeng*—No Committee, Fr. Dermody.

- Kwanhang*—International Relief Committee, Fr. Mertaw.

- Ningtu*—International Relief Committee, Fr. Ma, Kwangsi.

KWANGSI

- Kweilin*—Christian Relief Committee, C. C. Liang, Y.M.C.A.

KWANGTUNG

- Kukong*—Canton, Y.M.C.A. Christian Relief Committee, E. H. Lockwood, Y.M.C.A.

KWEICHOW

- Kweiyang*—American Advisory Committee Kweichow Sub-Committee, Dr. K. F. Yao, Wei Shen Chu.

SHENSI

- Ankang*—Rev. Sigurd Aske, Swedish Mission.
Tali—Yellow River Flood Committee, Mi Ju-Tso, *Secretary*
Sian—R. S. Hall, Y.M.C.A., Shensi, I.R.C.
Paoki—Famine Relief Committee, General Wen Chung-hsin, *Chairman*.

CHEKIANG

- Lungchuan*—International Relief Committee Fr. A. MacIntosh, Catholic Mission.
Lishui—International Relief Work Committee of Lishui District, G. Rusenberger, C.I.M.
Chuhsien—Unknown Name, T. Andrews, C.I.M.
Kiangshan—International Relief Committee, Miss M. Barham, C.I.M.
Changshan—(In process of formation), Miss Duncan, C.I.M.
Wenchow—(Asked to form Committee) Dr. Eta Stedeford, Eng. Methodist Mission.

SZCHWAN

- Chengt'u*—(1) Rev. Frank W. Price, Member of American Advisory Committee.
 (2) Chengtu Advisory Committee on Relief, Rev. Ernest Hibbard, Canadian Mission.
Junghsien—International Relief Committee, Dr. R. E. Outerbridge, Canadian Mission Hospital.
Ipin—Herman Liu Memorial Home for Children, Dr. Marion Criswell, Baptist Mission.
Tzelutsing—International Relief Committee, Rev. Fred. J. Reed, Canadian Mission.
Chungking—International Relief Committee.

CHAPTER XX

FOREIGN MISSIONS

Foreign missions in China, both Protestant and Catholic, have faced the challenge of the war with the same spirit of fortitude and triumph. War, for all the untold pain and agony it brings to the masses, has proven a great melting-pot in which even conflicting groups can be moulded together. This has been true of the Protestant and Catholic missions in wartime China. They have cooperated so fully and wholeheartedly as never before in the task of ministering to the needs of a nation at war.

When Christians in various cities organized local war relief committees, one of the principles governing the disbursement of foreign relief funds to these committees by the National Christian Council of China reads:

"Only one relief committee would be dealt with in a community which should be, so far as possible, international and inter-denominational, including both Protestants and Roman Catholics."

One of the latest evidences of such cooperation may be found in connection with the famine relief in Honan province. The Loyang Church Relief Committee was recently organized by both Protestant and Catholic missionaries. Among the latter, Bishop Megan of the Catholic Church in Loyang serves as chairman, while Protestant missionaries on the committee include Mr. Hanson of the Lutheran Church, vice-chairman, and Mr. I. A. Aspberg of the Swedish Mission, secretary-treasurer.

Another striking example to the same effect is a plan for the translation of Christian classics which has been undertaken by the National Christian Council, with the cooperation of the Nanking Theological Seminary. This plan will make the whole course of Christian

thought, from the apostolic fathers down to the twentieth century, available to the thoughtful Chinese reader, to a degree hitherto undreamed of. One interesting feature of this plan is the Protestant-Catholic cooperation in the translation of the pre-Reformation classics. This cooperation is made possible through a joint society, the *Societas Luminis*, composed of Catholic, Protestant and non-Christian members. The publication in Chinese of Augustine, Anselm, Aquinas, Luther, Calvin, etc., will be a permanent contribution that will do much to give the younger Chinese churches that sense of historical perspective which they now lack.

One of the strongest bonds that make this wartime Protestant-Catholic cooperation possible is Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek. Though the nation's Supreme Leader is a baptized Protestant Christian, the Catholic Church has nevertheless considered him a leading member of the great comity of Christians in China. Father Thomas F. Ryan of the Catholic Church, writing on "The Catholic Church" in the book *Wartime China as Seen by Westerners*, has the following to say:

"China is fortunate in having as its leader in this most critical period one who is a declared Christian, one who has publicly stated his belief that every man needs a religion and has chosen for his own the leadership of Christ."

World War II of which the war in China is an integral part is dedicated to the winning of the Four Freedoms. In the Generalissimo as the leader of this struggle in the China theater, both the Protestant and Catholic missions have seen a great promising future for the propagation of Christianity in post-war China.

PROTESTANT MISSIONS

The work of Protestant missions in wartime China is fittingly described as "Christianity in action" by Miss Mabel Ruth Nowlin of the National Christian Council in the book *Wartime China as Seen by Westerners*. The effect of the war has had its impact upon all groups of people in China, Protestant missionaries and Chinese Christians not excluded. The former who exercised a certain degree of immunity during the years of China's singlehanded resistance were quick to take advantage of their position as neutrals for the advancement of the Christian message of love. They saw in the mass sufferings all around them an excellent opportunity to serve. Even after the outbreak of the Pacific War, a majority of them have remained in their posts and continued their service at great personal risks.

The number of Protestant missionaries was given at 5,816 in church statistics for 1935. They belonged to more than 18 different denominations as listed below:

Adventist	218
Anglican	569
Baptist	98
Others	395
Brethren	109
Congregational	191
Others	85
Disciples	38
Evangelical	18
Friends	28
Holiness and Pentecostal	193
Lutheran	256
Others	185
Mennonite	37
Methodist	465
Presbyterian and Reformed	525
Others	238
United Brethren	10
United Church of Canada	231
China Inland Mission	1,359
Church of Christ in China	1,159
Other Churches	464
TOTAL	5,816

This number rose to approximately 6,000 in 1936, whereas at the close of 1941 there were about 1,500 in occupied areas and 2,500 in Free China.

All these missionaries have held the fort as long as possible in the face of danger and difficulty. Twelve missionaries of four nationalities are known to have lost their lives in the war so far, some of them in ordinary indiscriminate slaughter, some of them because they were missionaries. A number of others have lost their lives by exposure, disease and other causes in which war was a factor.

CHINESE CONSTITUENCY

Among the statistics concerning the Protestant Christian Movement in China, the most difficult to obtain are those concerning the Chinese constituency. One reason for this is that the Protestant Christian Movement includes over 100 mission organizations holding a variety of views as to what constitutes church membership. Some practice infant baptism and would count as members of the church infants so baptized. Others do not and include in their statistics only people baptized at the age of discretion or adults. Some have confirmation, others do not. Some practise neither baptism nor confirmation. Another difficulty lies in the turning over of the responsibility for the local collection of figures by church authorities to those less statistically minded.

In dealing with the statistics of Chinese Christian membership, three distinct things should be borne in mind: first, the number of baptized Christians—second, the number of active communicants of the church, and third, the Christian community. The baptized Christians may not necessarily be communicants, and the total community which can be called Christian is larger in number than the total number of communicants and baptized Christians.

According to the *Handbook of the Christian Movement in China*, compiled by the Rev. Charles L. Boynton, statistical secretary of the National Christian Council, the total number of communicants in China in 1935 was roughly estimated at half a million, but the total Christian community numbered about a million. The following

statistics taken therefrom show the numbers of Chinese evangelistic workers, communicants, baptisms (1 year) and Sunday school scholars for 1935.

GROUP	Chinese Evangelistic Workers	Communicants	Baptisms (1 year)	Sunday School Scholars
Adventist	669	15,469	2,111	20,812
Anglican	970	34,612	3,119	24,894
Baptist (C.C.C.)	(372)	(9,782)	(623)	(1,802)
Others	1,763	59,204	5,643	26,906
Brethren	44	2,065	342	702
Congregational (C.C.C.)	(487)	(15,057)	(6,269)
Others	189	14,258	3,769
Disciples	238	2,127	198	2,515
Evangelical	70	2,942	295	2,006
Friends	6	1,412 (a)	106 (a)	880
Holiness and Pentecostal	189	9,416	147	2,757
Lutheran (L.C.C.)	714	21,853	1,631	6,794
Others	425	6,813	6,496
Mennonite	5	1,999	1,000
Methodist	1,712	78,491	4,265	52,677
Presbyterian and Reformed (C.C.C.)	(2,382)	(58,113)	(3,771)	(21,688)
Others	759	32,757	3,033	10,029
United Brethren (C.C.C.)	(22)	(906)	(56)	(342)
United Church of Canada (C.C.C.)	(263)	(7,557)	(810)	(10,374)
China Inland Mission	3,810	85,345	8,670	20,099
Church of Christ in China	3,877 (b)	123,043	13,299	40,475 (b)
Other Churches, etc.	570	14,471	826	6,324
Chinese Home Missionary Society	21	1,598
Independent Churches	5,000
TOTAL	14,502	512,873	43,685	239,164

NOTE.—(a) As friends do not baptize, the figures given are those of "members" and "members added";
 (b) the figures are not those appearing in the Church of Christ reports, but the sums of items reported by constituent members.

The Chinese Christian membership must have been increased considerably during the war years when many of the churches, even those in coastal cities, have reported larger attendance than ever before in their Sunday services. The church draws more to its fold because its workers have preached the Gospel not with words alone but by a practical demonstration of the love of God and brotherhood of man.

MIGRATION TO WEST CHINA

The mass migration from the coastal provinces has brought many Christian organizations to West China. Protestant missions now working in West China include: from North America, Northern Baptist, Methodist, Christian and Missionary Alliance, Evangelical Mission, American Church Mission, Assembly of God, Seventh Day Adventist, United Church of Canada; from the British Isles, Baptist, Methodist, Church Missionary Society, Friends; the China Inland Mission, which is international; several Lutheran missionary societies from Europe; and, in addition, Chinese home missionary societies. There are also some of the Bible Societies, the Young Men's Christian Association and the Young Women's Christian Association.

There are in West China 28 Christian hospitals—21 in Szechwan, five in Yunnan, one in Kweichow, and one in Shensi. Most of the Christian middle schools, 24 in number, are in Szechwan, with two in Shensi and one in Yunnan. On the campus of the West China Union University are three "downriver" universities—the University of Nanking, Ginling College for women and Cheeloo University. Yenching University is inside the city of Chengtu and makes use of some of the facilities of the West China Union University.

Some successful types of evangelistic work in the West are worthy of comment. Yunnan tribes have responded to the Christian message with what has been almost a mass movement. Yunnan has been the field of work of several indigenous Chinese churches and of the Chinese Home Missionary Society. The home mission diocese of the Episcopal Church of China is in Shensi province. In the Anglican churches north of Chengtu, home Sunday schools have spread the Christian message effectively. In student evangelism, campaigns under special speakers and the ashrams on Mount Omei have been noteworthy.

In Szechwan, the center of Christian activities not only of the West but of all Free China, there are 319 Protestant churches of different denominations as shown in the following list:

Baptist Mission	42
Church of Christ	104
Methodist Mission	76
Friends Mission	22
Anglican Church Mission	33
China Inland Mission	42
TOTAL	319

The number of Christians in Szechwan province, according to an estimate made in 1939, totalled 13,653. This number, however, did not include 20,000 who had come to this province from other parts of the country since the war began.

Dr. Frank Price of the Nanking Theological Seminary, now in Chengtu, writing on "The Church in West China" in the book *China Rediscovered Her West* published in 1940, has the following to say:

"When I was passing through Kunming a few months ago, a Methodist pastor from Shanghai told me that he had found more than 70 members of his own denomination in East China now living in Kunming. In Kweiyang, a Chinese minister was delighted to find 20 members of the church that he had once shepherded in Hangchow. One of the most interesting and impressive church services that I have recently attended was in Chungking, where more than 300 out-of-the-province Christians from government and business circles have organized their own fellowship and have invited a pastor to serve them."

RURAL CHURCH PROGRAM

Dr. Price is one of the few intrepid American missionaries who have done much in Christianizing rural Szechwan. As head of the Rural Church Department of the Nanking Theological Seminary, now cooperating with the West China Theological Seminary in Chengtu, he leads his workers and students in go-to-the-country teams to extend the Christian message to the masses in the rural districts.

In the vicinity of Chengtu there are five experimental cooperating churches at Lungchuanyi, Chunghochang, Sipu,

Kienyang and Wenkiang. These constitute the inner circle whence the rural church movement has spread to other churches in Szechwan and neighboring provinces.

Field training of qualified men for rural church is done by holding institutes and large conferences. To date, thousands of pastors, preachers and lay Christian leaders from various rural Christian communities have been thus trained.

In carrying out the rural church program, Dr. Price has succeeded in securing the cooperation of the Szechwan Provincial Agricultural Improvement Bureau. Through this arrangement, all the experimental cooperating churches enlisted into the program may receive advice and technical assistance in carrying out their work from the bureau's 72 extension stations throughout the province.

Thus each rural church serves not merely as a pulpit for preaching but a clearing house of scientific agriculture and general rural welfare activities to its Christians and, through them, the non-Christian community roundabout. The churches help the farmers in securing for them improved seeds, in promoting the organization of cooperatives and many other things.

The history of Protestant missions dates back to 1807 when the London Missionary Society sent its first missionary to China. In West China, Protestant Christianity is about half a century old. The honor of blazing the trail to this remote part of the country also goes to the London Mission, as the first missionary to make a tour of the western provinces was the famous Griffith John of that mission. He visited Szechwan in 1868.

THE NATIONAL CHRISTIAN COUNCIL OF CHINA

The foreign Protestant Missions and Chinese churches find a clearing house for information and an advisory body for promotion and advance in the National Christian Council whose headquarters was formerly located in the Missions Building on Yuan Ming Yuan Road, Shanghai, but has been removed to Chungking since the outbreak of the Pacific War.

RELIEF WORK

The program of the N.C.C. has been readapted to the needs of the nation's resistance and reconstruction since July 7, 1937. Within ten days of the outbreak of hostilities at Shanghai on August 13, 1937, it had cabled appeals abroad for relief funds. Three large mission boards responded immediately and the National Christian Council War Relief Committee was formed to disburse these funds. Christians in various cities organized local war relief committees. The principles on which these committees were organized are as follows:

1. Only one relief committee would be dealt with in a community which should be, so far as possible, international and interdenominational, including both Protestants and Roman Catholics.
2. Contributed funds should be used only for food, clothing, shelter and medical needs of the destitute; overhead expenses of administration being borne, wherever possible, by local funds.
3. Reports of the nature of the work undertaken, and an accounting for funds received and spent would be required.
4. No discrimination should be made between Christians and non-Christians in the administration of relief. Need was to be the sole criterion, with the proviso that those once aided were to be carried on so far as possible to the time when they could provide for themselves.

In January, 1939, the N.C.C. made its first appeal abroad for European Refugee Relief in order to reinforce local gifts and to help rehabilitate the unfortunate European refugees who found themselves crowding the port of Shanghai, already ravished by war. Among them were many German Jews persecuted and expelled from Germany by the Nazi government. A special training class in English and Chinese was conducted in the N.C.C. office in Shanghai for their benefit. Many of them were recommended jobs upon completion of training.

In March, 1939, the N.C.C. undertook, at the request of the National Child Welfare Association, a program for the care of needy children. The plan was to administer funds through local relief societies and to utilize mission properties and in this way to secure not only an opportunity to feed the children but also one for concurrent medical cure,

character building and religious teaching, organized play and drill, useful work including instruction in crafts which might later lead to employment, and lastly "school work."

Before October, 1939, the N.C.C. had already busied itself on behalf of German missions and missionaries cut off by the European war from home support. By April, 1940, it was extending its inquiry to all Continental missions "orphaned" in China. At present, there are 28 Continental missions operating in Free China, including Danish, Finnish, German, Norwegian, Swedish and Swiss, with about 550 missionaries. The Swedish and Swiss are from neutral countries and are still able to get funds from their home lands. These include about ten missions.

The 18 missions of the other four nationalities are cut off from their home constituencies and have no way of getting funds, except that the free Norwegian government-in-exile in London has made two grants for the maintenance of Norwegian missionaries. The International Missionary Council has been raising funds to support these 18 missions, which have approximately 309 adults and 65 children, and also to support the Chinese pastors and teachers. More than half of these are Lutheran missions, and the Lutheran World Convention is taking a large part in raising the funds necessary to continue this work. Money has been coming from America, Britain and Australia besides that raised locally in China for the support of these "orphan" missions. The N.C.C., through its committee on Continental Missions, takes the responsibility for the administration of all these funds and for contacts with all these missions.

RURAL WELFARE

The N.C.C. has also promoted work-relief projects. Way back in 1934, one of its secretaries, Mr. Chang Fu-liang, a Yale University man who has won international repute as an expert on rural problems, was sent to Kiangsi to promote an extensive rural reconstruction program in that province. Under his efficient direction, ten rural welfare centers in Kiangsi were inaugurated in June of that year. With the outbreak of war in 1937, the peace-time program of these centers was quickly switched to wartime emergency service which consists of educating the illiterates, increasing farm produce and serving the wounded soldiers and soldiers' families.

During the first stage of the war, Kiangsi was flooded with wounded soldiers. There was a shortage of gauze supply. Rural welfare workers immediately mobilized all the productive capacities of their home industries to the making of gauze and absorbent cotton. To show appreciation to the soldiers fighting at the fronts, their wives and relatives are given employment whenever there are openings for work in the home industry plants. These workers are required to work seven hours daily in addition to one-hour of social education every evening consisting of lectures, songs and war plays.

Typical of the contributions made by the ten rural welfare centers in Kiangsi is the achievement of the two refugee industrial camps at Kian and Kanhsien. The former was established on January 1, 1939 and the latter on September 1, 1939. The number of refugees at these two camps varied from 1,000 to 1,500. According to a report sent by Mr. Chang Fu-liang on December 31, 1940 to the West China Coordinating Committee of the American Advisory Committee, the refugees in the two camps during 1939 and 1940 had earned their food of over \$20,000 and wages of over \$113,000. Articles made by the refugees included 19,000 lbs. of absorbent cotton, 38,000 lbs. of absorbent gauze, 4,300 bolts of cloth of 100 feet each, 4,000 dozens of towels, 181,000 gunny sacks and 170,000 pairs of hemp sandals.

Another work-relief project in which the N.C.C. has taken a leading part is the Kiangsi Christian Rural Service Union at Lichwan. A refugee industrial camp was established on November 12, 1940 at Hwangchen, a village about four miles from Lichwan. When the camp celebrated its first anniversary, 40 refugee families engaged in industrial and land-reclamation projects had attained full self-support. The remaining 20 families were not able to make a decent living due to long illness, poor health, too many dependants in the family and other causes beyond human control. Along the little river which runs from Lichwan to Hwangchen are several thousands of *mow* (one-sixth of an acre) of fertile agricultural land which had hitherto lain idle because of the danger of flood in summer. As a measure of protection for the land already cultivated by the refugees as well as utilizing other parts of that abandoned land for future agricultural projects, the Union has built a dam which helps to confine the water

in its proper course and prevent the danger of future flood.

The Union also maintains a public reading room, a public park, a day nursery and a night school, all for the benefit of the refugees and farmers roundabout. Among other forms of service, the Union conducts from time to time short training institutes for farmers and for women who may join its "service teams." The working area of the Lichwan project covers about 30 square miles consisting of more than 50 country villages with a total population of 22,000. The project is in charge of Mr. Kimber M. K. Den, general secretary of the Union.

Early in 1941, the N.C.C. in conjunction with the Methodist Episcopal Church established a model center for cooperatives at Hsinglungshiang, Pishan, near Chungking. This is to serve as a demonstration center and clearing house for rural cooperatives in China especially those under the auspices of the various churches and Christian groups in Szechwan province.

FORWARD MOVEMENT

The untold pain and suffering which war has brought to China have had their impact on the Christian Churches in this country. To cope with this unprecedented situation, the N.C.C. toward the end of 1937 launched a Forward Movement. This brought together the Christian forces with an emphasis upon spiritual uplift, relief work and closer cooperation. The call issued by the Forward Movement struck a note of triumph instead of defeatism in the midst of trials and tribulations, and challenged the churches to a "deeper personal experience of the great realities of the Faith by which the Church lives, to a wider experience of Christian fellowship and communion with God, to a greater concern for winning men and women to Christ, for the salvation and welfare both of the community which the Church serves, and of all mankind." To such a call the churches have responded; doing their best in helping to minister to the needs of the nation. As the Forward Movement has carried on, its plan has been revised from findings of regional conferences and the experience of workers in the field, to include the following fourfold emphasis:

- (1) Witness of the Church,
- (2) Service for Christ,

- (3) Training for Service,
- (4) Cooperation of all Christian bodies.

This movement has enabled many churches to press forward in a time of the utmost strains. St. John's Church in Chengtu is one witness that worship to God cannot be destroyed by war. The Sunday after it was wrecked by a bomb, the members held a service of thanksgiving for the past and of dedication for the future. Within three months the Chinese-style church building had been rebuilt, though the scars on the pews, like battered war survivors, still give evidence of the damage. From the Northwest, one report received by the N.C.C. states: "In spite of widespread anxieties and dislocations, the church is having unprecedented opportunities. People of all classes—officials, soldiers, refugees—are most open to the Gospel."

At the beginning of 1939, when the government schools and industries were moving to West China, the N.C.C. gathered representatives of the churches together to plan for Christian advance in the western provinces. A Consultative Council for the western provinces was formed to act as a center for the exchange of information and consultation so that no phase of essential work in West China would be overlooked. A group of veteran N.C.C. workers led by Bishop W. Y. Chen, general secretary, later came to Chungking, and they formed the nucleus force of the work for Free China and prepared the way for the removal of the headquarters from Shanghai.

In 1940, the N.C.C. assisted by the Nanking Theological Seminary which had moved to Chengtu from Nanking, made a survey to find out the facts about the Christian migration to the western provinces, about the needs that have arisen because of this migration and to study the needs of theological education in West China. Two outstanding Christian leaders, Bishop Robin T. S. Chen and Bishop Carleton Lacy, constituted the survey team, whose findings are published in two volumes entitled *The Great Migration and the Church in West China* and *The Church Behind the Lines*.

The N.C.C. anticipated the possibility of its Shanghai headquarters being cut off from Free China, and its executive committee in Shanghai took official action in authorizing the committee in

Free China to function on behalf of the N.C.C. in that event. Accordingly, very soon after the outbreak of the Pacific War, the N.C.C. was reorganized in Chengtu, with Dr. Wu Yi-fang, President of Ginling College for Women, continuing as chairman, and Bishop W. Y. Chen, who had resigned as general secretary a few months before, returning to the general-secretaryship, on a voluntary basis. Its headquarters was established in Chungking and its work has rapidly expanded.

NEW PROJECTS

Among new projects undertaken by the N.C.C. is a Wartime Service Committee organized in cooperation with the New Life Movement Association. This committee is to mobilize the resources and personnel of the two participating organizations to cooperate in wartime service. The committee consists of 15 members, six appointed by the New Life Movement Association, five by the N.C.C. and four appointed by the committee. Mr. William Hsu, promoter of the Friends of the Wounded Society, serves as the executive secretary.

As a first step, the committee is to make a study of the large amount of service already carried on by the churches and missions, including special schools for married women, industrial work, schools for the blind, orphanages, homes for old folks, free schools for adults, recreational activities and the like. Its duty is primarily to strengthen these existing projects which already have budgets. For extension of work or establishing new projects, the committee is seeking necessary funds.

Among these projects, the committee will seek the strengthening of the work of the Friends of the Wounded Society by extending the movement from the cities to the rural districts. Plans have also been drawn for intensifying the work for the rehabilitation of the crippled by promoting land reclamation and colonization projects and organizing "Honor Soldiers Industrial Cooperatives" in cooperation with the Chinese Industrial Cooperatives.

Work has already been started at Neikiang, midway between Chungking and Chengtu, for the promotion of health service among conscripts. Emphasis is laid on preventive measures to keep the conscripts physically fit.

For refugee relief, it has been proposed to establish three refugee colonies at

Shihlipu, Huangniupu and Yangchiaping along the Lunghai Railway. In these three centers are coal mines, factories and other industrial plants where men and women can be employed while their children can be cared for in orphanages or day nurseries to be established. The committee has started consultations with the Women's Advisory Committee and the National Refugee Children's Association with a view to enlisting their support, and cooperation in this project.

Other projects mapped out by the committee include the evacuation of veteran workers including doctors, nurses, teachers, and others from enemy-occupied areas to Free China and the organization of two mobile training corps who are to visit the churches in various parts of the country and give training to local workers.

A new Church and Alumni Movement Committee has also been organized by the N.C.C. This aims at getting more of the quarter million alumni of Christian schools into the life and activities of the Church.

Another wartime committee of the N.C.C. is that on Christian Literature, which grows out of the conferences held under the auspices of the N.C.C. during recent years. This committee is promoting closer cooperation among the literature societies, one result being the formation of the United Christian Publishers, including the Christian Literature Society, the Canadian Mission Press, and the Association Press.

One outstanding development is the Literature Production Program established by the N.C.C. and the Nanking Theological Seminary. This aims at the translation of the great Christian classics, so as to make available in Chinese a representative selection of the great literature of Christianity from the beginning up to the present. An ashram held in the summer of 1942 brought together nearly a score of persons to participate in this work, and a good start was made both in the actual translation and in the working out of the details of the program. In the pre-renaissance period, this program will have the cooperation of Catholic scholars, through the newly organized Societas Luminis.

CHRISTIAN EDUCATION

Incorporated temporarily with the N.C.C. is the China Christian Educational

Association with Dr. Earl Cressy as senior secretary in charge. Two of the regional associations in Fukien and Szechwan, respectively, have been functioning vigorously while matters in the other 10 provinces have been handled from the central office in Chungking. The Association serves as an advisory organ and clearing house for 13 Christian colleges, 260 Christian middle schools, and 140 nurses training schools and more than 1,000 primary schools. Since the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war, the Association has played an important part in securing and administering relief funds for all these schools.

The 13 Christian colleges had over 7,000 students at the outbreak of the war. The first year, through the moving, or temporary closing of a few, the total student body was reduced to 4,000. However, these colleges made a rapid recovery, and in the fall before the outbreak of the Pacific War, the student body had reached a record enrolment of 8,000. Six of these colleges were very seriously affected. Four of them have already moved to the interior and are putting up temporary plants. The fifth is working out plans for establishing work in the interior. It is probable that before the end of the war this group of colleges will have recovered most of the student body, and be up to their former enrolment.

Of the 260 Christian middle schools in all China with about 5,000 teachers and 50,000 students, 105 are now operating in Free China, with about 30,000 students. All but a few of these schools have had to leave their original campuses and move longer or shorter distances to new and safer locations. Here they are carrying on under greater difficulties. They are scattered through 12 provinces, the largest numbers being in Fukien, Szechwan, Kwangtung and Hunan. These schools have had serious financial problems, owing to the increase in cost of living. They have been assisted by special funds from the several missions which have established them, and by special grants from the United China Relief fund in America and the United Aid to China Fund in Britain. The amounts thus far available are still far from being adequate to meet the actual needs.

Of the 140 schools of nursing education which now have the status of senior middle schools under the Ministry of Education, at least 44 are operating in

Free China. As these schools are closely related to hospitals, it has not been possible for as many of them to move into the interior as other middle schools have done. They also have had financial difficulties. An amount of \$250,000 has been made available from the United Aid to China Fund from Britain.

An indispensable factor in maintaining the work of the Christian colleges has been the Associated Boards for Christian Colleges in China, located in New York. This body normally sends over a million American dollars each year for the 13 Christian colleges, of which by far the larger part comes directly or indirectly upon the mission boards. Immediately upon the outbreak of the war in 1937, the Associated Boards launched a special campaign to raise a sustaining fund, in addition to the regular million dollars, to take care of the extraordinary expenses incurred because of the war. Over a quarter of a million was raised the first year, and increasing amounts in the following years. In 1941, the Associated Boards campaign was combined with that of the United China Relief, and the total amount made available for these colleges came to US\$660,000.

In addition, the United Committee for Christian Universities in China, located in London, has continued its support of these universities in spite of the heavy losses which have fallen upon the British Isles since September, 1939.

HISTORY

The National Christian Council of China, as is the case of 27 such councils in other lands, owes its existence to the World Missionary Conference held in Edinburgh in 1910. Soon after that conference there was organized the China Continuation Committee under the able leadership of its two secretaries, Mr. E. C. Lobenstine (now in New York) and Dr. C. Y. Cheng (deceased). By a resolution adopted at the National Conference of 1922, the largest and most representative gathering the Protestant Christian Movement had held in China, the China Continuation Committee was expanded and reorganized into the National Christian Council of China.

The N.C.C. is composed of 14 constituent church bodies and 10 national Christian organizations. The former include the *Chung Hwa Sheng Kung Hui* which represents the five Anglican bodies comprising the British, Canadian and

American Societies: the *Chung Hwa Chi Tu Chiao Hui* or the Church of Christ in China which is by far the largest church union in this country: the Chinese Home Missionary Society, the Methodist Mission, the Baptist Mission, etc. Among national Christian organizations are the National Committees Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A., the Chinese Medical Association, the China National Child Welfare Association and the Chinese Mission to Lepers. Christian educational and cultural organizations which are members of the N.C.C. include the Christian Literature Society, the China Christian Educational Association and the various Bible Societies.

During the past 21 years of its existence, the N.C.C. has performed significant service in promoting unity and cooperation among all these church bodies, national Christian and educational and cultural organizations. National annual meetings were held from 1922 to 1928 and since 1929 full meetings have been held every two years. Its Executive Committee meets twice each year, while the Standing Committee holds monthly gatherings to discuss the routine affairs of the N.C.C.

GENERAL ASSEMBLY OF THE CHURCH OF CHRIST IN CHINA

Christian churches of 13 missionary societies—Presbyterian, Baptist, Congregational and others—of several different countries—have their central representative organ in the General Assembly of the Church of Christ which is by far the largest church union in China. The head-office of the General Assembly has also been removed from Shanghai to Chungking.

The one man who was largely responsible for bringing about this church unity was the late Dr. C. Y. Cheng. In a seven-minute talk on the importance of a movement for unity and indigenous church in China at the World Missionary Conference held in Edinburgh in 1910, he won unanimous applause and support. Subsequently, he devoted a greater part of his time and effort to the promotion of that movement first as secretary of the China Continuation Committee, then as general secretary of its successor, the National Christian Council and later as general secretary of the General Assembly of the Church of Christ in China.

The General Assembly of the Church of Christ in China under Dr. Cheng's leadership was among the first Christian

organizations to participate actively in war relief work. Early in 1938, Dr. A. R. Kepler (veteran American missionary who died in America some time ago) and Dr. T. C. Fan, associate general secretary and secretary of the Assembly, visited Hankow and organized the National Christian Service Council for Wounded Soldiers in Transit (for details about this work see Chapter XIX on Relief Activities).

With the mass migration of schools and industries to West China, Dr. Cheng was among the first Chinese Christian leaders to see the need for Christian advance in the western provinces. Although Protestant Missions began in West China in the second-half of the 19th century, the territory is so great that there are still vast areas of Kweichow, Yunnan, Szechwan and Shensi without a single Christian. The great rural population has been very little influenced, while the tribespeople of the far western border are practically "virgin soil."

To pave the way for the extension of the Christian message to these unreached parts of the country, Dr. Cheng visited Chungking and Chengtu and other remoter regions of West China in the summer of 1939. During his trips to some of the border regions in Szechwan, he was particularly impressed with the primitive conditions that characterize the life of the tribespeople. The idea came flashing to his mind that something should be done for their welfare. After leaving Chungking, he addressed many meetings of Christian leaders at Kweiyang, Kunming, Hongkong, Shanghai and other cities on the plan which he had mapped out for the realization of that idea, and it was largely due to these travels and conferences which proved too much strain on his health that he died following a heart attack in Shanghai. Today a new church, established by the Church of Christ in China, in Kweiyang, stands as a memorial to Dr. Cheng who was also a translator of the Bible and founder of the Chinese Home Missionary Society.

The strenuous efforts made by Dr. Cheng, which finally led to his death, however, have lived in the minds of many of his associates who quickly set to work to carry out his plan. A Border Service was established by the General Assembly of the Church of Christ with head-office in Chengtu of which Dr. William B. Djang was as director.

Medical work is the outstanding feature in the program of the Border Service. In western Szechwan and Sikang the Service maintains hospitals, clinics and mobile medical corps giving free medical treatment to tribespeople who would otherwise resort to superstitious practices.

In western Szechwan the Service has its central station at Weichow. From there work has been extended to such remote parts as Tsakunao, Jiherh-chiao-chai, Tzetachai and Chiashanchai inhabited mainly by the "Chiangs" and "Jungs."

In Sikang the Service maintains its main station at Sichang. There is also a central clinic directing the activities of four mobile medical corps. The first corps, attached to the clinic at Sichang, serves the counties of Sichang and Chaochiao. The second corps works in the counties of Hweili and Ningnan. The third corps works in Yuehshe and Mienning and the fourth corps in Yenyuan and Yenpien.

Along with its medical work, the Service has made considerable progress in the promotion of education among the tribes. In Weichow, for instance, a special training class is conducted for women in which health and sanitation in the home are stressed. Half-day mass education schools are run at Jiherhchiaochai, Tzetachai, Chiashanchai and Tsakunao.

Similar educational progress has been made in Sikang. Two schools for Sikang tribespeople have been established, one at Hsiaoheiching, 34 kilometers southwest of Hweili, and the other at Huangpoching, 45 kilometers northeast of Hweili.

Plan are now afoot to establish a Sichang branch of the Medical College of Cheeloo University and a vocational school at Ahpa, near Sungpan in western Szechwan. These projects have had the approval and support of Generals Chang Chun and Liu Wen-hui, respectively, governors of Szechwan and Sikang.

THE Y.M.C.A. IN CHINA

Among the numerous National Christian organizations that have proved their value and worthiness, whose existence and growth no alien military might can crush, is the Y.M.C.A. in China. Five and a half years after the outbreak of war, there are in all China 20 city associations including four in

occupied territory and 16 in Free China, 80 student associations and fellowship groups in Free China. Wartime services undertaken by "Y" workers include emergency service to soldiers, civilian and student relief and the promotion of international understanding and goodwill. The multifarious activities may be reviewed under two main categories, namely, the association and wartime services:

1. *The Association.* In common with all other social organizations in China, the association has been greatly affected by the war on the one hand, and has gone through a period of unprecedented development on the other. The present condition is as follows:

(1) *City Associations.* Since the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese conflict, twenty-nine cities with Y.M.C.A.'s have fallen into enemy hands. Of these, six Y.M.C.A. buildings were seized and three burned before the Pacific War began. The Y.M.C.A. buildings seized were those in Tatum, Taiyuan, Wuchang, Soochow, Swatow and Canton. The Nanking, Weihaiwei and Changsha buildings were burned; of the remaining centers, Shanghai, Tsingtao, Tientsin, Tsinan and Peiping became increasingly active. After December 7, 1941, seven more Y.M.C.A. centers were closed by the invaders: Tsinan, Chefoo, Kaifeng, Paoting, Hangchow, Ningpo and Nanchang. The one in Hongkong had to suspend all activities. Now four Y.M.C.A. centers in occupied territory continue to function: Peiping, Tientsin, Tsingtao and Shanghai.

The City Associations in Free China find themselves in an entirely different situation. In addition to the six, namely, Chungking, Chengtu, Kunming, Sian, Foochow and Toishan, which originally existed, four new associations, namely, Kweiyang, Kweilin, Lanchow and Paoki, have been organized since the war began, and six branches have been started by associations which have been driven from their home cities, namely, Kanhsien and Kian by the Nanchang Association, Yuanling and Hengyang by the Changsha Association, and Kukong (Shaokwan) and Lienhsien by the Canton Association. With the exception of Foochow and Toishan, which are still in process of recovering from the effects of war, all these associations enjoy the confidence of the community and their work is not only progressing well, but is expanding in scope.

In respect to support, the record has been remarkable. Failures to meet the budgets have been exceptions. In many cases pre-war debts have been paid off. Shanghai liquidated \$200,000 of its debt; Hongkong \$30,000; Peiping paid its entire debt of \$80,000; Tatum cleared away a \$2,000 debt and Lanchow acquired land for a building. In several cities new buildings have been built and in 1941, in every case except Hongkong, the funds received for local support exceeded the sums asked for. Kanhsien and Kian new associations raised \$33,000 against \$15,000 the year before. Kukong (Shaokwan), the new home of the Canton Association received \$66,000 on a goal of \$40,000. In the spring of 1942 four associations completed their financial efforts. Kweilin alone failed to reach its goal. Chengtu raised \$50,000 on a goal of \$40,000; Kweiyang, \$84,000 on a goal of \$40,000. The Changsha Y.M.C.A., now operating in Hengyang and Yuanling, received \$260,000 from the community from which it had asked only \$100,000. Shanghai set out to raise \$200,000 and secured \$374,000. To cover needs that were not otherwise provided for, the National Committee of the Y.M.C.A. raised by contribution in the Shanghai area in 1941 \$250,000. In 1942 the National Committee budget called for \$1,199,958. Of this sum, \$800,141 must be raised in contributions. Toward this amount close to \$500,000 was pledged up to August. In 1942 funds for the Emergency Service for Soldiers was budgeted at \$2,500,000.

In the large cities in occupied territory educational work was strengthened. Peiping's supplementary schools increased enrolment from around 500 to around 1,300. The Tsinan educational work became outstanding: a day school of both primary and middle grades was well attended. The same was true of the night school. The number of students in daily classes in the Tsinan Y.M.C.A. averaged around 1,400. Similar increased demands came to the Shanghai Y.M.C.A.

Membership enrolments have varied with differing political pressure. In most of the smaller occupied cities the development of a membership has been officially discouraged. Tsinan has not made a membership enrolment effort since the war began. Chefoo, Paoting, and other cities of equal size have all been discouraged on the membership question. Large centers like Peiping,

Shanghai, and Tientsin have experienced increased memberships. Peiping has a membership of just over 3,000; Tientsin, just under 3,000; while Shanghai has for the first time a membership around 6,000. In Free China, memberships have generally increased. Kunming exceeds anything it has ever experienced before. Chungking has suffered some, for its building has been badly damaged by bombings. Chengtu has experienced an increase. The new centers, of which there are ten, all represent an increase for Free China. For the country as a whole there has been a net decrease.

(2) *Student Associations.* Before the war there were more than 100 student associations and fellowship groups in different parts of the country.

During the early years of the Sino-Japanese War and up to the outbreak of the Pacific War a number of schools continued to operate in occupied or semi-occupied territory. In Peiping, Yenching and Fujen universities carried on as usual. They met a great need. There were many students who had to remain in occupied territory, and who were spared being put under "New Order Government" school conditions by the presence of these universities. Their student bodies increased in size each year. The same was true of the Anglo-Chinese College in Tientsin. Private middle schools operated by missions in these big cities, with few exceptions, were permitted to continue. The Y.M.C.A. kept in contact with these schools. The approach had to be changed. The former student inter-school organizations had to be dissolved. No inter-school activities were permitted. Each school's activities had to be confined to the school's own compound and be put under the school's authorities. Even though activities were thus limited, student fellowships continued to flourish and the Y.M.C.A. secretaries were able to go in and out and to be of service in giving guidance and inspiration to these groups.

When the war swept over Peiping most of the students whose homes were not in the city left and followed their schools to new locations. But those who remained behind were in a difficult situation. They were cut off from communications with their families and their schools and were without support. Soon their clothes were gone, pawned for food. They had no place to stay. Both boys and girls experienced this

predicament. To care for these stranded students a hostel was opened in Peiping by the Y.M.C.A. and supplementary classes were provided. The teaching was done by stranded professors who also, for health or family reasons, could not get away. Stranded teachers and stranded students came together. A temporary college was organized. Everything was done with almost nothing, but the result was satisfactory. Teachers and students were mutually helpful. The effort was to prepare the students to take the entrance examinations for admission to one of the remaining schools. In the meantime, families were located wherever possible and support was re-established.

Throughout the pre-Pacific War period there was a concentration of educational institutions in Shanghai. These schools functioned with a great deal of freedom from political interference. Shanghai, up to December 7, 1941, was never more than a semi-occupied city though surrounded by occupied territory and under a certain amount of enemy army pressure. This freedom made it possible for the Y.M.C.A. to carry on much the same program of work with students as was possible in Free China.

When the institutions of learning located in or near the war zone had to migrate to the interior, the student associations concerned had to suspend their activities temporarily. Through the efforts of the Student Division of the National Committee, supported by the student departments of city associations, many of these student associations have been revived. Not only that, a number of new associations have been started in national universities. At present there are 80 student associations and fellowship groups in Free China.

The student association aims to promote extra-curriculum activities, which are urgently needed by students at this time when, under wartime material conditions, the students find life dry and monotonous. A few years ago, in order to meet the needs of students in isolated university centers, such as Loshan, Chengku, Pingshek, Tsunyi, Liangfeng, the National Committee Y.M.C.A., with the cooperation of several churches, recruited secretaries and sent them to those places to start student service centers designed to promote all sorts of extra-curriculum activities among students.

Fourteen such conferences for students were held in 1941 and nine in 1942. Some subjects discussed as early as 1939 have continued to hold student interest. Among them are: (1) "Know Christianity Movement." The effort is to help students know what Christianity is and what it stands for, to get students not merely to accept the Christian faith but also to have an intelligent and vital understanding of it. (2) "Know the Times Movement". The hope is to make students intelligent on what is going on in our time and particularly on current trends of thought. (3) The "International Friendship Movement" is, as the name suggests, a plan by which a fuller understanding may be developed between peoples of different nations. This is foundation work for a better world when peace comes. In cooperation with the program of the World's Student Christian Federation common days of prayer have been observed simultaneously with other nations. (4) "Self-Dedication Movement". This has distinctly religious implications and concerns only Christian students. The hope is to get students to face the claims of the church for service after graduation.

Each year most student conferences follow a common theme. Student thought is directed to this one subject. This gives unity to the intellectual and emotional responses that come from the conferences. In 1941 the theme was "The New China and the New Youth". For 1942 the proposed theme was "The Way of Living". To get themes before youth, to keep groups informed of the activities of other groups and to create a consciousness of national student solidarity, a small paper called *Hsiao Hsi* is printed.

The purpose and hope of the Christian associations is to kindle among groups of students fires of desire for useful, constructive, transforming service to society. This calls for constant study on the part of the interested students. It calls for capable leadership on the part of the secretaries. It calls for action and experimentation and sacrifice. In return it gives hope and outlet. The total effect is to lift and inspire and to create men and women of vision, reliability and devotion.

2. *Wartime Services of the Y.M.C.A.* In harmony with the purpose of the Y.M.C.A., which is to serve young men, the association leaders made and put

into execution shortly after the outbreak of hostilities plans for various types of war work. Among them the following are national in scope:

(1) *Emergency Service to Soldiers.*—Soldiers are among those whom the Y.M.C.A. should serve, because they are all young men. With experience in war work gained in connection with the campaign along the Great Wall in 1933 and again with the campaign in Suiyuan in 1936, the Y.M.C.A. organized its Emergency Service to Soldiers shortly after the outbreak of the Lukouchiao incident, with a view to conducting war work on a large scale. (For details, see chapter XIX on Relief Activities.)

(2) *Civilian Relief.*—When hostilities broke out, the Y.M.C.A. included civilian relief in its wartime program. During the past five years, the associations in different places have either administered refugee camps, collected contributions in money or material for relief purposes, taken charge of education for refugees, looked after child refugees or warphans, or been charged by the Government with the responsibility of receiving and repatriating refugees in certain areas. Shortly after the outbreak of the Pacific War, the Y.M.C.A. started service in Kukong, Kwangtung, for returned overseas Chinese by establishing a number of reception centers for them. Until the battle in the Chekiang-Kiangsi area in May 1942, the Y.M.C.A. had been conducting service at Kihwa for people evacuated from Shanghai as well as refugees. The Y.M.C.A. in Kunming, Kweiyang, Kweilin, Kanhsien and Sian, having been asked to help in the relief work conducted in those cities by United China Relief and the American Advisory Committee, have acquitted themselves so well that the two relief agencies have expressed deep appreciation of their cooperation.

(3) *Student Relief.*—During the early stages of the Sino-Japanese conflict, most of the schools and colleges in the coastal provinces had to move to the interior due to the deliberate bombing by enemy aircraft of China's cultural and educational institutions. This worked great hardships on the students. In view of this situation, the Y.M.C.A., in conjunction with the Y.W.C.A., organized a National Student Relief Committee as well as a number of local student relief committees to carry on emergency student relief work. The relief has taken many different forms. This work still continues, as the need

for it is still existent. At present there are twenty-one centers where student relief work is carried on, namely, Chungking, Chengtu, Loshan, Santai (Szechwan), Chengku (Shensi), Sian, Sunghsien (Honan), Kweiyang, Tsunyi (Kweichow), Kunming, Pingyueh (Kweichow), Kweilin, Liangfeng (Kwangsi), Yuanling (Hunan), Kanhsien, Kukong, Pingshek (Kwangtung), Nanping (Fukien), Changting (Fukien), Yungan (Fukien) and Shaowu (Fukien). A sum of NC\$4,500,000 will be spent for this work during the coming academic year, 1942-1943.

(4) *Promoting International Understanding and Goodwill.*—To this end the Y.M.C.A. in China sends from time to time representatives to foreign countries for further study and also to participate in international gatherings, to conduct lecture tours, and to help in raising funds for the World Service Program of the International Committee, Y.M.C.A. of the U.S.A. and Canada. At present there are seven Chinese secretaries engaged in this work abroad. In return, the Y.M.C.A. abroad send fraternal secretaries for service with Y.M.C.A. in China and, occasionally, also fraternal representatives for special service among the people in the interior. Such exchange of representatives has done much to acquaint people abroad with the true situation in China and thereby to arouse their sympathy with, and support of, her cause.

In addition to the different phases of work already listed, associations in different parts of China have been carrying on numerous forms of wartime service to meet the needs of their respective local situations. Among these may be mentioned promotion of mass singing; publicity on air-raid precautions and precautions against gas attacks; exhibits of pictures of and literature on the war of resistance; promotion of education for production; dissemination of knowledge of wartime diet and nutrition; promotion of athletics; conducting lectures and forums on current affairs; conducting sick soldiers' hospitals; organizing fire brigades, and operating a rural service car. With the limited personnel and money at its disposal, the Y.M.C.A. in China would not have been able to carry on such a comprehensive wartime program without the encouragement and support of the Chinese Government and the cooperation and active participation of people in different walks of life, as well

as the sympathy and assistance of sister movements abroad.

There are two other phases of the work of the National Committee Y.M.C.A., the literature production work and the Youth and Religion Movement. The Association Press of China has produced during the past several years scores of high-grade books and pamphlets, both original and translations, on religious, social, economic and political subjects designed for educated youth. Among them is a series of pamphlets known as the Emergency Series which discusses the military, political, economic and social aspects of China's campaign of resistance against Japanese aggression. The Youth and Religion Movement aims to present the Christian message to educated youth, both students and non-students, in different parts of the country through the sending from time to time of deputation teams to the different educational centers. At present, two teams are engaged in this work, one in the Northwest and one in the Southeast.

The Y.M.C.A. has had a history of 58 years. It had its beginning in several mission schools in China in 1885. In 1895 Mr. D. W. Lyon was sent to China by the International Committee of the Y.M.C.A. as the first employed secretary. During the 30 years following, the International Committee of the Y.M.C.A. of the United States and Canada, together with seven other Y.M.C.A. national councils and mission boards, have sent secretaries to help build up the movement in China.

THE Y.W.C.A. IN CHINA

Among the torch-bearers of a new womanhood in China is the Young Women's Christian Association. Though conducting a program primarily for young women, it has sought to serve women of all ages and classes, in cities and rural areas, at home and in factories. Throughout the war of resistance and reconstruction in China, the association has served as a refuge where the stranded receive succor and encouragement and as a medium through which patriotic women may contribute toward war relief or increasing production.

The nation-wide network of organizations through which its services are carried out consists of city and rural associations which in pre-war days numbered 21 and six, respectively. Of these, seven city and three rural

associations have temporarily suspended on account of the war. Of the 100-odd student associations, only 80 are now functioning while registered girls clubs are in existence in 53 centers throughout the nation.

The 14 active city associations, with year of organization, are :

Shanghai, Kiangsu (including International Branch)	1908
Canton, Kwangtung (temporarily in Kukong and Macao)	1912
Tientsin, Hopei	1913
Changsha, Hunan (temporarily in Yuanling, Hunan)	1919
Hongkong	1920
Chengtzu, Szechwan	1921
Mukden, Liaoning (directly affiliated with World's Y.W.C.A.)	1923
Tsinan, Shantung	1923
Peiping, Hopei	1926
Chefoo, Shantung	1926
Chungking, Szechwan	1935
Kunming, Yunnan	1936
Kweiyang, Kweichow	1938
Sian, Shensi	1938

The seven temporarily suspended city associations, with year of organization, are :

Hangchow, Chekiang	1922
Nanking, Kiangsu	1923
Wuchang, Hupeh	1928
Amoy, Fukien	1933
Foochow, Fukien	1935
Hankow, Hupeh	1935
Taiyuan, Shansi	1938

The six rural associations, both active and suspended, with year of organization, are :

ACTIVE—

Fushan, Shantung	1933
Wusu, Hunan	1941
Lungfengchang, Penghsien, Szechwan	1942

SUSPENDED—

Toishan, Kwangtung	1930
Tachang, Kiangsu	1934
Shunhwachen, Kiangsu	1935

War relief in various forms has naturally taken a large place since the outbreak of the war. Funds have been raised for war purposes through contributions, benefit performances and thrift campaigns. Several city associations have maintained War Service Corps on the field giving aid to soldiers.

This has taken two forms : (1) a service corps, and (2) work among the families of soldiers. In the earlier days of the struggle, the Hankow Y.W.C.A. organized a service corps composed of teachers, students, and working girls who went to Hengyang and Kweillin to assist soldiers. These women were volunteers getting only the barest provision for food and maintenance. They cooked and washed for wounded soldiers, prepared special diets and gave medical aid within their knowledge. The group was composed of about 50 persons. The work for soldiers' families was centered in Sian. There the workers visited the soldiers' wives or mothers, wrote letters, advised on family problems, provided supplementary food in emergency cases and sometimes provided capital for starting small businesses or industries.

Independently, or in cooperation with other organizations, the Y.W.C.A. has conducted camps in the following cities for refugees driven from their homes by war, or migrating to interior China: Shanghai, Hongkong, Macao, Kukong, Kunming, Sian. Food, clothing, and financial aid have been given in these and other cities.

Dr. Robert Fitch, in an article published in April, 1938, wrote: "The following items will give some idea of the work of the Y.W.C.A. The Chungking Association reports that the local association has sent \$6,000 to headquarters to be used in other association centers affected by the war and needing special aid. Chengtu reports having sent over 1,000 garments to Hankow for distribution to wounded soldiers. They later prepared 1,000 pieces of bedding and also collected old clothing. The Chefoo Association sent 450 padded garments to Shanghai, also the sum of \$700. This association was among the first to respond to the call for war relief. In Wuchang it was found that there was an average of 1,000 soldiers per week coming for treatment to the hospitals or to be passed on further inland. The Y.W.C.A. workers found in certain godowns lamentable conditions and

hospitals overcrowded and overtaxed. They prepared a special center with 30 beds to give temporary aid to the wounded, so that in emergency conditions they might not die from neglect while waiting for medical treatment."

Livelihood projects, usually organized as industrial cooperatives, have given refugees and other women training in skills. In eleven centers, city and rural, nineteen classes have given training in tailoring, weaving, shoe-making, embroidery work, umbrella-making, shredded meat production, spinning, cross stitch and stocking-making, artificial flower craft. As a result, hundreds of women are now able to earn their own living.

Informal adult education has had special emphasis. In eleven city associations and six rural centers thousands of industrial and underprivileged women in mass education classes have learned to read and write and received education in general lines, particularly stressing citizenship in wartime. Education in citizenship, health habits and sanitation campaigns has provided training in better living. Education in nutrition has given definite demonstrations about healthful foods available at low costs; often supplemented by the promotion of bean milk. Mothers' clubs and meetings have given lessons in the care of children and in home-making in city and country.

A new feature of work has been the promotion of day nurseries in Kweiyang, Shanghai, and Chengtu for the care of pre-school age children of industrial, business and professional women, who are thus enabled to give their trained service to their country. Cheap and sanitary bath houses have served many women. Every city association has maintained at least one hostel. Hostels have greatly increased in number and size, providing a place of residence for business and professional girls, and for students during vacation, as well as a transient refugee center for thousands of young girls and women travelling to a new job, to join their families, or to school.

Work with rural women has been conducted in seven places in the interior, helping rural communities to understand the war, training in leadership, training for livelihood, giving education in literacy, health and home-making.

At first it was of a promotional nature. Workers operated from a center, going

out over a large area and reaching many people with new ideas on health education, home and community life. At the same time they aroused much emotional response on the war question. When this had been done they would move to the next center, always leaving a nucleus to continue the effort. Later this work in the rural districts was made more permanent.

The Y.W.C.A. has been one of the major groups responsible for securing and administering student relief funds nationally and locally. Travel aid has been given to war evacuees moving to new colleges and student emergency centers are established to receive them *en route*. Students have been given relief through medical aid, winter garments, subsidies, hostels, and work projects during the school year and in the summer. This work has been in cooperation with the Y.M.C.A., as has been the work in new isolated university centers with large aggregations of students. In such places a student center has been opened, a student secretary assigned to work. Youth and religion teams have travelled in various sections of the country, endeavoring to set forth the Christian message, and interest students in Christian service, through speeches and personal conferences. Summer and winter conferences have brought many students together to discuss student problems.

More and more women and girls of all groups—middle school, industrial, business, professional, and rural, have been organized in clubs to participate in varied activities through which they have been learning to do things together.

The need for inexpensive recreation, even greater in these days of war strains, has been recognized in the existence of singing clubs, social nights, and the maintenance of recreation grounds and rooms with simple equipment for constant use.

In all programs effort has been made to help women to understand the origin and nature of the war, of international aspects and relations, and of post-war reconstruction. Club activities as well as other aspects of program and organization have been carried on by committees, thus both officers and members bearing responsibility and getting experience in democratic functioning.

The Y.W.C.A. has had a history of 53 years. The first Y.W.C.A. in China was organized in 1890 in the Southern

Presbyterian Girls' School at Hangchow. In 1899 the first National Committee of the Y.W.C.A. of China was formed. In 1908 the first city association was organized in Shanghai. The first rural work was initiated in 1927 and the first rural Y.W.C.A. affiliated with the National Committee in 1930. In the spring of 1941 the National headquarters was moved to Chengtu, Szechwan.

MEDICAL MISSIONS

Protestant medical missions in China provide a wealth of personnel and equipment from which China at war may draw for healing her wounded soldiers and sick civilians. War at all times brings many evil companions among which illness, epidemics, exposure, hunger and malnutrition are the commonest ones. The needs for medical service have exceeded any in the history of China and to such needs most of the foreign medical missionaries and Chinese Christian doctors and nurses have responded like the Good Samaritan.

There are in China 268 mission hospitals. These hospitals, according to statistics at the beginning of the war, had about 75 per cent of the total number of civilian hospital beds in China. A complete up-to-date list of medical workers cannot be easily obtained. Statistics available in May, 1937, gave 561 Chinese doctors, 297 foreign doctors, 1,340 Chinese nurses and 256 foreign nurses. With their personnel, plant and equipment, these mission hospitals have been able to make one of the largest contributions to the medical care of the sick and wounded.

The National Health Administration of the Chinese Government was one of the first organizations to offer financial assistance to mission hospitals for the care of wounded soldiers and sick civilians. Under this arrangement the mission hospitals agreed to assist the army hospitals in the care of the wounded. One of the most common and acceptable methods of cooperation is as follows: If an army hospital of 1,000 beds is located in a city where there is a mission hospital of 100 to 150 beds, usually already well-filled with civilian patients, the mission hospital assigns 25 to 50 beds for seriously wounded soldiers, to be selected from those in the army hospital. Often the mission hospital sends units of its own doctors and nurses to the army hospital once or twice a day to assist in treating patients and doing dressings. They

will select the serious cases requiring major operations, X-Ray and send them to the mission hospital which is generally better equipped and staffed. As soon as these serious cases may be returned to the army hospital new cases are taken in for operation.

In addition, the refugees who by the thousands pass through the cities where most of the mission hospitals are located are in need of care, many suffering from disease, exposure, shock or grief. To all these are often added the bombings of the cities, when the hospital staff work far into the night trying to save lives and limbs. The mission hospitals are able to render service before the Japanese occupation.

When occupation becomes imminent, as many wounded soldiers as possible are quickly evacuated. The cities empty themselves of their population in haste, except for the very poor who have nothing to lose and no funds for travel. Many of the farmer folk, not having any other place to go, remain. The hospital "pay" rooms are emptied only to be filled again with refugees or destitute patients. The income drops near the vanishing point but the work increases because all other hospitals and practitioners have left the city. The only hospitals that could continue their services up to the outbreak of the Pacific War were the mission hospitals. Vaccinations and inoculations of refugees, isolation facilities for cholera patients, medical care of war orphans and other wartime relief have called for all the strength and resources of the hospital staff.

Dr. Robert E. Brown, formerly of the General Hospital of the Methodist Mission in Wuhu and now director of the University Hospital at Chengtu, had an eye-witness story to tell about the manner in which some of the mission hospitals held on to their task of ministering to the needs of the wounded and sick under most hazardous conditions. In 1939, he visited mission hospitals and medical centers in 15 provinces all the way from Wenchow (Chekiang) to Kunming and Chengtu in the west and from Kweilin (Kwangsi) to Yenan (Shensi) in the north. An excerpt from his article "Protestant Medical Missions" published in the book *Wartime China as Seen by Westerners* follows:

"In all of these widely scattered places there were so many examples of devotion

and heroic service, it is difficult to select one or two as examples. I arrived in Chengchow, Honan province, about six o'clock one evening in May, after a 30-mile trek by donkey and rickshaw over the last section of the road where the rails had been removed. Chengchow was at that time the most bombed city in China because it was at the junction of two important railways from the north and the east. Terrible destruction was apparent everywhere, as we walked through the city. While I was washing up in the mission doctor's home he told me that 25 large bombs had been dropped on the hospital compound but not a single important building had been directly hit. He said, 'Our work goes steadily on and we have had to put up some matchsheds to care for extra patients.' Every building was riddled with shrapnel. Walls were cracked, window and door frames were loosened from their brick walls and hardly a pane of glass could be found. The windows had been pasted up with paper during the winter and spring after each bombing. While I was washing and listening to the doctor, the American nurse came running in to tell me I had arrived just in time for the graduating exercises of the school of nursing. It was to be held that evening. I could hardly believe what she said—for them to have carried on the medical and nursing care of the sick under the conditions of that year was almost unbelievable. But in addition to that the students in the school of nursing had continued their studies, passed their national examinations and were ready to receive their diplomas from the Nurses' Association of China. As we sat in the church along with the mayor of the city and representatives from the military headquarters, it was easy to see the place that this mission hospital had won in the hearts of the people of Chengchow."

All the mission hospitals in China work under the direction of the Council on Medical Missions in China at whose request the above-mentioned tour of Dr. Brown was made in 1939. The history of the Council dates back to 1887 when a body known as the China Medical Missionary Association was formed to deal specifically with the interests of mission hospitals in this country. In 1925 its name was changed to China Medical Association and the membership was thrown open to all duly qualified physicians. In the mean-

time a purely Chinese association, the National Medical Association of China, had been formed and was gradually growing stronger. Finally, in 1932, the two associations united to form the present Chinese Medical Association. As one of its recognized councils there was formed a Council on Medical Missions to deal with the activities of the former missionary division.

Western medicine entered China over 100 years ago when Peter Parker, an American, was appointed the first medical missionary to this country. For many years the efforts to bring the benefits of modern, scientific medical service to China were almost entirely confined to Christian missions. Hospitals were built, clinics were opened, medical schools, schools of nursing, of dentistry, of pharmacy, of hospital technology were established. Medical literature was published both by translation of text-books and by the publication of periodicals. Public health work was undertaken. In short, the beginnings of an indigenous medical profession in all its many ramifications were laid down.

Medical education has been an important part of the medical service of the missions. The Peking Union Medical College in Peiping is the most beautifully and sumptuously housed of all medical colleges in China, and its hospital is the best equipped of all mission hospitals. In Chengtu, the Medical School of Cheeloo University operates on the campus of the West China Union University whose College of Dentistry is the best one in China. The United Hospital of these associated universities in Chengtu is the largest and best staffed and equipped in Free China. Mention should be made of the Hsiangya (Yale-in-China) Medical College now in Kweiyang. Its hospital, which has remained in Changsha, suffered \$12,000,000 damage during the third Changsha campaign.

CHRISTIAN LITERATURE

The printing press has been an important vehicle for the dissemination of the Christian message. It has always followed the church so that where the spoken exhortation fails the written word may succeed. When many of the churches and national Christian organizations migrated to Free China after the outbreak of the Pacific War, many Christian publishing organizations were not able to leave Shanghai. For some months, Christian leaders in

Free China held on to the hope that the stocks of books in Shanghai might somehow still be drawn upon. But that hope was finally shattered as news came of the confiscation of certain book stocks, the closing of the larger agencies and finally the confiscation of the Bible societies. The printing of all religious periodicals in Shanghai seems to have come to an end, including the influential missionary magazine, the *Chinese Recorder*, edited by the Rev. C. W. Allan.

As a result, the foreign missions and churches in Free China are facing an unprecedented literary famine. Everywhere in West China, there is a great demand for Bibles and Hymnals. The Bible societies in Shanghai had heroically tried to keep up with the great demand. In 1941, 55 tons of Bibles were sent by way of the Northwest along the Lunghai Railway and more by other routes. Along the former route the Japanese had mistakenly included the name of a post office that was really in Free China as one to which postal service could go. It was this mistake on the part of the Japanese that made possible the transportation of tons of Bibles from Shanghai to Free China.

Toward a partial solution of this literary famine, the Canadian Mission Press in Chengtu has made a very noteworthy contribution, not only through its own publications, but also through the considerable number of reprints it has recently made of Shanghai books and pamphlets, and of New Testaments and Bible portions.

The Christian Literature Society is probably one of the few Christian publishing organizations that have moved its headquarters to Free China from Shanghai. With part of its personnel in Chengtu, it is undertaking as large a program as its limited funds and staff will permit. But the extremely high cost of paper and printing in Szechwan makes any program of work on an extensive scale at the present time well-nigh impossible. Mr. Myron Terry, secretary of the Society, visited Kiangsi in 1942 to investigate the possibility of getting printing done there as prices are considerably cheaper

in that province. The difficult problem of distribution, coupled with the unsettled conditions following the Japanese campaign on the Chekiang-Kiangsi Railway, has delayed the realization of this plan.

The Christian Literature Society, which has been producing more books than all the other agencies put together (Bible societies not included), is a union organization, to which several missions give annual financial grants or assign missionaries for work. Its program is church-centered, and in its multitude of tracts, pamphlets and books it endeavors to provide material for all the various preaching and teaching situations of the church program.

Among Christian publishing concerns which are remaining in Shanghai, the Association Press, organized by the National Committee Y.M.C.A. provides Christian literature for the students of China, although recently it has been broadening its scope to include the more highly educated section of the general public. The Kwang Hsueh Publishing House is primarily a distributing agency, but also does a small amount of publishing of its own. There are denominational agencies, such as the Church Literature Committee (Sheng Kung Hui) and the Baptist Publication Society, and agencies which serve only one aspect of the Christian movement, such as the China Sunday School Union and the Christian Book Room (for theologically conservative tracts and books). Among the Bible societies, there are the American, British and Scottish—and their union distributing agency, the China Bible House. Some of the missionaries connected with these societies have come to Free China.

Outside of Shanghai the chief organization with more than a local scope is the Religious Tract Society of Hankow. This society, like the Christian Literature Society, is definitely church-centered. A large part of its work is confined to small tracts and pamphlets, and these are generally more conservative in theological tone than similar material from the Christian Literature Society or the Association Press.

THE CATHOLIC CHURCH

One of the most significant developments about the Catholic Church in China has been the appointment by the Chinese Government of Mr. Cheou-kang

Sie as China's delegate to the Vatican. This has been hailed in all Catholic circles as the harbinger of a new era in the advancement of the Catholic Action

in China. Chinese Catholics numbering nearly four millions have thus been brought to a direct communion with the Pope. They need no longer feel divided in the execution of their dual obligations of loyalty to the state and to the Church as the Chinese Government to which they are duty-bound as citizens of China is in direct relations with the Vatican, the highest authority of a universal religion. Mr. Sie who was Charge d'Affaires to the Chinese Legation in Switzerland prior to his appointment is a well-known scholar. A sympathizer with the Catholic Church, he is unanimously considered as the right choice for the post as delegate to the Vatican.

The large membership of the Catholic Church represents a fair cross-section of the Chinese people, as it draws from every section of the Chinese population, conservative as well as progressive. The proportion of those who are engaged in missionary work in China is in a far higher degree Chinese than is generally recognized. In fact in every branch of the missionary personnel except that of the clergy the Chinese are in a considerable majority. Among the clergy the ratio of Chinese to foreigners is at present two to three, but each year newly-ordained Chinese priests are coming from the seminaries to raise the proportion of native clergy. The Catholic Church, therefore, has had a share in all the consequences that the war has brought on the Chinese people, and the reaction of its members to war conditions is fairly typical of the reaction of the people as a whole to the impact of war on their lives.

Catholic missionaries come in organized bodies from more than a dozen countries. This international character of its missionary personnel has two effects that are of special interest in connection with the war. One is that it provides an evident guarantee of the purely religious character of its work, and of its preservation from anything in the nature of political entanglements. The other is that it furnishes an extremely varied body of competent witnesses to testify to the condition of things in China during the war and especially to the effect of the war on the Chinese Catholic population with whom they are in immediate contact.

RELIEF WORK

The outstanding feature of work of the Catholic Church during the past five and a half years has been its active

participation in war relief. The fact that there are approximately 6,000 Catholic missionaries scattered in 138 ecclesiastical divisions with a network of no less than 33,000 mission stations throughout China bespeaks the universality of Catholic relief work in wartime China.

The first shocks of war in China came to the places where the Catholic Church was most strongly established, Hopei and Kiangsu provinces, and notably the cities of Peiping and Shanghai which had long been two great strongholds of Catholic life. Shanghai, the first city to feel the onslaught of war had a Catholic population of close on 100,000 in its center and surroundings, and it had a number of large Catholic institutions. The eight hospitals of the Shanghai Vicariate (which corresponds to a diocese in Western countries) had nearly 20,000 sick in their wards each year and almost 1,000,000 cases tended in their dispensaries. More than 4,000 destitute children and orphans were in creches and orphanages, and there were over 1,000 young workers being trained in free school workshops. There were nearly 40,000 children in the Catholic schools. All this work was paralysed in a day. The smooth running of the institutions came to an abrupt end and the new duty of those in charge was to bring those under their care to some safer place than the beleaguered city and find some means of providing them with sustenance.

It was at this stage that the Jesuit veteran of the Great War, Fr. Jacquinot, secured the establishment of a safety zone where the lives of Chinese civilians would at least be spared. Altogether 200,000 people were sheltered there. Later, Fr. Jacquinot took a large part in trying to secure provisions for the great mass of people who took refuge in this area of security. For this purpose he visited the United States. This must have been one of the first direct appeals to America from stricken China in the course of the present war, and the abundance of the response was a foretaste of a generosity which merited for the United States such titles as "arsenal of democracy" and "treasury of humanity."

The war was not long under way when the great movement of refugees began. Immediately a *mot d'ordre* went out from the Pope's representative in China, Archbishop Zanin, who had been appointed Apostolic Delegate in

1934. The message was to all the vicariates and to all the missionaries in China, bidding them put all their resources to the utmost limit at the disposal of the suffering people. Houses and mission grounds were to be thrown open to them, and if necessary even the churches were to be used to shelter them. The direction was not necessary, for every mission center in the line of the march of the refugees had already opened its gates to receive them. The largest of these centers within easy reach of Shanghai was Zikawei, where there was a large concentration of Catholic mission establishments. Tens of thousands of people in many relays got accommodation in the large refugee camp established there, and hundreds of thousands received temporary assistance from the relief centers at the various institutions—hospitals, orphanages and schools—in the neighborhood.

From that time forward, as the war went on and the zones of destruction expanded and the dispersal of threatened populations became more widespread, the mission stations in one vicariate after another became organized to receive refugees, to care for the sick and the wounded, to provide for the destitute and give a home to the orphaned. From the coastal provinces the waves of refugees passed into Anhwei and Honan and the farther areas, and before long the Catholic missions at such places as Kaifeng, Wuhu and Anking had become the foci of large refugee centers. Eventually, with the development of the war in the air as well as on land, the refugee problem became one affecting practically the whole of China, and the Catholic Church in all parts of China was organized to do to the full its share of relief.

During the periods when the local Catholic churches were taking charge of refugees on their own property or in neighboring places hastily equipped, the numbers cared for were often very considerable. At Yenchow, in Shantung, at the most critical period there were more than 10,000. In the Vicariate of Kaifeng it rose to 100,000. There were 6,000 at Chengting in Hopei, and from 3,000 to 5,000 each in Sinsiang, Weihsui and Chengchow. These figures are taken at random from the story of the early anxious days. Later on there were 26,000 in Catholic compounds in Shansi, 8,000 at Changsha, and so on. Wherever the war front moved a refugee center was formed at every Catholic mission.

Following the extension of war to many countries in the West, it is interesting to note here that Catholic missionaries of every nationality had a part in the organizing of this relief work. In Hopei, side by side with churches under the direction of Chinese priests, were others in charge of French, Austrians, Hungarians, Italians, Irish, Poles and Dutch; in Shantung there were Americans, French and Germans; in Honan, Italians, Spaniards, Americans and Germans, and so on, and the best proof that all worked wholeheartedly and impartially in the service of the war victims was the fact that when the countries to which many of them belonged were drawn into the war on one side or the other it made no difference to their work. The people continued to regard them as friends, whatever their nationality, and in very few cases did the authorities think it necessary to ask them to transfer their ministrations to other hands.

MEDICAL WORK

There are Catholic hospitals in every province of China, without any exception. In most of them there are several of these hospitals, for it has always been the Catholic practice in China to provide many small hospitals rather than to concentrate on a few large ones. In the whole country the number at the beginning of the war was about 330. Many of these have since been destroyed, but at the same time their number has been added to by the opening of auxiliary hospitals in school buildings and other institutions. All these were pressed into service for the benefit of wounded soldiers, civilian casualties in air raids, and victims of epidemics. During the war years there has been a steady record of more than 100,000 patients given beds in Catholic hospitals every year, and of more than 10,000,000 cases being treated each year in Catholic dispensaries. These numbers are known to be quite incomplete, for there are many places in occupied as well as unoccupied areas in which help to the sick is being given in large numbers, and from most of these no reports can now be received.

Hospitals in the war zone naturally catered particularly for wounded soldiers. What was done in the Wuhan cities may be cited as an example of the measures taken to meet the war situation. Those three cities of Hankow, Wuchang and Hanyang which are grouped together in Hupeh at the meeting of the Yangtse

and Han rivers were the center of a great zone in which war raged furiously in the second stage of the Sino-Japanese hostilities and together they received probably the greatest number of wounded men brought to any place in the course of the war. In order to utilize mission personnel and equipment to the best purpose and to unite efforts to get fresh resources, the bishops of the three cities—for each is the head of a special vicariate—made joint arrangements. One was an Italian, another was an American and the third was an Irishman. Under their direction the hospitals in each of the cities were extended by the addition of auxiliary buildings and emergency staffs were enrolled and trained to work in them. In Hanyang one of the Irish missionary priests, Fr. MacDonald, who was a medical doctor, was responsible for the direction of a new large hospital. These hospitals were filled to capacity, and special thanks were given to the directors for the conspicuous attention they had given the wounded troops. At the same time in these cities special first aid corps were trained and organized by the medical personnel of the Catholic hospitals. Members of these corps attended the wharves and railway stations when the wounded were arriving or passing through. They took care of the transport of those who were being brought to the hospitals and gave emergency treatment and comforts to those who were continuing on their way.

What was done in Wuhan was repeated on a less elaborate scale in other cities. Hospital accommodation was greatly increased to provide for the wounded, first aid centers were established and relief associations founded, notable among the last named being the Catholic Ladies' Associations in Chungking and Kweiyang. Many of the hospitals and first aid centers that were established to meet a special need have been made permanent. They served the civil population after the wounded soldiers had gone, and after the war they will still play their part in looking after the health of the people.

For many years before the war, as part of the regular apostolate in China, young Chinese men and women were taught the principles of "Catholic Action," which is nothing else than lay cooperation in the work of the Church, especially in the sphere of instruction. The personnel and the training of these groups were most

useful in their application to war work, especially to the safeguarding of public health. Groups of specially trained medical students and nurses, and others of the student class who had received special instruction, went through the villages and country markets warning the people against habits that would injure with health and instructing them in the means of safeguarding it. These enthusiastic young citizens were listened to everywhere with the greatest interest, and they took occasion of their contact with their audience to urge the cultivation of those qualities of mind and heart which are most necessary to maintain morale in wartime. The members of these groups also did a good deal to help in enlivening the tedium of convalescence for wounded soldiers, and they helped many of them to get employment when they were invalidated out of the army and returned to civilian life.

CARE OF WAR ORPHANS

The care of children had always been in the forefront of Catholic mission work in China, whether the work was the reception of sick children in creches and special dispensaries, the care of them in orphanages, or the instruction of them in schools. The figures in each of these sections of work are instructive. The average over a number of years shows that some 60,000 infants were brought every year to Catholic mission creches, more than 30,000 children were cared for in orphanages, and close to 500,000 children received instruction in Catholic schools, large and small. It required only a small extension of each, or of the majority of these institutions, more than 12,000 in number, which cared for children, to enable them to take a large share of the young victims. In some cases they were able to cooperate with the great national work of the war orphans sponsored by Madame Chiang Kai-shek, and form a special department for the young children of soldiers killed in war. Before the war in Hongkong there was no more popular sight in the suburbs of the city than that of a line of tiny children, boys and girls, in their neat uniforms, walking along under the care of Catholic Sisters and singing patriotic songs in a childish treble. They were some of the war orphans who were being cared for in a local convent.

Up to 1942, 65 Catholic refugee centers were still being maintained in Hupeh, Anhwei and Honan, several thousand

refugees being harbored in the Vicariate of Pengpu, in Anhwei, and more than 172,000 persons being helped during the most recent movements of the population there. In a corner of north-western Honan 8,000 families were helped and in the Nanyang Vicariate, in the southwest of the same province, 35,000 refugees were helped on their way. In Shasi, Hupeh, 26,000 people were cared for in a month. At the time of the third assault on Changsha in December, 1941, more than 12,000 refugees were helped and many thousands of soldiers given medical relief.

Other casual entries in mission reports indicate: Kweichow:—eleven relief centers; 33,685 helped on the way; more or less permanently housed and fed, 46,910;—wounded soldiers attended 6,550. Anking:—Refugees sheltered, 8,000; others helped, over 90,000. Sinsiang:—Sheltered in the mission house, 15,000. Yuanling:—5,180 refugees; 1,010 victims of bombardment cared for and fed. Siensien:—17,500 refugees. Tatung:—11,465 fed for three months.

SUPREME SACRIFICES

Many missionaries naturally lost their lives in the turmoil of a country at war. They died in air-raids, in attacks on towns and villages. Almost every month had its victims: Mgr. Schraven, Vicar Apostolic of Chengting, shot out of hand with six other Vincentian priests and brothers; Fr. Mark Li, killed with his catechist near Ichang; Fr. John Wang, C.M., murdered near Hangchow; Fr. Cocchi, O.F.M., an Italian Franciscan, shot openly by Communists in Shantung; Fr. Simons, an American Jesuit, killed by robbers in Kiangsu; Fr. Bayerle, S.V.D., killed while visiting his mission district; two Chinese Sisters, Sr. Mary Pei and Sr. Teresa Tchang, shot after being bayoneted; Sr. Maria Biffi, killed by a bomb at the door of the Kwangtung hospital which she had directed for fifteen years—and many others. It is a long list, not yet ended, for it has never been suggested that Catholic missionaries should leave their privileged posts—the points of danger.

Most conspicuous of the Catholic missionaries who died through the conditions of the war was Fr. Vincent Lebbe, who as a Chinese citizen was known as Lei Ming-yuen. He was a Belgian Vincentian, who had worked with great devotion as a missionary in China and then among Chinese students in Europe. When a Chinese Vincentian

was made Vicar Apostolic of Ankwo, in Hopei, he worked under him, and then became Superior of a native Congregation of Little Brothers of St. John the Baptist. In the war these religious groups did ambulance work and gave unstinting service to the poor and suffering in the war areas. Their example of Christian charity was such that it drew away many who had previously been told that sympathy with the poor was only found among Communists. This aroused the bitter hostility of the Communists, who captured many of the Brothers and buried them alive. They also captured Fr. Lebbe and threw him into prison where he was treated with such harshness that he died soon after his release. He had loved and served the plain, simple people of China with a sincerity and devotedness that won the admiration of all, and he was honored by the whole nation after his death.

A CHINESE BISHOP

Though the majority of Catholics who have served China during the war have done so in circumstances that brought them neither fame nor any kind of public recognition, there have been some whose work brought them into the public eye, and in some cases even gained for them widespread fame. Chief of these is Bishop Paul Yu Pin, Vicar Apostolic of Nanking (now in Chungking), who is one of the select number of Chinese who have gained world renown in the course of the war. As a student in Rome his outstanding qualities soon won him distinction. He gained three doctorates, and on completing his studies he served for some years as professor. Even his duties in this capacity were interrupted on one occasion when he was sent as the member of a Papal Delegation to Abyssinia. On his return to China he was assigned to important duties in Peiping, and then, while still in the early thirties, he was consecrated Bishop. During the war he has toured the United States and other foreign countries to explain the Chinese position as seen by a Chinese Catholic leader, and he has everywhere made friends and won respect for himself and for his nation, and for the Church in China. In Chungking he holds an honored position, and is a member of the People's Political Council. He is a man of great gifts and great heart, and the Catholics of China are deservedly proud of him.

The Church has passed through these five years of war in China with remarkably

little change. Its religious work has gone on without pause, the instruction of new members has been continued, the administration of the sacraments has been maintained. The number of baptisms remains each year very much the same as before in the places from which records are obtainable though records are necessarily more scanty than before.

GERMAN AND ITALIAN MISSIONARIES

Of the 6,000 Catholic missionaries in all China, there are more than 500 Italian and German nationals in Free China. They became "enemy aliens" following the outbreak of the Pacific War. However, most of them have been allowed a certain degree of freedom of movement within their respective mission districts to continue their work in preaching the Gospel. The only exception is found in the four cities of

Sinyang, Nanyang, Loyang and Chengchow in Honan province where the Italian and German Catholic missionaries have been interned by order of the Chinese military authorities there. The numbers of Italian and German Catholic missionaries in those four cities are listed as follows:

Sinyang	40
Nanyang	36
Loyang	30
Chengchow	37

According to a list prepared by Father Leo Ferrary, Chungking representative of the Catholic Church, there are in all China 134 bishops of whom 23 are Chinese. The list of the bishops, the location of their ecclesiastical division, their age and the number of foreign missionaries in their respective divisions follows:

	Name	Province	City	Nationality	Age	Pers.
1.	Most Rev. Gaspar Schotte	Ningsia	Ningsia	Belgian	61	37
2.	Most Rev. Leon-Jean-Marie De Smedt	"	Siwantze	"	61	66
3.	Most Rev. Louis Morel	Suiyuan	Howho	"	62	74
4.	Most Rev. Joseph Fan	"	Tsining (Meikweiyintze)	Chinese	60	12
5.	Most Rev. Lucas Tchao	Jehol	Chihfeng	"	68	4
6.	Most Rev. Conrad Abels	"	Sungshutsuitze	Dutch	36	71
7.	Most Rev. Raymond A. Lane	Liaoning	Fushun	American	48	57
8.	Most Rev. Jean-Marie Michel Blois	"	Mukden	French	61	127
9.	Most Rev. Louis Lapierre	"	Szeping kai	"	62	101
10.	Most Rev. Auguste-Ernest-Pierre Gaspais	Kirlin	Kirin	"	58	61
11.	Most Rev. Emilien Masse	"	Lintung	"	31	22
12.	Most Rev. Theodore Breher	"	Yenki	German	53	35
13.	Most Rev. Paul Hugentobler	Heilungkiang	Tsitsihar	Suisse	49	70
14.	Most Rev. Jean-Baptiste Wang	Hopei	Ankwo Sikwan	Chinese	59	5
15.	Most Rev. Jean Tchang	"	Pientsun	"	49	
16.	Most Rev. Job Tchen	"	Chengting	"	51	13
17.	Most Rev. Leopold Brellinger	"	Kinghsien	Austrian	49	10
18.	Most Rev. Joseph Chow	"	Paoting	Chinese	50	17
19.	Most Rev. Paul-Leon-Cornil Montaigne	"	Peiping (Petang)	French	59	102
20.	Most Rev. Ignace Krause	"	Shuntehfu	Polish	46	23
21.	Most Rev. Francois-Xavier Tchao	"	Sienhsien	Chinese	48	99
22.	Most Rev. Nicolas Szarvas	"	Taming	Hungarian	52	60
23.	Most Rev. Jean de Vienne	"	Tientsin	French	65	131
24.	Most Rev. Tarcisio Martina	"	Yih sien,	Italian	55	15
25.	Most Rev. Joseph Tsoui	"	Yungnien Weihsien	Chinese	65	
26.	Most Rev. Ernest-Francois Geurts	"	Yungping	Dutch	80	42
27.	Most Rev. Joseph Tchang Juinpo	Chahar	Suanhwa	Chinese	43	16
28.	Most Rev. Louis-Prosper Durand	Shantung	Chefoo	Canadian	57	64
29.	Most Rev. Henri Pinger	"	Chowtsun	American	45	38
30.	Most Rev. Charles Weber	"	Lini	German	56	41
31.	Most Rev. Alexandre Digard	"	Yitu	French	51	17
32.	Most Rev. Gasper Hu	"	Lintsing	Chinese	66	19
33.	Most Rev. Francois-Xavier-Hoowaarts	"	Hotseh	German	64	41
34.	Most Rev. Cyrillo Jarre	"	Tsinan	"	64	110
35.	Most Rev. Georges Weig	"	Tsingtao	"	59	90
36.	Most Rev. Cesaire Stern	"	Weihaiwei	French	65	24
37.	Most Rev. Thomas Tien	"	Polichwang, Yangku	Chinese	52	7

	<i>Name</i>	<i>Province</i>	<i>City</i>	<i>Nationality</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>Pers.</i>
38.	Most Rev. Theodore Schu	Shantung	Yenchow	German	50	72
39.	Most Rev. Francois Liou	Shansi	Fenyang	Chinese	70	1
40.	Most Rev. Pierre Tcheng	"	Hungtung	"	66	
41.	Most Rev. Quintinus Pessers	"	Kiangchow	Dutch	46	17
42.	Most Rev. Fortunat Spruit	"	Luanfu	"	62	54
43.	Most Rev. Edgar-Antoine Haering	"	Shohsien	German	48	45
44.	Most Rev. Luc Capozzi	"	Taiyuanfu	Italian	76	35
45.	Most Rev. Francois Joosten	"	Tatung	Belgian	68	30
46.	Most Rev. Hermenegilde Focaccia	"	Tsingyuan	Italian	56	15
47.	Most Rev. Jean Tchang	Shensi	Chowchih	Chinese	70	1
48.	Most Rev. Sylvestre Wang	"	Fengsiang	"	50	1
49.	Most Rev. Mario Civelli	"	Nancheng	Italian	52	48
50.	Most Rev. Berard Barracciu	"	Ankang	"	58	12
51.	Most Rev. Ferdinand Pasini	"	Sanyuan	"	45	25
52.	Most Rev. Pacifique-Jules Vanni	"	Sian	"	49	20
53.	Most Rev. Pierre Moretti	"	Tali	"	54	14
54.	Most Rev. Celestin Ibanezy Aparicio	"	Yenan	Spanish	69	15
55.	Most Rev. Theodore Buddenbrock	Kansu	Kaolan	German	64	55
56.	Most Rev. Ignace Larranaga-Lasa	"	Pingliang	Spanish	50	25
57.	Most Rev. Salvator Pierre Walleser	"	Tienschui,			
			Tungkwan	German	68	53
58.	Most Rev. Jerome Haberstroh	Chinghai	Sining	"	49	18
59.	Most Rev. Ferdinand Loy	Sinkiang	Tihwa	"	50	7
60.	Most Rev. Simon Tsu	Kiangsu	Haimen	Chinese	74	12
61.	Most Rev. Auguste Haouisee	"	Zikawei,			
			Shanghai	French	65	532
62.	Most Rev. Raul Yu Pin	Szechwan	Chungking	Chinese	41	
63.	Most Rev. Philippe Cote ...	"	Tungshan	American	47	37
64.	Most Rev. Jacques-Victor-Marie Rouchouse	"	Chengtu	French	72	62
65.	Most Rev. Louis-Gabriel-Xavier Jantzen	"	Chungking	"	57	46
66.	Most Rev. Fabien Yu	"	Loshan	Chinese	52	
67.	Most Rev. Stanislas Baudry	"	Sichang	French	55	40
68.	Most Rev. Paul Ouang	"	Nanchung	Chinese	61	
69.	Most Rev. Louis-Nestor Renault	"	Ipin	French	70	33
70.	Most Rev. Francois-Xavier Ouang	"	Wanhshien	Chinese	70	9
71.	Most Rev. Frederic Melendro-Gutierrez	Anhwei	Hwaining	Spanish	53	57
72.	Most Rev. Cyprien-M. Cassini	"	Pengpu	Italian	48	47
73.	Most Rev. Jose Fogued	"	Tunsi	Spanish	57	12
74.	Most Rev. Zenon Aramburu	"	Wuhu	"	63	81
75.	Most Rev. Louis Calza	Honan	Chengchow	Italian	63	37
76.	Most Rev. Joseph Yuan	"	Chumatien	Chinese	46	4
77.	Most Rev. Noe-Joseph Tacconi	"	Kaifeng	Italian	69	64
78.	Most Rev. Francois-Xavier Ochoa	"	Shangkui	Spanish	53	19
79.	Most Rev. Assuerus-Theophane Bassi	"	Loyang	Italian	55	30
80.	Most Rev. Pierre Massa	"	Tsinkiangang,			
			via Nanyang		47	36
81.	Most Rev. Thomas Megan	"	Sinsiang	American	43	25
82.	Most Rev. Hermann Schoppelrey	"	Sinyang	German	66	59
83.	Most Rev. Martin Chiolino	"	Chihhsien	Italian	65	44
84.	Most Rev. Sylvain-Pierre Valentin	Sikang	Kangting	French	62	37
85.	Most Rev. Eugene Massi	Hupeh	Hankow	Italian	67	125
86.	Most Rev. Edward J. Galvin	"	Hanyang	Irish	60	53
87.	Most Rev. Henri-Noel-Gubbels	"	Ichang	Belgian	68	57
88.	Most Rev. Raphael Cazzanelli	"	Kichun	Italian	61	28

	<i>Name</i>	<i>Province</i>	<i>City</i>	<i>Nationality</i>	<i>Age.</i>	<i>Pers.</i>
89.	Most Rev. Alphonse-Marie Ferroni	Hupeh	Laohokow	Italian	50	34
90.	Most Rev. Joseph Tchang	"	Puchi	Chinese	61	1
91.	Most Rev. Jules Dillon	"	Sbasi	American	45	14
92.	Most Rev. Jean-Bte Hou	"	Shihnan	Chinese	61	4
93.	Most Rev. Francois-Yi	"	Siangyang	"	42	7
94.	Most Rev. Maurice Patrick Connaughton	"	Anlu (temporary)	Irish	53	12
95.	Most Rev. Joseph Espelage	"	Wuchang	American	66	49
96.	Most Rev. Petronio-Maria Lacchio	Hunan	Changsha	Italian		15
97.	Most Rev. Gerard Herrero Garrote	"	Changteh	"	75	12
98.	Most Rev. Raphael Palazzi	"	Hengyang	"	56	13
99.	Most Rev. Hippolyte Martinez	"	Lih sien	"	60	13
100.	Most Rev. Ladislav Lombos	"	Shaoyang	Hungarian	55	16
101.	Most Rev. Pacifico Calzolari	"	Siangtan	Italian	46	8
102.	Most Rev. Ange de la Calle Fontecha	"	Yoyang	Spanish	56	13
103.	Most Rev. Cuthbert M. O'Gara	"	Yuanling	Canadian	56	44
104.	Most Rev. Jean-Damasene Jesacher	"	Lingling	Austrian	62	29
105.	Most Rev. Jean O'Shea	Kiangsi	Kanhsien	American	55	26
106.	Most Rev. Gaetan Mignani	"	Kian	Italian	60	19
107.	Most Rev. Paul Dimond	"	Kiukiang	French	78	27
108.	Most Rev. Patrick Cleary	"	Nanchang	Irish	56	35
109.	Most Rev. Jean Joseph Georges Deymier	Chekiang	Hangchow	French	56	32
110.	Most Rev. William Cecil McGrath	"	Lishui	Canadian	46	40
111.	Most Rev. Andre-Jean-Francois Defebvre	"	Ningpo	French	56	50
112.	Most Rev. Joseph Hou	"	Haimen	Chinese	61	
113.	Most Rev. Manuel Prat	Fukien	Kulangsu	Spanish	69	31
114.	Most Rev. Francois Aguirre	"	Foochow	"	79	49
115.	Most Rev. Theodore Labrador	"	Santua	"	54	35
116.	Most Rev. Michael A. O'Connor	"	Kienow	American	39	18
117.	Most Rev. Maximilian Koenig	"	Shaozu	German	38	29
118.	Most Rev. Egbert-M Pelzer	"	Wuping	"	60	43
119.	Most Rev. Antoine-Pierre-Jean Fourquet	Kwangtung	Canton	French	70	55
120.	Most Rev. Dominique Desperben	"	Hainan	"	44	17
121.	Most Rev. Henri-Pascal Valtorta	"	Hongkong	Italian	59	299
122.	Most Rev. Francis-Xavier Ford	"	Meih sien	American	50	47
123.	Most Rev. Adolph John Paschang	"	Kongmoon	"	47	40
124.	Most Rev. Gustave Deswaziere	"	Pakhoi	French	59	27
125.	Most Rev. Ignace Kanazei	"	Kukong	Italian	59	21
			(Shaokwan)			
126.	Most Rev. Charles Vogel	"	Swatow	French	64	30
127.	Most Rev. John Romaniello	Kwangsi	Kweilin	American	42	13
128.	Most Rev. Paulin-Joseph-Justin Albouy	"	Yungning	French	62	29
129.	Most Rev. Frederic A. Donaghy	"	Tsangwu	American	39	20
130.	Most Rev. Francois-Lazare Seguin	Kweichow	Kweiyang	French	74	35
131.	Most Rev. Alexandre Carlo	"	Anlung	"	61	21
132.	Most Rev. Mathias Buchholz	"	Shihsien	German	39	29
133.	Most Rev. Jean-Baptiste Magenties	Yunnan	Tali	French	46	30
134.	Most Rev. Jean Larregain	"	Kunming	"	54	46

DISTRIBUTION OF CATHOLIC INSTITUTIONS

The following list shows the distribution of Catholic hospitals, dispensaries, orphanages, homes for the old, and refugee camps in Free China:

NINGSIA		Hanchung	
Ningsia		Dispensaries	3
Dispensaries	5	Orphanage	1
Orphanages	13	Orphans	424
Orphans	132	Homes for the Old	2
		Old men	67
SHENSI		Hingan	
Chowchih		Dispensaries	6
Dispensaries	2	Orphanages	2
Orphanages	2	Orphans	114
Orphans	301	Homes for the Old	2
		Old men	42
Fengsiang		Sanyuan	
Dispensaries	2	Hospitals	2
Orphanage	1	Patients	188
Orphans	62	Dispensaries	2
Refugee Camp	1	Orphanages	2
Refugees	75	Orphans	142
		Homes for the Old	2
		Old men	49
		Sian	
		Dispensaries	3
		Orphanages	2
		Orphans	82

Tungchow		Nanyang	
Dispensaries	3	Hospital	1
Orphanage	1	Patients	354
Orphans	89	Dispensaries	2
Yenan		Orphanages	2
dispensary	1	Orphans	221
KANSU		Homes for the Old	2
Lanchow		Old men	22
Hospital	1	SZECHWAN	
Patients	54	Chengtu	
Dispensaries	9	Hospital	1
Orphanages	4	Patients	4,205
Orphans	138	Dispensaries	8
Home for the Old	1	Orphanages	8
Old men	12	Orphans	1,359
Pingliang		Homes for the Old	3
Dispensaries	2	Old men	299
Orphanages	2	Chungking	
Orphans	68	Hospital	1
Homes for the Old	2	Patients	542
Old men	22	Dispensaries	3
Tainchow		Orphanage	1
Hospital	1	Orphans	242
Patients	255	Homes for the Old	2
Dispensaries	7	Old men	92
Orphanage	1	Loshan	
Orphans	60	Orphanage	1
Homes for the Old	2	Orphans	25
Old men	24	Ningyuan	
CHINGHAI		Hospitals	2
Sining		Patients	1,255
Dispensaries	3	Dispensaries	2
Orphanage	1	Orphanages	11
Orphans	9	Orphans	153
SINKIANG		Home for the Old	1
Tihwa		Old men	28
Dispensaries	2	Shunking	
Orphanage	1	Orphanages	2
Orphans	5	Orphans	226
HONAN		Ipin	
Chengchow		Hospital	1
Hospital	1	Patients	477
Patients	954	Dispensaries	2
Dispensaries	6	Orphanages	2
Orphanages	2	Orphans	51
Orphans	85	Homes for the Old	6
Homes for the Old	2	Old men	1,226
Old men	24	Wanhsien	
Chumatien		Orphanages	3
Hospital	1	Orphans	507
Patients	9,359	Dispensaries	2
Dispensary	1	SIKANG	
Orphanages	3	Kangting	
Orphans	83	Hospitals	2
Homes for the Old	2	Patients	1,372
Old men	15	Dispensaries	4
Loyang		Orphanages	5
Hospital	1	Orphans	72
Patients	1,238	Homes for the Old	3
Dispensaries	7	Old men	44
Orphanages	2	Leprosery	1
Orphans	56	Patients	210

HUPEH					
Laohokow			Orphans		105
Hospital	1		Homes for the Old		3
Patients	1,502		Old men		66
Dispensaries	7		Yungchow		
Orphanages	3		Dispensaries		3
Orphans	470		Orphanages		2
Home for the Old	2		Orphans		221
Old men	45		KIANGSI		
Sungtze			Kanhsien		
Hospital	1		Hospital		1
Patients	690		Patients		292
Dispensaries	3		Dispensaries		11
Orphanages	2		Orphanages		3
Orphans	92		Orphans		749
Siangyang			Homes for the Old		3
Dispensaries	6		Old men		73
Orphanages	3		Kian		
Orphans	328		Hospitals		2
Homes for the Old	2		Patients		1,020
Old men	23		Dispensaries		5
HUNAN			Orphanages		2
Changsha	1		Orphans		511
Hospital	1		Homes for the Old		2
Patients	1,150		Old men		122
Dispensaries	10		Nanfeng		
Orphanage	1		Dispensary		1
Orphans	143		Orphanage		1
Changteh			Orphans		168
Dispensary	1		CHEKIANG		
Orphanage	1		Taihsien		
Orphans	92		Hospital		1
Home for the Old	1		Patients		1,464
Old men	92		Dispensaries		3
Hengyang			Orphanages		2
Dispensaries	10		Orphans		184
Orphanage	1		FUKIEN		
Orphans	150		Funing		
Home for the Old	1		Dispensaries		3
Old men	40		Orphanages		3
Lichow			Orphans		431
Orphanage	1		Kienow		
Orphans	234		Dispensaries		5
Home for the Old	1		Orphanage		1
Old men	7		Orphans		50
Paoking			Home for the Old		1
Dispensary	1		Old men		32
Orphanage	1		Shaowu		
Orphans	97		Hospitals		2
Home for the Old	1		Patients		186
Old men	7		Dispensaries		8
Siangtan			Orphanages		4
Dispensaries	8		Orphans		186
Orphanage	1		KWANGTUNG		
Orphans	18		Kaying		
Yuanling			Home for the Old		1
Hospital	1		Old men		15
Patients	230		Kukong		
Dispensaries	8		Dispensaries		11
Orphanages	5		Orphanage		1
			Orp ans		53
			Home for the Old		1
			Old men		20

KWANGSI

Kweilin	
Dispensaries	7
Nanning	
Dispensaries	11
Orphanage	1
Orphans	17
Home for the Old	1
Old men	17
Wuchow	
Dispensaries	9

KWEICHOW

Kweiyang	
Hospital	1
Patients	436
Dispensaries	4
Orphanages	3
Orphans	113
Langlong	
Hospital	1
Patients	106
Dispensaries	5
Orphanages	6
Orphans	158
Shihtsien	
Dispensaries	3
Orphanage	1
Orphans	39

YUNNAN

Chaotung	
Dispensary	1
Tali	
Dispensaries	6
Orphanages	3
Orphans	121
Homes for the Old	2
Old men	15
Kunming	
Hospital	1
Patients	200
Orphanages	5
Orphans	88
Dispensaries	2
Homes for the Old	2
Old men	38

TOTAL :

Hospitals	28
Patients	27,529
Dispensaries	239
Orphanages	132
Orphans	9,524
Refugee Camp	1
Refugees	75
Homes for the Old	56
Old men	2,578
Leprosery	1
Lep. Patients	210

HISTORY OF CATHOLIC MISSION

Old legends say that the Apostle St. Thomas found his way to China and brought the message of His doctrine a few years after the death of the Saviour. There is no evidence to confirm the story.

Christianity seems to have first reached China in an imperfect form, as the teaching of the Nestorians, who claimed that there were distinct divine and human personalities in Christ and that Mary was the Mother of the Man Christ, but not the Mother of One who was really God. The Nestorians were numerous in China at one time, from the seventh to the ninth centuries. They had monasteries in Sian and in Chengtu and in many other places, and they translated numerous religious books into Chinese. Then a drastic persecution came, and by the year 1000 all the Nestorians seem to have disappeared. They came again later on, so that when the Catholics came many years later they found relics of their teaching in places widely scattered over the country.

In the time of Genghis Khan and his successors, envoys came from the Pope to their Court, and missionaries followed in their wake, and some of the Nestorians seem to have embraced the Faith which they taught, but it was not until late in the thirteenth century, the greatest century of Western civilization, that the Catholic mission to China was first definitely established. The honor of doing so belongs to an Italian Franciscan, John of Montecorvino. For nine years he was alone in China, and then a German friar of his Order joined him. He converted princes and young children, built churches, and taught choir boys to sing the sacred chants in Latin. He had plans for forming a native clergy. The Pope named him Archbishop of Cambaluc (Peiping) and Patriarch of all the East, and sent out seven Bishops to be his assistants. Three reached China about 1313.

In that same year the Church took root in the province of Fukien, on the coast about eight hundred miles to the south. A cathedral was actually built there in the city of Zaitun (Chuanchow) and a new bishopric established. Along some twelve hundred miles of coast missions were founded in the chief cities, and when in 1322 a great Italian missionary traveller, the

first missionary to China elevated to the altars, Blessed Odoric of Prodenone, arrived in Zaitun with an Irishman, Friar James, he visited all these missions and was so much astonished at the progress which he found that he travelled back to Europe to ask the Pope for fifty more priests. This amazing man, who had preached in Asia Minor and in India, and then had travelled by Ceylon, Sumatra, and Java before reaching China, thought nothing of a journey of some thousands of miles on foot, and set off for Europe by way of Tibet and Persia and Armenia with as much unconcern as one books a steamship passage today. He reached Europe after a two years' journey and then died.

News soon came of the death of Archbishop John of Montecorvino. A successor was appointed and he set out on the journey, but he seems never to have arrived. A few years later when the Emperor was sending an Embassy to the Pope, some of the Court officials who were Catholics took advantage of the occasion to ask for another Papal Legate. He was sent, but he reached China just at the time when the Mongol throne was tottering and the Ming dynasty was arising. It was a time of violent political tension, and the Legate returned to Europe to report to the Pope and recommend, as Blessed Odoric had done, the despatch of many Friars as missionaries, and the consecration of some of them as Bishops. Three Bishops in turn were consecrated and left for China, but none reached it. Those who were working there gradually died off and there were none to replace them, for more missionaries perished on the way than reached the distant shores of China.

The years following the breakdown of the Crusades were not years of missionary enthusiasm in Europe, and in China there was violence and terror during the reign of the early Ming emperors. The conquests of Tamerlane blocked the land route to China, and China closed its gates and cut off relations with the outside world. There had been, it is believed, about 30,000 Christians in China, but they scattered and died, and by the time when Francis Xavier came to the East Christianity was once more extinct in the land.

The conversion of China was the great dream that grew up in the mind of St. Francis Xavier when, in the

middle of the sixteenth century, he traversed the lands of the East in the most wonderful of all missionary campaigns. St. Francis Xavier left Japan because he thought his mission there a failure, and not worth continuing until he had led China to the Faith. But Providence intervened. He died on the desert shore of the island of Sancian, a few miles from the mainland of China, in 1552.

When the news of the glorious failure of St. Francis Xavier travelled back to Europe, his Jesuit brethren and many members of the older Orders were all fired with the same ambition to do what he had attempted. Franciscans, Dominicans and Augustinians all tried to enter China.

A storm blew a Portuguese Jesuit to Sancian a few years after Xavier died. He was on his way to Japan. He got to the Chinese coast and said Mass on Chinese soil. He reached Canton and stayed a while but could not remain. A Jesuit brother also reached Canton, and began to study Chinese, but he died. Then a Dominican, then some other Jesuits, then some Augustinians, and later some Franciscans, all for thirty years continued to make attempts to restore active missionary work in China, but they all failed.

The man who had the happiness of succeeding at last was Fr. Matteo Ricci, a Jesuit who was born in the year that Xavier died. He entered China by way of Macao in 1582, and got to the city of Shuihing, the capital of the combined provinces of Kwangtung and Kwangsi. There he spent several years in the study of Chinese. He was a man of brilliant intellect and very varied gifts, and during his studies in Europe had been one of the most promising pupils of Christopher Clavius, the Jesuit mathematician and astronomer who was called the "Euclid of the Sixteenth Century" and was mainly responsible for the Gregorian reform of the calendar. In China he settled down to a study of the Chinese language and literature. He eventually acquired a deep knowledge of the classics and came to write Chinese with distinction. He went on to Nanking and Peking and became the friend of scholars and men of state. His genuine admiration for Chinese learning and culture established a basis of intercourse with them, and soon they began to question him about Western learning. It was then that he produced the clocks,

astronomical instruments, and musical instruments which he had brought, and showed them also his magnificently bound Bibles and his religious paintings. He displayed also a map which he had made of the world, showing China's position in relation to other lands. His reputation as a learned man spread, and he spoke of Christianity and called attention to points of similarity with it in the Chinese writings. Then he began to write books about the Catholic Faith, and when he made some converts among notable scholars he asked them too to write on Christianity. So the apostolate of the *literati* in China was begun.

Ricci's conversions mounted from hundreds to thousands—the numbers seems to have been about 2,500 after his twenty-eight years in China. The most remarkable of his converts among high officials was Paul Hsu, who later became Imperial Chancellor of Emperor Chung Chen. He was a man of considerable distinction and he was a pillar of the Church for many years. He was an ancestor of the mother of the Soongs, the most famous family of present-day China, and his name, pronounced Zi in Shanghai, is perpetuated in the village and observatory of Zikawei, situated on part of the family property.

Fr. Ricci had made many friends among members of the Imperial House, even before he went to Peking, and when he arrived at the capital he was received by the Emperor and treated with great favor. Several near relatives of the Emperor were converted to Catholicity, and within about thirty years more than three hundred Princes of the Blood and members of the Court had received baptism. When Ricci died in 1611 the Emperor decreed for him a state funeral.

A few months after Ricci's death an eclipse of the sun took place, and great consternation occurred when it turned out that the hour for it predicted by the Imperial astronomers was incorrect. The astronomers excused themselves on the ground that the astronomical tables bequeathed to them by their predecessors were wrong, and the matter ended with a decree of the Emperor entrusting the reform of the Chinese calendar to the Jesuit missionaries. This work went on for many years and among those who had a distinguished part in it were Fr. Adam Schall, a German, and Fr. Ferdinand Verbiest, a Belgian. These two were named in turn Presidents of the Board of Astronomy, an office

that remained entrusted to Catholic missionaries for two centuries.

Fr. Schall was in such favor with the Emperor that not only he went regularly to the palace, but the Emperor went so far as to abandon traditional rules of Court etiquette and visit him many times in his house. It was this Emperor, Shun Chih, the first of the Manchu Dynasty, who made a personal contribution toward the building of the first public church in Peking. This was in 1650. By this time the number of Catholics had reached 150,000. Fifteen years later that number had almost doubled. Jesuit, Dominican and Franciscan missionaries had penetrated all the provinces of China, and there were 159 churches and many private chapels. It was at this time that a Dowager Empress, a fervent Catholic, addressed a letter to the Pope, asking him to send more Catholic missionaries to China.

This was the peak time of official favor toward the Church in China. French Jesuits had come bearing messages of friendship to the Emperor from King Louis XIV. They joined missionaries from Italy, Portugal and Spain, and all were ready to give their help as bearers of western knowledge as well as ministers of the Gospel.

EDUCATIONAL WORK

Thus the Catholic Church in China has prospered to this day when evidence of its progress is omnipresent throughout the country. An outstanding feature of its accomplishment has been in the educational field. The educational work of the Catholic Church extends over the whole country and includes every grade, from elementary school to university—with the usual Catholic leaning, however, toward the poor and under-privileged. The total number of schools which the Church maintains throughout China is nearly fourteen thousand. These are so widely distributed that in no single province of China are there less than fifty Catholic schools. The total number of pupils is just under half a million. Among the best known establishments of higher studies is the Fujen University of Peiping, directed by the Fathers of the Divine Word. This university, which comprises a striking group of buildings in Chinese style, has gained a high reputation for its courses of literature and science, while its school of art studies has done much to spread the

knowledge of modern Chinese art throughout the world. It has over twelve hundred students, and also maintains schools for preparatory courses.

In Shanghai the Aurora University has been in existence for close on forty years and has maintained a high scholastic standard. Its doctors, engineers and lawyers are well known throughout China, and many distinguished men in public life in China honor it as their Alma Mater. The Heude Museum of National History, which is connected with it, is one of the finest of its kind in the East. This university is under the direction of the Jesuits, who have also another institution of higher studies in Tientsin. This specializes in law, industry and commerce. Other educational projects which were well advanced were temporarily checked by the war, as in Nanking where American Jesuits had to interrupt their building plans, and in Wuhu where Spanish Jesuits had just completed the erection of one of the most up-to-date technical schools in the country. The harm which the war has done to the development of the higher branches of learning has been to some extent counter-balanced by the fillip which it has given to the mass education movement. Catholic missions all over the country have established temporary schools for refugee children and classes for adult refugees, the latter in many cases at the special request of the refugees themselves. The

number of people who have received the benefit of education in these sad circumstances runs into hundreds of thousands.

In the education of girls the Catholic schools have done valuable pioneering work in China. In the villages the Catholic schools were in many places the first to cater specially for girl students, while in the cities the Sisters' schools have for years maintained a high standard. The normal schools directed by the Sisters have also produced thousands of teachers.

An off-shoot of Catholic educational work in China which deserves special mention, is the Zikawei Observatory. This is a Jesuit foundation very much in the Ricci tradition. It achieved world-wide prominence by its reports on typhoons, and by the part which it played in elaborating methods for predicting their course. Fr. Froc, called the "Father of the Typhoons" was mainly responsible for the establishment of weather stations to give information about the first signs of typhoons, and this led to the present system of warnings by which thousands of lives are saved every year. The Zikawei Observatory is the center of what is probably one of the largest private meteorological organizations in the world. It has also departments in which valuable research work is being done in seismology, astrophysics, terrestrial magnetism and geophysics.

CHAPTER XXI

CHUNGKING

Location—East Longitude 106° 37' 48".
North Latitude 29° 35' 10".

Altitude—236 meters above sea level.

Area—450,000 shih mow.

Population—723,704 (1942 Police survey).

Average Temperature—January 7.8°C.
August 29.2°C.

Relative Humidity—78%.

Average Annual Rainfall—1,089.2 mm.

BACKGROUND

Although Chungking assumed its role as one of the leading capitals in the world but a few years since, it has long been a city of note in Chinese history and has always been the key to the province of Szechwan and areas further to the west.

Formerly little known to the outside world, Chungking boasts a history of more than 4,200 years. It is the birth place of the Imperial Consort of Emperor Yu of the Hsia Dynasty, who reigned over the Empire of Cathay in the 22nd century B.C. A temple now crowns the peak of Tushan, on the south bank of the Yangtze River, in honor of this famous emperor and his queen. When Emperor Wu, the second Emperor of the Chow Dynasty (1121-316 B.C.), became the supreme ruler of China, he made a member of his family the Viscount of Pahtzekuo, ruling over the territory now called Chungking and its adjacent towns. It was proclaimed a kingdom about 340 B.C., and became a minor power in the upper Yangtze. One hundred years later, when Shih Huang Ti of the Chin Dynasty conquered and unified China in 220 B.C., Pahtzekuo was absorbed into his Empire as a county. Since then Chungking lost its independent character except for two abortive attempts

to establish this "mountain city" as a separate country, once in 1367-1368 at the end of the Yuan Dynasty by the insurgent general Min Yu-chen, and again in 1645-1651 at the end of the Ming Dynasty by the bandit leader Chang Hsien-chung.

The city of Chungking was opened as a treaty port in accordance with the Sino-British Treaty of Chefoo in 1876, and the Treaty of Peking in 1890. The Sino-Japanese Treaty of Shimonoseki, the peace treaty ending the first Sino-Japanese war of 1894-1895, gave Japan the right to establish a concession in the city. The settlement was duly established in 1901 on the South Bank and was taken over by the Chinese authorities when the present Sino-Japanese war began.

Chungking was made a municipality in February, 1923, by the Szechwan provincial government in view of its importance as the key town in eastern Szechwan. The city became the wartime capital of China when on November 20, 1937, the National Government officially announced the temporary removal of the national capital to Chungking. On May 5, 1939, a National Government mandate placed the city of Chungking under the direct control of the Executive Yuan and elevated its status to that of a special municipality. The National Government on September 6, 1940, proclaimed the creation of two auxiliary capitals, one of which is the present wartime capital of Chungking and the other is Sian. When Chungking became officially an auxiliary capital on October 1, 1940, its municipal limits were extended to include the four outlying districts of Hsiaolungkan, Shapingpa, Tzechikow and Koloshan. Set jointly by the Ministry of Interior and the Chungking Municipal Government, the new municipal limits, including the South Bank and the North Bank on the shores of the Yangtze and Chialing

rivers, respectively, cover a total area of 450,000 *shih mow*, which is three times bigger than that of the municipality before expansion.

TABLE 1—COMPARISON OF CHUNGKING MUNICIPAL AREAS BEFORE AND AFTER EXPANSION IN 1940

Unit: *shih mow*

DISTRICT	Total Area	River Area	Area of Land Surveyed	Ratio
Old Municipal Area	120,000	18,000	102,000	1
Extended Municipal Area	330,000	24,000	306,000	3
TOTAL	450,000	42,000	408,000	

(Source: Chungking Finance Bureau)

Repeated, ruthless and indiscriminate bombings carried out by the Japanese from 1938 to 1941 caused considerable material damage to Chungking, making the capital city battered from time to time, but always unbent. The destruction of large sections of the downtown area as a result of large-scale enemy aerial incendiarism only served to accelerate the modernization of the city. In the same way as the great London fire of 1666, this big fire has led to, among many things, systematic widening of old streets and construction of new roads.

Located at the confluence of the Yangtze and the Chialing rivers and surrounded on three sides by water, Chungking is like Manhattan of New York or the City of London on the Thames. The building of two bridges spanning the Yangtze and Chialing rivers to provide for easier access to the South Bank and the North Bank has been a long-meditated plan for the realization of the Greater Chungking Municipality. This is one of the outstanding projects under the consideration of the Auxiliary Capital Planning Commission which was formed late in 1940.

General Ho Yao-tsu, the present Major of Chungking, was appointed in December, 1942, to succeed Dr. K. C. Wu after the latter's appointment as Political Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs. Dr. Wu assumed the post as mayor of the wartime capital late in 1939 after having been the mayor of Hankow for seven years. Before assuming the foreign affairs portfolio, the former mayor made the statement that Chungking had a great future and would remain one of China's most important cities even after the war. He pointed out that Chungking was the most proper place for a wartime capital. Chungking's future after the

war, however, was assured by the fact that numerous industrial plants and commercial establishments brought from downriver points and rooted in the city and its environs, would remain in operation in their present premises. He added that Chungking would also remain the distribution center of the hinterland.

POPULATION

As West China's commercial, economic and political center before the war and the nation's wartime capital since late in 1937, the increase of Chungking's population has been in step with its growth in importance. The 1927 population figure had been only 208,294 while in 1939 it rose to approximately 550,000. There have been frequent changes and fluctuations in the number of persons residing in the city and within the municipal limits as in recent years both compulsory and voluntary evacuation measures have been adopted to thin out the population as a precaution toward reducing possible casualties from enemy air-raids.

In 1934 there were 60,900 families in Chungking with an average of 4.9 persons in each. There were 182,727 males and 114,977 females, making a total of 297,704. The number of male residents to every 100 female in that year was 158.9.

The 1940 report of the Ministry of Interior gave the population figure of Chungking as 417,379. The Chungking Police Bureau reported that the population of Chungking at the end of August, 1942, was 723,704. To this number must be added certain groups such as military garrison, the majority of public functionaries and their family members living with them in government compounds, and others. The total population figure as is evidenced in the registration

for resident's identification cards, was around the 1,000,000 mark at the end of 1942.

With Chungking now one of the most important centers of the world, more and more aliens have come to take up residence or establish business (both official and commercial) and the number of foreign nationals in the wartime capital has therefore been increasing steadily. Take 1942 for instance. Except for the month of October, according to statistics released by the Chungking Police Bureau, there was some increase each month, in the total number of alien residents. At the end of October, 1942, altogether 27 nationalities were represented and

there was one alien classified as "stateless". Koreans, numbering 264 in October, rank first among the aliens. The British run a close second with 250 subjects while the third and fourth places are held by Americans and Russians, with 207 and 122 citizens, respectively.

In the first ten months of 1942, the total number of aliens in Chungking was increased by 538. There were only 476 foreign residents in the capital city in January while in October there were 1,008.

Among the Chungking aliens, the ratio between males and females is approximately three-to-one.

TABLE 2—CHUNGKING POPULATION AGE GROUPS, OCTOBER 1942

AGE GROUP	No. of Males	No. of Females	Total
0—5	38,274	28,906	67,180
5—10	33,910	24,599	58,509
11—15	33,841	18,744	52,585
16—20	21,666	25,357	47,023
21—25	32,226	26,361	58,587
26—30	34,571	29,792	64,363
31—35	32,221	25,266	57,487
36—40	29,975	22,775	52,750
41—45	27,764	18,054	45,818
46—50	28,646	15,120	43,766
51—55	29,687	11,023	40,710
56—60	26,679	7,641	34,320
61—65	9,514	5,224	14,738
66—70	2,865	1,775	4,640
71—75	832	733	1,565
76—80	763	468	1,231
81—85	148	198	346
86—90	127	102	229
91—95	11	10	21
Over 96 or	0	4	4
Unknown	65,286	12,546	77,832
TOTAL	449,006	274,698	723,704

(Source : Chungking Police Bureau)

TABLE 3—NUMBER OF ABLE-BODIED MEN IN CHUNGKING
UP TO AUGUST, 1942

AGE GROUP	NO. OF ABLE-BODIED MEN			
	Employed	Un-employed	Jobless	Total
18—20	21,525	81	60	21,666
21—25	32,097	60	69	32,226
6—30	34,446	53	72	34,571
31—35	32,027	95	99	32,221
36—40	29,795	83	97	29,975
41—45	27,509	115	140	27,764
TOTAL	177,399	487	537	178,423

(Source : Chungking Police Bureau)

TABLE 4—ALIEN RESIDENTS IN CHUNGKING
January to October, 1942

CHUNGKING

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NATIONALITY	January		February		March		April		May		June		July		August		September		October	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
American	105	120	114	26	164	29	163	30	166	31	169	34	183	33	173	33	192	34	174	33
Australian*	7	4	7	2	7	2	7	1	6	3	4	3	4	5	2	4	5	4	5	3
Belgian	4	2	4	2	4	2	4	1	2	3	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	4	2	2
British	88	43	112	47	142	57	143	56	155	58	171	58	159	65	185	66	192	65	187	63
Burmese	4	2	4	1	4	1	4	4	4	5	5	6	2	2	2	3	2	4	1	2
Canadian**	4	2	4	1	4	1	4	4	4	5	5	6	2	2	2	3	2	4	1	2
Czech	3	2	6	2	7	2	6	2	6	2	6	2	5	2	6	2	7	2	7	1
Dane	3	2	6	2	7	2	6	2	6	2	6	2	5	2	6	2	7	2	7	1
Estonian	3	2	6	2	7	2	6	2	6	2	6	2	5	2	6	2	7	2	7	1
Formosan	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
French	28	21	28	22	17	6	12	20	36	20	36	21	38	21	40	21	43	25	46	25
Greek	16	6	16	6	17	6	12	1	12	1	13	1	12	1	12	1	12	1	12	1
German	2	5	2	5	2	5	2	5	2	5	2	5	2	5	2	5	2	5	2	5
Hollander	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1
Hungarian	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1
Indian	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1
Japanese	9	2	9	2	9	2	9	2	9	2	9	2	9	2	9	2	9	2	9	2
Korean	57	26	57	26	57	26	57	26	57	26	57	26	57	26	57	26	57	26	57	26
New Foundlander	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Norwegian	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Polish	2	11	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1
Rumanian	46	13	49	13	64	12	77	23	76	22	77	25	81	24	82	24	85	24	85	24
Soviet	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Swedish	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Swiss	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Turk	6	4	7	4	8	4	7	4	8	4	9	4	9	3	11	3	11	4	12	4
White Russian	6	4	7	4	8	4	7	4	8	4	9	4	9	3	11	3	11	4	12	4
Stateless	6	4	7	4	8	4	7	4	8	4	9	4	9	3	11	3	11	4	12	4
TOTAL	387	151	430	161	501	152	640	268	662	273	683	290	695	279	717	291	742	299	717	291
	538		591		653		908		936		973		974		1,008		1,041		1,008	

(Source : Chungking Police Bureau)

NOTE :—* Australians listed here are members of the diplomatic corps ; all other Australians are classified as " British subjects. "

** Beginning from July, 1942, all Canadians are classified as " British subjects. "

THE MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

MAYOR: General Ho Yao-tsu.

SECRETARY-GENERAL: Chen Chia-sheng.

CHIEF: SOCIAL WELFARE BUREAU:
Pao Hua-kuo.

FINANCE BUREAU: Tiao Pei-jañ.

EDUCATION BUREAU: Lei
Hsiao-chen.

POLICE BUREAU: Tang Yi.

HEALTH BUREAU: Wang Tsu-
hsiang.

PUBLIC WORKS BUREAU:
William Wu.

FOOD ADMINISTRATION BUREAU:
Wang Shih-hsi

Formerly a superintendent was in charge of the municipal and commercial port affairs of Chungking. The superintendent's office was reorganized in March, 1927, into the Chungking municipal government under the Szechwan provincial Government. The municipal government then had under it six different bureaus in charge of civil affairs, finance, public works, police, land and education in addition to the secretariat. These subsidiary organs under the city government were reorganized in July, 1935, when the finance bureau absorbed the land bureau, the civil affairs bureau was renamed the department of social welfare, the public works and education bureaus were elevated to departments, and the police bureau renamed the public safety bureau. Another change in the municipal administrative system was made in April, 1936 when, upon the order of the Szechwan provincial government, the various departments were given the status of sections and a secretariat and a technician's office were established.

The Public Health Bureau was established in January, 1939. The original social welfare and education sections, at the same time, were combined to form the Social Welfare Bureau while the finance and public works sections expanded to be the Finance Bureau and the Public Works Bureau. Within the municipal government, the secretariat was retained and an accounting office was established. The Chungking municipal government remained under the Szechwan provincial government until May, 1939, when a

National Government mandate made Chungking a municipality directly under the Executive Yuan.

The Chungking municipal administrative system was further expanded in January, 1941, with the establishment of the Statistics Office, the Food Administration Bureau and the Bureau of Censorship for Books and Magazines, as well as expansion of the Accounting Office into the Accounting Department.

Late in 1942 it was proposed that an Education Bureau should be established to take charge of all educational matters in the municipality which heretofore had been entrusted to the Social Welfare Bureau. The Executive Yuan, after careful consideration by the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Interior, approved this plan and the municipal Education Bureau was established on February 1, 1943.

The Municipal Government's divisions and subsidiary organs in February, 1943 were as follows:

The Chungking Municipal Government:

- The Secretariat,
- The Accounting Department,
- Councillors' Office,
- Chungking Municipality Planning Office,
- Statistics Office,
- Social Welfare Bureau,
- Police Bureau,
- Finance Bureau,
- Public Works Bureau,
- Public Health Bureau,
- Food Administration Bureau,
- Education Bureau,
- Purchasing Committee,
- Construction, Investigation and Examination Committee,
- Bureau of Censorship for Books and Magazines,
- Office for the Management of Air-raid Shelters,
- Citizens' Militia Corps,
- Air-raid Precaution Corps,
- Chungking Relief Committee,
- Committee for Preferential Treatment to Dependents of Soldiers.

Parallel to the Municipal Government is the Chungking Municipal Council formed in accordance with the *Organic Regulations of the Provisional Municipal Council* promulgated by the Executive Yuan. With 25 members, this assembly meets once every six months, listens to reports on municipal affairs, and carries proposals. The first session of the Chungking Municipal Council was held on October 1, 1939.

SOCIAL WELFARE BUREAU

With the aim of providing the general public with facilities for low-priced meals, the Social Welfare Bureau began in April, 1940, to establish a chain of public dining halls. Simple foods are served at these public eating-places at prices much lower than those charged by ordinary restaurants. The *San Min Chu I* Youth Corps and the Chungking Y.M.C.A. each manage and operate one such public dining halls and the bureau runs four dining halls. Thus the total number in January, 1943, was six.

The Social Welfare Bureau also sponsors, on behalf of the municipal government, mass wedding ceremonies. Three hundred and ninety couples have been united in wedlock in the twelve mass wedding ceremonies held in the wartime capital during the three years from 1940 to the end of 1942. Conducted under the joint auspices of the Chungking municipal government and the New Life Movement Association, altogether 17 mass weddings have been held in the five years since 1938. Such nuptial ceremony *en masse* was inception in Chungking only as late as in 1938, although following the first mass wedding in 1935 promoted by the authorities of the Greater Shanghai Municipality such events have been introduced in several other leading cities in China.

The participants in each mass wedding ceremony held in Chungking since 1940 are tabulated below together with their age groups:

TABLE 5—CHUNGKING MASS WEDDING STATISTICS, 1940-1942

Mass Wed- ding No.	DATE	No. of Participants	AGE GROUPS											
			Below 20		20—24		25—29		30—34		35—39		Over 40	
			M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.
6	Jan. 1, '40	42		5	11	12	10	4						
7	May 5, '40	40		5	7	6	9	6	4	3				
8	Oct. 10, '40	82		6	21	31	14	4	6					
9	Nov. 12, '40	30		3	8	9	6	3	1					
10	Jan. 1, '41	96		12	20	32	23	3	3	1	2			
11	Feb. 19, '41	52		7	7	11	15	8	4					
12	Sept. 20, '41	86		6	13	34	25	2	4	1			1	
13	Nov. 12, '41	70		9	13	25	18	1	4					
14	Jan. 1, '42	90		7	18	34	22	3	4	1	1			
15	Feb. 19, '42	56		4	8	18	16	5	4	1				
16	Aug. 20, '42	48		8	11	11	9	5	4					
17	Nov. 12, '42	88		12	7	15	8	15	25	2	4			
TOTAL		780		84	144	238	175	59	63	9	7		1	

(Source: Social Welfare Bureau, Chungking)

Prior to the establishment of the Education Bureau in the municipality matters relating to education were handled by the Social Welfare Bureau. In

December, 1942, there were registered with the bureau 14 universities and colleges, 72 private primary schools,

51 middle schools, 90 *Kuo Min* (people's) central elementary schools for mass schools for basic education, and 43 education.

TABLE 6—CLASSIFICATION, CAPITALIZATION AND DISTRIBUTION OF BUSINESS FIRMS IN CHUNGKING, JANUARY TO OCTOBER, 1942

(Source: Chungking Social Welfare Bureau)

CLASSIFICATION	Aggregate Capitalization	No. of Firms	AREAS OF LOCATION			
			City	New Municipal District	South Bank	North Bank
Banking	\$158,700,000	49	48	1		
Cotton and Piece-Goods	128,590,000	37	33	1	3	
Metallurgical	99,130,000	44	36	3	4	1
Import and Export	42,970,000	26	25	1		
Agriculture, Forestry and Reclamation	27,862,000	15	12	3		
Transportation	23,940,000	16	15		1	
Chemical Industry	22,245,000	25	18	4	2	1
Hardware and Electrical Supplies	22,020,000	23	19	3	1	
Books, Stationery and Printing	19,515,000	18	14	2	1	1
Machine Manufacturing and Repairing	16,650,000	16	12	3	1	
Steamship	13,600,000	6	4	1	1	
Flour	12,600,000	6	5	1		
Universal Supplies	10,970,000	12	11	1		
Construction (Architecture)	10,660,000	20	17	3		
Oil	8,500,000	4	4			
Pharmaceutical Manufacture and Sales	7,210,000	11	6	3	2	
Herbal Products	7,000,000	3	3			
Cement	4,000,000	2		1	1	
Match	3,140,000	4	3		1	
Leather	3,100,000	7	4		2	1
Tobacco	3,000,000	2	1		1	
Confectionery	2,100,000	2	2			
Hotel	1,630,000	4	3		1	
Lumber	1,500,000	3	2	1		
Casting	1,400,000	2	1	1		
Insurance	400,000	2	2			
*Miscellaneous	13,380,000	9	8	1		
TOTAL	\$665,812,000	668	308	34	22	4

* Miscellaneous class includes textile-weaving, water-works, rubber, gourmet-manufacturing, toothbrush, eye-glasses, clothing and dragging and fishing.

DAILY NECESSITIES PUBLIC SALES OFFICE

The Daily Necessities Public Sales Office under the Social Welfare Bureau began to function on a full-scale on July 2, 1940, although it had been established on April 10 of the same year. Owing to limited funds, between April and July only low-priced rice and salt were supplied and sold to residents of the city. The initial capitalization of the Public Sales Office was \$1,000,000, but in the summer of 1942 the capitalization was increased to \$3,000,000. This increase in the capitalization, coupled with the agreement reached with the Bureau for the Purchase and Sale of Daily Necessities at Equitable Prices of the Ministry of Economic Affairs to supply the office \$2,000,000 worth of goods monthly and with the Agricultural Credit Administration to supply 2,000 bolts of cotton cloth monthly, has made possible an extension of the scope of its work.

There are at present 14 supply and sales depots throughout the municipality. Commodities handled by these depots are divided into the four main classes of foodstuffs, clothing, fuel and other daily necessities. Purchasing agents are stationed in Hengyang, Liuchow, Kweiyang, Kunming and places at or near centers of production of various commodities where goods can be purchased wholesale at cheaper prices. The office also maintains its own motor lorries for transportation of goods to Chungking. In addition to supplying articles essential to daily life, the office offers an agency service to sell at eight per cent commission new or second-hand things. This "second-hand goods exchange" has proved to be a good service as in one year's time a total of \$260,357.07 worth of goods was received of which \$159,818.57 worth was sold through the two agency sales depots. In the same period 2,225 persons commissioned these depots to sell their things for them. The commission charged of them is only about half the usual rate asked by second-hand sales agents operated purely on commercial, profit-making basis.

In the 22 months from July, 1940 to May, 1942, more than \$14,000,000 worth of commodities were sold through the various depots of the Daily Necessities Public Sales Office. Total sales of the

five different classes of goods during the period follow:

TABLE 7—SUMMARY OF SALES OF THE CHUNGKING DAILY NECESSITIES PUBLIC SALES OFFICE, JULY, 1940 TO MAY, 1942

CLASSIFICATION	Total Amount of Goods Sold
Clothing	\$6,169,517.56
Foodstuffs	4,506,660.10
Daily Necessities	1,984,493.81
Fuel	201,425.88
Second-hand Goods Agency	1,146,659.41
TOTAL	\$14,008,756.76

The supply of commodities vital for basic daily life at prices lower than market rates not only offers to ordinary civilians a chance to save money in purchasing essentials, but to a certain extent also keeps the market prices of some commodities steadier than if there had been no such an organization. This is proved by the fact that shortly after the public sales office was inaugurated it had stored up some quantities of vegetable oils for cooking at the cost of a dollar and a half per catty. When the market price for the same kind of oil jumped to two and a half dollars a catty, the public sales office offered to sell the oil it had at one dollar and eighty cents a catty. To the best of its ability the office supplied Chungking residents with vegetable oil at that price until eventually the market price had to be lowered to keep even.

PRICE CONTROL

In accordance with the new nationwide price control measures, price ceilings have been enforced in Chungking beginning January, 1943. The strengthened price control program in the wartime capital is handled by the Social Welfare Bureau, with the assistance of the Public Works, Police and Food Administration Bureaus. The Social Welfare Bureau controls commodity prices and wages, the Public Works Bureau transportation charges, the Food Administration Bureau foodstuffs, and the Police Bureau executes measures of restrictions and suppression.

Prices prevailing on November 30, 1942, as ordered by the Generalissimo,

were taken as the standard using the prices reported by the trade guilds as reference. The legitimate profit for merchants was fixed at ten per cent. After collecting price lists and references from industrial and commercial establishments and from trade guilds, standardized prices were suggested for a total of 1,057 kinds of commodities sold by 57 different lines of business concerns, 235 kinds of wages for 23 lines, and 38 kinds of fees for five kinds of transportation businesses. After examination of all the figures, the Chungking Municipal Government finally adopted 656 kinds of standardized commodity prices, 212 kinds of wages and 38 kinds of transportation charges, all of which were enforced on January 15.

All dealers of daily necessities are required to label their goods at the fixed prices. Punishment is imposed on those merchants who fail to label their goods, or violate the restriction rules, as well as on those who engage in illegal business transactions.

The new program is applied in Chungking not only to the eight kinds of daily necessities (food, salt, paper, cooking oil, fuel, cotton, cotton yarn, and cotton piece goods) as listed by the Generalissimo, but also to other articles of daily use. Commodities of seasonal nature such as vegetables are, however, not subject to the price ceiling program, but their prices are to be fixed by the Social Welfare Bureau from time to time and by areas. The standard for price restriction of native manufactured products is different from that for imported goods so as to promote native made products.

POLICE BUREAU

The Chungking Police Bureau has 17 police stations in the Chungking municipal area which includes the city, the South and North Banks and suburban areas within the municipal limits. In addition, there are the *Pao An Tui* (peace preservation corps), the fire brigade, a detective corps as well as a volunteer police corps.

In the administrative system of the Chungking Police Bureau are a secretariat, an inspection and supervision department, an accounting office, a personnel office, and the various sections in charge of general affairs, administration, judicial affairs, military affairs, and *pao-chia* work. To these units the municipal government decided, in December, 1942, to add a census

section in order to facilitate the work relating to census and residents, and a department in charge of residents' identification cards. The work of registering all residents of the wartime capital and issuing resident's identification cards was entrusted to the Registration Office for Chungking Residents which was established on June 16, 1942, as a separate subsidiary organ under the municipal government.

It has also been suggested that the office for the management of Chungking Air-raid Shelters, which has also been an independent unit in the municipal system, be placed under the Police Bureau as a subsidiary organ, beginning in 1943, in order to centralize control and simplify the work involved.

The training institute of the Chungking Police Bureau has conducted 30 regular classes and eleven special classes (including supplementary, census, police inspector and women police classes) with a total of 3,256 graduates. All of the trainees were under 30 years of age, three-fourths being between 18 and 23 years old. A large majority of these police institute graduates are natives of Szechwan province. Their previous educational level ranges from students of senior middle school and graduates of junior middle school to those who have had only a scanty education at home.

TABLE 8—CRIMINAL OFFENSE CASES AND PERSONS INDICTED

January to October, 1942

MONTH	No. of Cases	NO OF PERSONS INDICTED	
		Male	Female
January	364	502	133
February	151	189	29
March	1,011	1,372	331
April	276	353	80
May	287	331	210
June	375	451	130
July	338	416	115
August	362	471	151
September	364	502	97
October	222	331	101
TOTAL	3,750	4,918	1,377

(Source: Chungking Police Bureau)

TABLE 9—STATISTICS OF WAR INSURANCE UNDERWRITTEN FOR
CHUNGKING BUSINESS FIRMS

January to August, 1942

MONTH	AMOUNT INSURED		INSURANCE PREMIUM	
	Increased During the Month	Accu- mulated Amount	Increased During the Month	Accu- mulated Amount
January	\$413,909.00	\$413,909.00	\$41,592.94	\$41,592.94
February	20,000.00	433,909.00	2,256.00	43,848.94
March	67,887.24	501,996.24	8,534.42	52,383.36
April	56,106.00	557,902.24	6,068.19	58,451.55
May	27,095.00	584,997.24	2,376.84	60,828.39
June	5,000.00	589,997.24	423.00	61,251.39
July	100,000.00	689,997.24	7,560.00	68,811.39
August	10,000.00	699,997.24	756.00	69,567.39
September		699,997.24		69,567.39
October		699,997.24		69,567.39

TABLE 10—NUMBER OF BASIC ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS IN CHUNGKING

<i>Chu</i> (District)	<i>Chen</i>	<i>Pao</i>	<i>Chia</i>
1st	4	51	590
2nd	4	41	468
3rd	4	32	346
4th	3	41	475
5th	4	57	634
6th	3	21	232
7th	3	21	230
8th	5	25	312
9th	6	42	478
10th	5	33	422
11th	5	82	905
12th	3	46	590
13th	5	32	307
14th	6	43	447
15th	3	23	294
16th	3	25	245
17th	3	23	229
River	7	21	181
TOTAL	76	659	7,385

THE FINANCE BUREAU

The Finance Bureau was established in January, 1939, combining the old provincial Chungking Revenue Collection Office and the financial section of the municipal government. At the inception of the bureau there were altogether eighteen different kinds of revenues and taxes. But after four years of readjustment

and drastic, progressive reforms, nearly two-thirds of the erstwhile levies have been abolished. At present only six major kinds of taxes, namely, the feasting tax, amusement tax, slaughter tax, business licence tax, utility licence tax and house tax, are being collected by the bureau.

Despite the elimination and reduction of many taxes, revenue returns for Chungking have been on the increase every year since 1939. Municipal receipts in 1938 totalled \$847,130.13. The total net amount collected by the bureau in 1939 was more than \$1,500,000, in 1940 was more than \$3,200,000, and in 1941 more than \$9,600,000. Total receipts for 1942 were estimated to exceed \$30,000,000 which represents more than 36 times the annual revenue returns for the years previous to 1939.

All the collection and disbursement of local taxes are entrusted to the National Treasury Bureau of the Central Bank of China acting on behalf of the municipal treasury.

In addition to revenue collection, the Finance Bureau is also responsible for the work of land registration and fixing of land value tax. For the old municipal areas, the Finance Bureau established a separate office in May, 1941, to take charge of land registration work which was completed in October, 1942. Work on registration of land in the areas added to the municipality after its expansion in October, 1940, when Chungking was officially designated as one of the auxiliary capitals of China, began on November 1, 1942.

The following table shows the progress of land registration work undertaken by the Finance Bureau :

TABLE 11—LAND REGISTRATION IN CHUNGKING

SECTION	Date Organized	No. of Cases Handled	REMARKS
Application Receiving	May, 1941	23,645	Up to the end of September, 1942
Examination	May, 1941	19,970	
Public Announcement	June, 1941	16,990	
Recording	} February, 1942 {	7,151	
Title		6,548	
Re-Surveying		1,243	

(Source : Chungking Finance Bureau)

Land tax and land value increment tax have been levied since July 1, 1942. After investigations and evaluation, the rate of land value tax for the old municipal area has been fixed at sixteen-hundredths (0.16) per cent of the value of the land. It is estimated that the total annual receipts

from this source will be approximately \$12,000,000 for the old municipal area alone. Collection of land value tax from places in the extended municipal areas can only begin after the completion of the land registration work, hence no estimate of the yearly receipts can yet be made.

TABLE 12—TOTAL LAND VALUE AND LAND VALUE TAX IN THE OLD MUNICIPAL AREA OF CHUNGKING

DISTRICT	Total Land Value	Total Land Value Tax
1st	\$54,819,117.540	\$877,105.881
2nd	97,619,383.296	1,561,910.133
3rd	47,787,141.996	764,594.272
4th	45,521,166.627	728,338.666
5th	27,413,066.628	438,609.066
6th	33,031,166.121	528,498.658
7th	17,262,868.122	276,205.890
8th	35,626,251.240	570,020.020
9th	14,637,851.982	234,205.632
10th	13,537,436.769	216,598.988
11th	289,232,536.500	4,627,720.584
12th	62,556,276.789	1,000,900.429
TOTAL	\$739,044,263.610	\$11,824,708.219

(Source : Chungking Finance Bureau)

(NOTE :—Total land value tax in the table is calculated at sixteen-thousandths of the total land value.)

In the past few years the number of tax deeds and titles for the purchasing and mortgage of land as well as their aggregate value have been steadily increasing. Land value in all the districts continues to increase. The increase of land value in Chungking, however, is not due to the efforts made by land-owners. The factors leading to the increase of land value are (1) increase of importance of Chungking as the nation's political center, (2) rise of

the city's economic position with the presence of larger and more factories, banks and commercial establishments, (3) better communication, (4) increase of population, and (5) steady progress in municipal development. Land value increment tax is therefore levied with justification.

The following table lists the number and total value of land property tax deeds and tax receipts from 1939 to 1942:

TABLE 13—LAND PROPERTY TAX DEEDS, TOTAL VALUE AND TOTAL TAX RECEIPTS IN CHUNGKING, 1939-1942

(Source: Chungking Finance Bureau)

YEAR	NUMBER OF DEEDS		Total Value	Main Tax	Surtax	Total Tax
	Purchase	Mortgage				
1939	662	11	\$1,336,943.30	\$78,543.30	\$140,218.25	\$227,671.55
1940	636	16	4,868,898.83	292,532.33	566,890.16	859,422.49
1941	1,051	18	12,646,519.16	758,123.62	1,470,355.95	2,228,479.57
1942	2,634	37	67,061,748.27	4,027,696.64	6,328,439.72	10,356,136.36
TOTAL	4,983	82	\$85,914,109.56	\$5,156,895.89	\$8,514,904.08	\$13,671,799.97

TABLE 14—CHUNGKING MUNICIPAL REVENUE RECEIPTS, 1938-1942

YEAR	Amount Collected	Index Numbers 1938-100	INCREASE OVER 1938	
			Amount	Percentage
1938	847,130.13	100.00		
1939	1,508,710.61	178.07	661,580.48	78.07
1940	3,196,431.74	377.22	2,349,301.61	277.22
1941	9,640,750.81	1,137.65	8,793,620.68	1,037.65
1942	30,774,372.70	3,631.37	29,927,242.57	3,531.37

(Source: Chungking Finance Bureau)

TABLE 15.—CHUNGKING MUNICIPAL EXPENDITURES, 1942.

CLASSIFICATION	Amount	Percentage
Administrative Expenditure	2,364,838.00	2.75
Reconstruction	7,355,765.00	8.60
Education and Culture	4,178,626.00	4.88
Health and Medical Service	3,299,444.00	3.86
Social Welfare	2,961,893.00	3.46
Public Safety Expenses	16,226,298.00	18.93
Financial	3,737,208.00	4.36
Compensation	50,000.00	0.05
General Subsidies	5,785,734.00	6.76
Reserve Fund	3,481,378.00	4.07
Debt Payment	1,750,000.00	2.04
Child Welfare and Relief	463,233.00	0.54
Miscellaneous	33,964,901.00	39.70
TOTAL	85,619,318.00	100.00

(Source: Chungking Finance Bureau)

TABLE 16.—CHUNGKING MUNICIPAL REVENUE RECEIPTS, 1942.

CLASSIFICATION	Amount Collected	Percentage
Property Deeds Surtax	6,894,671.00	22.43
House Tax	2,141,031.27	6.86
Slaughter Tax	8,608,603.05	27.99
Business Licences Tax	1,191,695.00	3.89
Customary Fees Returns	808,868.00	2.63
Feasting Tax	5,504,537.89	17.89
Amusement Tax	4,987,268.28	16.22
Fines	161,596.01	0.53
Advertising Revenue	641.90	0.01
Business Registration Fee	74,503.00	0.24
Surveying Fee	628.00	0.01
Public Property Rentals	293,600.40	0.95
Land Lease Returns	58,962.76	0.19
Material Cost Charges	11,097.80	0.04
Miscellaneous	36,668.34	0.13
GRAND TOTAL	30,774,372.70	100.00

(Source : Chungking Finance Bureau)

TABLE 17—ALLOCATIONS AND SUBSIDIES RECEIVED FROM THE CENTRAL GOVERNMENT IN 1942

CLASSIFICATION	Amount Collected	Sub-Total	Percentage
National Taxes Allocated by Central Government—			
Land Value Tax	2,000,000.00		3.06
Revenue Stamp Duty	2,045,790.00		3.15
Inheritance Tax	940,000.00		1.44
Business Tax	21,528,000.00	26,513,790.00	32.77
Central Government Special Grants—			
Resident Registration Subsidy	1,638,800.00		2.50
People's Education Subsidy	399,730.00	2,038,530.00	0.61
Central Government Subsidies	37,142,998.00	37,142,998.00	56.47
GRAND TOTAL	65,695,318.00	65,695,318.00	100.00

(Source : Chungking Finance Bureau)

PUBLIC WORKS BUREAU

The Public Works Bureau is in charge of planning and execution of construction and development for the Chungking municipality. During the four-year history of the present bureau untiring efforts have been exerted toward the construction of a network of municipal thoroughfares and roads, parks, wharves and ferry-landings, supervision of public utilities and construction engineering work, as well as increasing the number and improving the conditions of public dugouts.

With Chungking under constant threat of enemy air-raids the Public Works Bureau began in April, 1939 to open fire lanes in congested areas with a view to saving unnecessary sacrifice from incendiarism of lives and property. Altogether 69 fire lanes for pedestrians (10 meters in width) totalling 14,831 meters and 14 wider (15-meter in width) fire lanes with an aggregate length of 6,262 meters were completed up to the end of June, 1939. In opening up these fire lanes, more than 9,600 buildings and single-storey houses had to be torn down.

After a one-and-a-half-year period of investigation and surveying, the Public Works Bureau made a comprehensive program for the construction of the road network in the old as well as the extended municipal areas. This program began to be carried out after it was approved by the Executive Yuan in 1940. Main and branch roads in the network for the city and outskirts areas total 92,020.46 meters. A total of 21,556.80 meters of roads were completed before the end of 1938 and another 32,538 meters were completed between January, 1939 and December, 1942. In February, 1943, there were still 37,915.65 meters of roads, most of which are branch lines, remaining to be constructed. Construction work will continue to be carried out by sections and the entire network is expected to be completed in three years' time.

Main roads in the municipal area are built in conformance with standardized width of 22 meters. Branch roads are to be built either 18 or 15 meters in width and the sidewalks have a uniform width of three meters. The width of car lanes is from 12 to 15 meters.

Road maintenance work is divided into six sections—city, new municipal, Fuhsingkwang, Shapingpa-Tzechikou,

South Bank, and North Bank areas with more than 600 workers regularly repairing the road surface, clearing off dirt and sewers and also engaging in emergency repair work should some of the roads be bombed.

To the two parks in the municipality, the Public Works Bureau in 1941 and again in July, 1942 added two new ones. Following examples of foreign metropolises, two down-town circles were built in 1941, one of which has the national mobilization monument in its center and the other has a large rostrum for public meetings. Four new ferry-landings have been built at Wanglungmen, Niukotou, Yangchiatu and Linkiangmen.

Control and supervision of public utilities, control of engineering construction works as well as construction and improvement of public air-raid shelters are among other functions of the Public Works Bureau. The power, water-works and ferry companies are under the supervision of the bureau while under its direct control are the departments of street lights and vehicles. The street lights department undertakes to install and repair all the street lights while the vehicles department is charged with the work of inspection of and issuance of licences to man-powered or animal-powered vehicles and sedan-chairs. In February, 1943, there were more than 1,900 street lights in the municipality and conveyances registered with the bureau included 2,300 rickshas, 500 carts, 12 horse carriages, 127 bicycles and 2,700 sedan-chairs.

Issuance of licences for all types of motor vehicles was turned over to the Licence Bureau of the Ministry of Communications in 1942. This transfer also applies to issuance of driving licence for various kinds of motor vehicles. During the year 1941 when the Public Works Bureau was still in charge of this phase of work, altogether 4,148 driving licences were issued by the bureau, including 206 ordinary, 3,624 professional (for chauffeurs), 310 temporary, seven for trial-run and one for beginner.

In the control of engineering construction works in the municipality, the bureau with the approval of the Executive Yuan, has a set of regulations governing such works. The planning, structure, location, area, height and materials of buildings are subject to restrictions and limitations in accordance with the set

of regulations. Before any building, repairing or tearing-down work is to commence, a permit is to be applied for from the Public Works Bureau. Such work without a permit is strictly forbidden. Dilapidated buildings or those damaged by bombings which are considered unsafe are torn down by order of the bureau. The bureau also periodically sends inspectors to check up on the structural condition of public amusement places in order to ensure safety.

Due to frequent enemy bombings, construction enterprises have enjoyed a steady boom in the past few years. The Public Works Bureau in three years' time issued more than 2,500 permits for construction of new buildings, 3,200 permits for repairing old buildings, stopped more than 1,400 cases of con-

struction without permit, and ordered the tearing down of more than 800 buildings unsafe for dwelling.

All architects, assistant architects and contractors in the municipality are required to register with and be licenced by the bureau. In February, 1943, the number of registered architects was 275, that of assistant architects 41 and that of contractors 215. To prevent contractors or owners from not adhering to approved blueprints, a new regulation, which requires architects and their assistants to supervise the construction, was recently adopted.

The Public Works Bureau's work in regard to construction, control and inspection of public and private air-raid shelters is mentioned in the section on "Air Raid and Air Defense."

TABLE 18—CONSTRUCTION OF ROADS IN THE CITY AREA, 1939-1942

YEAR	Name of Road	Termination	Length
1939	Chung Cheng Road	Hsiaoshihtze to Taliangtze	399.00 meters
1940	Tsaochiahshiang	Chung Cheng Road to Shensi Road	177.90 "
	Pao An Road	Tayangkou to Pailungchih	385.70 "
	Cheng Yang Street	Pao An Road to Min Kuo Road	100.00 "
	Wu Ssu Road	Pao An Road to Min Tsu Road	53.20 "
	Chung Hua Road	Chung Cheng Road to Ta Tung Road	700.00 "
	Futzechih	Chung Hua Road to Hsin Sheng Road	122.00 "
	Ta Tung Road	Chung Hua Road to Min Sheng Road	161.80 "
	Ho Ping Road	Chiaochangkou to Huishuikou	197.00 "
	Min Kuo Road	Hsin Sheng Road to Min Tsu Road	480.00 "
	Lin Kiang Road	Chung Hua Road to Min Sheng Road	320.00 "
1941	Min Tsu Road	Hsiaoshihtze to Chien Kuo Road	255.95 "
	Chien Kuo Road	Min Tsu Road to Hsiangshuichiao	323.70 "
	Min Chuan Road	Wu Ssu Road to Tuyeukai Circle	146.00 "
	Chung Hsin Road	Chiaochangkou to Nanchimen	716.00 "
1942	Kai Hsuan Road	Tze Chi Street to Lin Sen Road	734.00 "
	Chung Shan Road	Chiaochangkou to Tuyeukai Circle	314.60 "
		TOTAL	5,586.85 meters

(Source : Chungking Public Works Bureau)

**TABLE 19—CONSTRUCTION OF ROADS IN THE NEW MUNICIPAL
AREA FROM 1939 TO 1941**

YEAR	Name of Road	Termination	Length
1939	Chungyu Branch Road	Chung San Road to Shangchingssu	255 meters
	Liangfu Branch Road	Liangfu Road to Youth Corps	240 "
1940	Niukotou Road	Shangchingssu to National Resources Commission	147 "
	Liangfu Road	Li anglukou to Fu Hsing Kwan	3,480 "
	Fuchiu Road	Fuhsingkwan to Chiulungpu	6,994 "
1941	Liangfu Road to National Assembly Hall		1,244 "
	National Assembly Hall to Central Training Corps		267 "
	Fu Hsin Road	Fuhsingkwan to Hsinchiao	9,654 "
	Lou Chiu Road	Louchikou to Chiulungpu	4,400 "
		TOTAL	26,681 meters

(Source : Chungking Public Works Bureau)

**TABLE 20—VEHICLE AND SEDAN-CHAIR LICENCES
JANUARY, 1941 TO OCTOBER, 1942**

TYPE OF VEHICLES	NO. OF LICENCE ISSUED TO REGISTERED VEHICLES	
	1941	1942
Private Rickshas	97	140
Rickshas for Hire	2,605	2,312
Private Carts	35	51
Carts for Hire	441	502
Private Bicycles	26	67
Bicycles for Hire	112	127
Animal Carts	2	18
Sedan-Chairs	2,696	2,696
Buses	133	} Motor vehicles licence for 1942 issued by the Licence Bureau of the Ministry of Communications
Passenger Cars	1,222	
Motor Lorries	2,021	
Postal Trucks	21	
Special Motor Vehicles	43	
Motor Cycle	12	

(Source : Chungking Public Works Bureau)

PUBLIC HEALTH BUREAU

Under the Public Health Bureau are five public health stations, eight clinics and five mobile medical units which had a total budget of more than \$426,000 for the year 1942. These units give medical treatment or advice, health

examination, first-aid treatment, take care of some cases of childbirth and conduct health education.

The following tables serve as an indication of some of the work carried out by the bureau.

TABLE 21—PREVENTIVE INJECTIONS ADMINISTERED FROM APRIL 1 TO SEPTEMBER 30, 1942

MONTH	NO. OF PERSONS GIVEN CHOLERA INJECTIONS			NO. OF PERSONS GIVEN CHOLERA-TYPHOID COMBINED INJECTIONS			TOTAL		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
April	652	496	848	2,984	1,956	4,940	3,636	2,152	5,788
May	4,240	1,756	5,996	10,304	3,524	13,828	14,544	5,280	19,824
June	48,132	13,284	61,416	20,188	10,788	30,976	68,320	24,072	92,392
July	76,752	16,292	93,044	7,680	2,704	10,384	84,432	18,996	103,428
August	3,240	852	4,092	46,376	6,772	53,148	49,616	7,624	57,240
September	884	164	1,048	40,240	14,596	54,836	41,124	14,760	55,884
TOTAL	133,900	32,544	166,444	127,772	40,340	168,112	261,672	72,884	334,556

(Source: Chungking Public Health Bureau)

**TABLE 22—STATISTICS OF ENVIRONMENTAL SANITATION
JANUARY 1, TO SEPTEMBER 30, 1942**

MONTH	Garbage Collected (loads)	Night-Soil Collected (loads)	Stray Dogs Caught	Dead Rats Collected
January	75,947	8,483	186	13,568
February	73,861	7,934	173	12,765
March	81,543	7,466	125	11,786
April	72,348	7,307	106	15,017
May	69,358	7,378	113	12,647
June	68,536	7,057	125	12,774
July	67,891	7,178	95	12,283
August	83,694	10,801	97	14,194
September	88,722	11,711	109	12,875
TOTAL	681,900	75,315	1,129	117,909

(Source: Chungking Public Health Bureau)

(NOTE: A load consists of two bucketsful)

TABLE 23—STATISTICS OF CONFIRMED EPIDEMIC CASES
JANUARY 1 TO SEPTEMBER 30, 1942

MONTH	Typhoid, Para-Typhoid	Typhus Fever	Dysentery	Smallpox	Scarlet Fever	Cholera	Relapsing Fever	Meningitis	Total
January	2	...	109	1	...	112
February	2	...	66	1	2	71
March	6	...	157	...	3	3	169
April	3	1	155	1	2	162
May	2	1	125	3	1	...	132
June	5	1	212	2	220
July	6	...	139	145
August	3	...	280	6	289
September	3	...	362	4	369
TOTAL	32	3	1,605	1	3	13	3	9	1,669

(Source : Chungking Public Health Bureau)

NOTE :—No case of bubonic plague or diphtheria was reported during the period.

FOOD ADMINISTRATION BUREAU

Each month more than 86,200 piculs of rice of different grades and prices are supplied by the Chungking Food Administration Bureau. By application, business concerns or factories consuming daily at least one picul of rice may purchase their supplies from this bureau. To the civilian population of Chungking, several different grades of rice are supplied at prices lower than the market rate. Rice is distributed to employees of organizations under the municipal government.

The bureau maintains 36 granaries, scattered in the city, the South Bank and the North Bank, as well as around Hochwan and Kiangtsin. These granaries have a combined capacity of 360,000 piculs. In the city the bureau has appointed eight rice shops as sales agents for the good-grade rice it supplies to the public. Seventy-three shops have been established in the municipality to sell rice at regulated prices

(lower than market price) and another 28 shops at market price. Cheap-priced rice for the poor people is handled by *chen* administrative offices.

BUREAU OF CENSORSHIP FOR BOOKS AND MAGAZINES

Organized in accordance with the *Regulations Governing Wartime Censorship of Manuscripts for Books and Magazines* promulgated by the National Government on September 6, 1940, the Bureau of Censorship for Books and Magazines was formed in March, 1941, when it took over and reorganized the former municipal censorship committee. All the manuscripts for books and magazines to be published in the wartime capital have to be submitted to the office for reading and censoring before they shall appear in print. Gazettes published by all government, Party and military organizations duly marked as official gazettes, and manuscripts for textbooks (which are to be submitted to the Ministry of Education for reading

and examination before publication), however, are exempted from municipal censorship.

Materials in the manuscripts found not to conform with the "Revised Standard for Books and Magazines Censorship in Wartime" are subject to either deletion or suppression. On the other hand, commendations are given to manuscripts and other materials for books and magazines which have good

contents and which are beneficiary to the nation's "resistance and reconstruction" program. A permit is issued to each set of book or magazine manuscripts and the permit number is to be printed in small type on the upper left-hand corner of the back-cover of the book or the periodical.

The following table lists the number of permits given to censored manuscripts in 1942:

TABLE 24—NUMBER OF MANUSCRIPTS CENSORED BY THE BUREAU OF CENSORSHIP FOR BOOKS AND MAGAZINES, JANUARY TO SEPTEMBER, 1942

TYPE	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	TOTAL
Books	106	140	91	78	68	98	110	107	97	895
Magazines	70	69	76	76	90	89	85	103	104	762

In accordance with Article XVII of the *Regulations Governing Wartime Censorship of Manuscripts for Books and Magazines*, for books and periodicals published in places where there had been no local censoring bureau or before the regulations came into effect (before September 6, 1940), excepting those which were published before July, 1937, the publishers or sales agents shall apply for a permit from the local censoring bureau. After passing of the books or periodicals, permits which are valid for areas within the municipal limits are issued. Reprinting of publications is also subject to this type of manuscript-reading censorship. In the first nine months in 1942, the Bureau of Censorship for Books and Magazines in Chungking issued 319 permits to books published in places other than Chungking and passed 23 kinds of Chinese magazines.

To check the circulation of publications which had not been subjected to manuscript-reading censorship before they are published or which are not allowed to be published, inspectors are sent from time to time to bookstores, publishing houses and printing shops to examine the stock in trade and the things in the process of printing. Penalties such as warning, confiscation and seizure are meted out to violators in accordance with provisions of the *Regulations for the Control of Bookstores and Printing*

Shops promulgated by the Executive Yuan. The number of volumes of publications found violating the regulations during the first three quarters of 1942 totalled 561 books and 444 magazines.

Another phase of the censoring bureau's work is to investigate matters relating to publishing, printing and selling of the different publishing houses, bookstores and printing plants. Findings of the investigations are printed in a quarterly report. The report ending September 30, 1942, shows that there are in Chungking 144 publishing houses and bookstores, 193 organizations publishing periodicals and 122 printing shops.

RESIDENT'S IDENTIFICATION CARD SYSTEM

All regular residents in Chungking have been given proper identification cards by the municipal authorities. The Registration Office for Chungking Residents was inaugurated on June 16, 1942, to take charge of registering residents in the municipality and issuing individual identification cards to those whose applications have been approved and accepted. This office functioned as a separate subsidiary unit under the municipal government until the end of the year when it became a part of the Police Bureau.

Chungking is the first city in China to adopt the system of issuing identification cards to regular residents. Several other leading cities are planning to adopt the same system.

Each identification card carries a photograph of the bearer and concise notes of particulars such as name, age, date of birth, native town, occupation, place of employment, name of husband or wife if married, domicile, and the particular dugout he or she is to go to in case of an air-raid. Another copy of the bearer's photograph as well as particulars about him or her are kept on file at the office issuing identification cards.

Aliens whose countries have embassies, legations or consulates in Chungking are requested to register with their respective diplomatic representatives. Citizens of non-treaty countries which do not have representatives in Chungking follow the same procedure required of Chinese residents.

For those aliens officially connected with and working in the various embassies, legations and consulates, diplomatic identification cards are issued by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in lieu of the regular Chungking resident's identification cards from the police bureau. Red cards are distributed by the Waichiaopu to ambassadors, ministers, counsellors, secretaries and commissioners while chancellors and clerks of foreign diplomatic corps are given blue cards which are known as Waichiaopu certificates.

Up to December, 1942, a total of 88 red cards and around 100 blue cards were issued by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Distribution of red diplomatic cards is as follows:

American Embassy	22
Australian Legation	3
Belgian Embassy	2
British Embassy	23
British Ministry of Information Attaches	8
Czechoslovak Legation	2
French Embassy	3
Office of Agent-General for India	1
Netherlands Legation	3
Polish Embassy	2
Soviet Embassy	18
Turkish Legation	1
TOTAL	88

The Foreign Affairs Bureau of the National Military Council is in charge of registration and issuance of identification cards for personnel of Allied military forces in Chungking.

Since December, 1942, a system of entry and departure permits has been in force. Any non-resident of Chungking coming to the wartime capital or any Chungking resident leaving the municipality for some other place has to apply for an entry or departure permit. No entry permit is needed in case the person entering Chungking is already in possession of an identification card issued by the municipal authorities.

The entry permit is valid for one month, at the end of which period application may be made for the extension of validity if the holder of the permit is not able to leave Chungking within the month. Extension of validity may be given twice; each time good for 15 days.

RULES GOVERNING ISSUANCE AND INSPECTION OF ENTRY AND DEPARTURE PERMITS IN CHUNGKING

Article I. The present set of rules is fixed in accordance with Article VI of the *Outline of Chungking Residents' Registration Rules*.

Article II. All registration, the issuance of permits and inspection procedure in regard to residents entering and leaving Chungking shall follow this set of rules.

Article III. The Police Bureau of the Chungking Municipal Government is the chief organization in charge of issuance and inspection of entry and departure permits. The Inspection Department of the Chungking Defence General Headquarters and the Police Department of the Gendarmerie Headquarters are auxiliary organizations in charge of maintenance of inspection stations and units at all entry points including airport, highway stations and shipping terminals in Chungking.

Article IV. All civilians entering or leaving the municipal area of Chungking with written testimonial issued by the local government or police bureau or *hsiang* (or *chen*) office at the place of their respective residence, or public functionaries and their family members with a testimonial document issued by their respective offices of employment may register with inspection stations and units and obtain entry permits from them. An entry permit is not needed in case the person entering Chungking is already in possession of an identification card issued by the municipal authorities.

Article V. For entry into Chungking separate entry permits should be obtained for each individual, but children under 13 years of age need not apply for such permit when their entry is registered on the permit given to their guardians.

Article VI. All persons in the following groups may apply for long-term entry permits by submitting two copies of two-inch photographs. The validity of such long-term permit is six months but a new permit may be secured after expiration of the original permit. Such permits may be cancelled by the authorities. Those who must reside in the municipality may change the permits for identification cards by submitting such permits.

The groups are:—

- (a) Public functionaries and servants employed by central or local government offices in areas adjacent to the Chungking municipality with proper testimonials from their offices of employment, or aliens in such areas with testimonials from their respective embassies, legations or consulates, who, by nature of their duties, work or business must frequently enter and leave the municipality.
- (b) Vegetable and meat dealers, vendors and coolies such as sedan-chair carriers and boatmen living in areas adjacent to the Chungking municipality who must enter and leave the municipal areas daily and who are in possession of testimonials issued by the police bureau or *hsiang* (or *chen*) office at the place of their residence.
- (c) Civilians without regular place of residence who have completed the procedure specified in Article X of the *Rules for Enforcing Chungking Residents' Registration*.

Article VII. The validity of an entry permit is one month, at the end of which period application may be made at district police bureaus for the extension of validity in case the holder of the permit is not able to leave Chungking within the month. Extension of validity may be given twice; each time good for 15 days. For those with entry permits who must reside in the Chungking area, residents' identification card must be applied for in accordance with the rules.

Article VIII. Inspection stations and units may issue entry permits to those individuals who are without testimonial document owing to ignorance or loss of such in transit. The validity of such permit is seven days and the words "to seek proper guarantor" must be stamped on their entry permits. Failing to get a proper guarantor within 7 days, an extension for the same period may be made but the person must

leave Chungking should he fail again upon the expiration of the extension period.

Article IX. Those at present residing in Chungking who desire to leave for places outside of the municipal areas must apply for departure permits at the police station in their respective districts. In making such an application, the person must submit his identification card or entry permit for examination. Holders of long-term entry permits returning to their original places of residence or offices of employment are exempted from applying for such departure permits. Their departure from the city may be restricted in time of necessity.

Children under 13 years of age who are duly specified and registered on the permit of their guardians are exempted from applying for departure permits.

Article X. All persons who have obtained entry permits must produce their permits for examination when so requested by the police, gendarmerie or *pao* or *chia* inspectors.

Article XI. No hotel, public place or residence shall admit any person without an entry permit or an identification card.

Article XII. Except in the case of those exempted from departure permit procedures, all persons leaving Chungking either by vehicle, by boat or by airplane must present their departure permits when booking passage.

Article XIII. Inspectors who discover, while carrying out their duties, any counterfeiting, selling, obtaining under false name or another person's name, or borrowing of identification card or entry or departure permits and other suspicious cases should detain the person involved together with the evidence, and turn them over to the authorities within 24 hours.

Article XIV. Any loss of entry or departure permit must be reported to the respective district police bureau within 24 hours and the person must apply, with guarantee, for a duplicate permit replacing the lost one. Such loss must also be advertised in a newspaper.

Article XV. Anyone who violates this set of rules is subject to punishment or fine in accordance with Part V of *Rules Governing Chungking Residents' Registration*.

Article XVI. This set of rules shall become effective from the date of approval by the Executive Yuan and the National Military Council.

INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE

The removal of the national capital to Chungking in wartime has enhanced the city's position as an industrial and commercial center (with foreign countries as well as with home markets)

although even in pre-war times Chungking was an important trade center for West China. In the outskirts and immediate neighborhood of the Chungking municipality are several new industrial centers or districts which have come into existence during the last five years. Many of the factories in these areas were formerly located in coastal cities and were removed to Chungking in the great wartime migration. A few of them have had several removals since the war began. At the end of May, 1942, there were 584 factories of all kinds and sizes in and around Chungking.

In the summer of 1942, according to records of the Department of Commerce of the Ministry of Economic Affairs, limited corporations in Chungking with capitalization of more than one million dollars (including banks and native banks) numbered 83. The total capitalization of these corporations was more than \$188,720,000.

Records of the Chungking Municipal Government early in January, 1943, show 24,420 licences issued to business establishments. Of the total number, 8,970 were issued to establishments dealing in the marketing, processing, retailing or serving of foodstuffs and cooked foods. (There are 3,685 shops of different sizes serving noodles in various forms.) A total of 2,412 butcheries furnish the meat consumed daily in Chungking. Restaurants serving food of various provincial as well as foreign cuisines number 172. Shops serving sweets number 148. There are 325 wine shops alone in the municipal area, outnumbering the tea shops which add up to 140.

On the constructive side, out of the total number of business concerns there are 2,019 firms engaged in building and construction. Included in this number are 219 contracting firms, 250 establishments engaged in masonry work, 176 in earth-works, 182 carpenter shops, 120 bamboo-working establishments, 115 brick-and-tile dealers, 301 selling electrical appliances and accessories, and 201 hardware dealers.

One out of every 18 shops in Chungking deals in the supply of fuel. There are (in January, 1943) 791 coal dealers, 345 shops selling fire-wood and 239 charcoal retailers. More than 500 establishments handled paper, printing, stationery and office supplies, and other necessities for the operation of govern-

ment offices. There are 16 auctioneers and 45 second-hand goods shops to handle the flood of personal property offered for sale on a commission basis. In addition, there are 77 old-type pawnshops.

Dealers in Chinese herbs and medicines outnumber dealers in western medicines and drugs, the respective numbers being 275 and 137.

With general market prices frequently fluctuating, more and more consumers' cooperatives have been set up in Chungking during the past two years. Up to the end of November, 1942, a total of 480 consumers' cooperatives had been approved by and registered with the Social Welfare Bureau.

The chief items of export trade are tung oil, tea, silk, bristles, hides and skins. Szechwan herbs and medicines for domestic markets also pass through or are handled in Chungking in large quantities.

PUBLIC UTILITIES

Electric Light and Power

Electric light, heat and power for the war capital is supplied by the Chungking Power Company, Limited, which is a private concern under the supervision of the municipal government. The power plant was first founded in 1915 by British interests. Originally known as the Chungking-Szechwan Electric Company Ltd., the power company then owned only one old 400-kilowatt direct-current generator. The company was thoroughly reorganized and took its present form in February, 1935. It was expanded in 1936 when its total paid-up capitalization was increased from \$2,000,000 to \$5,000,000. Its capital was again increased to \$30,000,000 in November, 1941.

Despite shortage of machinery and necessary equipment as well as handicaps or difficulties resulting from enemy air-raids, the Chungking Power Company has in the past few years increased its facilities and extended its services. In 1939 it had a capacity of 3,000 kilowatts, but in 1942 the capacity had greatly increased and the aggregate maximum load per month of the three generating plants was nearly 10,000 kilowatts.

The services of the power plant reach a radius of some 30 kilometers. It supplies light to some 12,000 households in the city, 2,000 households on the

South Bank, 1,200 on the North Bank and 700 in the Shapingpa area. In addition, it also supplies power to some 400 factories, big and small, in the municipal area and outskirts although some of the bigger industrial plants have their own power plants.

WATER WORKS

Capitalized at \$2,500,000, the Chungking Water Works which was re-organized as a stock-holding company with limited liabilities since 1937 dates back to 1928 when a preparatory office for water-works was set up to purchase machinery and equipment, build water tanks and lay water-pipes. In March, 1932, the company started to operate under private ownership and management. Improvements were made during the period from 1934 to 1936 when it was operated under governmental supervision.

Drawing water from the Chialing River into a deep well 38 meters in depth, the river water is then pumped into two clearing tanks where rough sand and a large part of the mud and dirt in the water are deposited in residue. Three vertical water-pumps (two of which are of the 400-cubic-meter-per-hour capacity and one of the 600-cubic-meter-per-hour capacity) which can either be used simultaneously or separately are installed for this purpose. Horizontal pumps are then used to draw the water

which has passed through the first clearing process into tanks through a pipe 1,800 meters in length and 500 millimeters in diameter.

Before the water is pumped into a tank containing dissolved alum to make it clear, it is passed through a 1,000 cubic-meter tank where the finer dirt is extracted. The water is then let into a large precipitation tank with a capacity of 5,000 cubic meters and subsequently into a quick filtration tank. There are five such filtration tanks, capable of filtering within 24 hours 12,000 cubic meters of water which is then chlorinated before passing into the three reservoirs which have an aggregate capacity of 12,000 cubic meters.

Purely for the water-works plants, there is a high-pressure water tower with a capacity of 120 cubic meters. The water is used to wash the quick filtration tanks, in the disinfecting process, in the plants and for other purposes.

Water main pipes in Chungking total more than seven kilometers, three of them have been in the old city area while two others are in the new municipal area.

The following table lists by month operational statistics of the water-works for the years from 1932 to 1942 (up to the end of August):

TABLE 25—STATISTICS OF CHUNGKING WATER WORKS, 1932-1942

Unit—Cubic Meter

	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	Annual Total
1932													
Inflow									3,832	16,890	48,641	42,071	111,434
Outflow									1,935	5,216	46,395	43,148	96,594
Quantity Consumed									210	6,730	1,640	2,456	11,036
Maximum } Date									3	21	10	31	
Outflow } Quantity									550	950	2,020	1,681	
Minimum } Date									22	1	21	14	
Outflow } Quantity									15	25	1,105	1,172	
Average Outflow									624	1,739	1,497	1,438	
1933													
Inflow	50,247	49,902	58,959	58,285	69,179	69,960	93,443	107,567	90,465	91,632	68,870	94,632	893,141
Outflow	49,700	45,404	54,969	57,974	66,219	70,254	89,380	102,836	87,965	79,987	74,186	77,507	856,181
Quantity Consumed	1,165	1,219	584	1,521	3,369	2,202	4,089	3,360	4,545	3,474	2,382	2,613	30,523
Maximum } Date	23	21	29	3	15	23	29	13	23	7	9	2	
Outflow } Quantity	1,942	1,875	2,012	2,272	2,358	2,651	3,459	3,793	3,596	3,397	2,785	2,672	
Minimum } Date	2	2	11	18	3	7	31	29	4	15	14	23	
Outflow } Quantity	1,231	1,403	1,401	1,709	1,877	1,974	2,006	2,092	2,263	2,103	2,011	2,250	
Average Outflow	1,603	1,621	1,773	1,933	2,136	2,342	2,883	3,311	2,892	2,580	2,473	2,500	
1934													
Inflow	77,415	69,180	79,451	77,778	105,584	97,532	121,372	141,718	114,147	100,160	102,706	116,570	1,203,611
Outflow	75,791	70,887	79,419	78,508	97,195	98,987	116,502	140,178	101,931	95,462	89,462	92,940	1,132,262
Quantity Consumed	1,874	1,481	2,085	3,603	3,340	3,014	3,215	4,566	11,051	9,420	8,251	28,217	80,117
Maximum } Date	6	13	8	20	31	26	30	11	17	7	15	31	
Outflow } Quantity	2,683	3,395	2,808	3,285	4,104	4,025	4,403	5,574	4,053	3,631	3,429	3,934	
Minimum } Date	1	1	6	13	8	30	3	23	18	26	8	14	
Outflow } Quantity	2,128	1,000	1,618	2,119	2,623	2,506	2,926	3,738	2,856	%2,422	2,492	2,608	
Average Outflow	2,445	2,532	2,562	2,617	3,135	3,133	3,758	4,522	3,398	3,079	2,962	2,998	
1935													
Inflow	100,149	81,248	106,765	101,170	115,600	112,453	155,744	169,339	156,336	145,908	137,716	127,640	1,510,068
Outflow	88,656	76,520	94,161	99,638	108,108	110,660	149,406	168,911	153,099	140,915	132,463	129,114	1,449,651
Quantity Consumed	8,230	8,922	6,863	4,003	3,010	4,490	3,431	3,910	3,100	6,411	3,440	2,710	58,520
Maximum } Date	28	3	18	22	12	27	28	27	11	3	6	18	
Outflow } Quantity	3,338	5,059	3,470	3,918	4,455	4,442	5,606	6,362	6,589	5,281	5,389	4,613	
Minimum } Date	1	4	3	10	17	29	4	7	12	10	18	12	
Outflow } Quantity	150	400	2,542	2,696	3,155	3,039	3,663	4,541	4,130	3,823	3,823	3,805	
Average Outflow	2,860	2,732	3,037	3,321	3,497	3,688	4,819	5,384	5,103	4,545	4,415	4,165	
1936													
Inflow	126,789	117,778	117,300	121,500	138,793	160,995	201,970	205,890	190,012	156,603	123,147	130,138	1,790,912
Outflow	122,011	109,820	114,203	118,192	136,151	157,546	196,124	202,214	185,208	132,320	118,121	117,222	1,729,132
Quantity Consumed	2,770	4,406	2,920	2,670	3,660	2,980	8,015	5,440	3,410	3,590	6,641	16,940	63,442
Maximum } Date	23	26	13	21	23	24	10	11	5	13	6	31	
Outflow } Quantity	7,343	4,197	4,110	4,554	5,068	7,162	7,493	7,465	7,385	6,135	4,562	5,598	
Minimum } Date	24	13	17	9	5	7	3	22	15	11	13	18	
Outflow } Quantity	1,630	3,243	3,269	3,448	3,255	3,790	4,483	5,082	5,120	4,033	3,486	3,363	
Average Outflow	3,935	3,787	3,684	3,939	4,392	5,251	6,324	6,523	6,173	4,913	3,937	3,781	
1937													
Inflow	129,186	101,813	125,229	131,574	132,037	142,031	188,517	187,230	152,743	135,911	119,931	117,677	1,669,878
Outflow	112,714	105,945	121,069	128,058	129,504	139,958	184,903	183,343	148,103	132,919	113,441	120,597	1,620,554
Quantity Consumed	11,010	2,350	4,360	3,320	2,730	3,560	4,630	3,220	2,830	4,880	3,920	4,180	51,100
Maximum } Date	29	10	7	12	17	30	26	23	6	25	8	31	
Outflow } Quantity	4,026	6,571	4,374	5,062	5,446	5,891	7,266	6,911	7,699	5,054	4,582	5,500	
Minimum } Date	11	1	4	11	27	1	27	4	20	30	20	12	
Outflow } Quantity	1,633	1,312	3,423	3,542	3,156	3,627	4,040	3,916	3,369	3,421	3,379	3,379	
Average Outflow	3,313	3,783	3,905	4,268	4,177	4,994	3,964	5,914	4,937	4,288	3,781	3,890	
1938													
Inflow	149,484	126,619	138,775	138,340	173,594	163,787	204,471	248,905	222,061	214,077	197,673	209,134	2,181,913
Outflow	134,025	125,592	130,619	134,411	169,886	160,526	201,829	249,468	216,634	211,891	190,344	204,610	2,129,385
Quantity Consumed	7,760	1,600	3,201	2,080	4,125	2,880	3,080	3,060	2,000	5,970	3,390	11,260	50,425
Maximum } Date	30	14	1	16	30	26	27	14	1	11	29	31	
Outflow } Quantity	7,930	4,901	4,844	5,059	7,537	7,514	8,116	9,322	8,574	8,446	6,844	8,719	
Minimum } Date	1	1	8	26	14	2	5	9	15	10	25	10	
Outflow } Quantity	2,165	3,709	3,721	4,057	4,712	4,367	4,689	6,802	6,243	5,105	5,930	6,025	
Average Outflow	4,323	4,485	4,199	4,480	5,480	5,350	6,510	8,047	7,221	6,835	6,344	6,600	
1939													
Inflow	211,821	178,683	213,390	217,199	217,853	214,877	236,131	245,943	237,365	238,041	197,010	205,865	2,614,176
Outflow	199,495	179,226	211,040	210,616	208,664	206,979	234,315	241,191	232,608	231,106	193,547	204,652	2,553,434
Quantity Consumed	4,220	1,600	3,100	5,410	10,700	5,150	3,900	3,900	6,600	5,200	3,985	2,700	56,365
Maximum } Date	12	18	31	23	4	23	16	6	11	13	31	31	
Outflow } Quantity	7,083	8,851	7,784	7,745	11,054	8,477	8,934	8,814	9,465	8,720	7,769	9,879	
Minimum } Date	1	19	12	24	16	2	3	2	18	10	17	14	
Outflow } Quantity	3,201	3,069	6,011	6,134	5,205	5,858	6,449	6,679	5,593	5,495	5,935	5,935	
Average Outflow	6,435	6,401	6,808	7,021	6,711	6,899	7,558	7,780	7,733	7,467	6,451	6,601	
1940													
Inflow	212,350	216,552	237,603	231,973	255,883	263,150	268,285	262,817	221,086	244,721	243,702	248,926	2,912,048
Outflow	207,534	199,400	232,245	229,310	245,148	265,377	256,909	257,062	218,146	238,877	249,616	243,556	2,842,280
Quantity Consumed	7,290	10,700	6,445	4,000	6,900	4,290	7,530	6,000	7,000	2,700	2,500	2,600	69,375
Maximum } Date	12	7	30	11	14	12	22	19	25	19	4	8	
Outflow } Quantity	7,552	8,197	8,440	8,401	10,128	11,759	11,201	11,001	10,503	10,248	10,020	9,160	
Minimum } Date	1	8	1	13	2	13	6	22	23	17	27	4	
Outflow } Quantity	5,126	3,715	6,428	6,852	6,348	6,808	4,449	6,254	5,391	5,753	6,093	6,680	
Average Outflow	6,694	6,875	7,491	7,643	7,916	8,535	8,259	8,568	7,271	7,705	8,320	7,856	
1941													
Inflow	280,326	239,884	243,919	259,372	285,969	307,945	363,209	177,234	230,696	194,834	189,328	211,040	2,943,726
Outflow	256,634	234,081	238,443	254,808	261,531	296,436	361,273	179,963	236,310	193,334	179,918	202,790	2,896,740
Quantity Consumed	3,300	5,000	3,050	4,300	5,600	11,500	6,700	2,500	445	2,200	2,150	12,810	59,555
Maximum } Date	96	2	3	14	23	16	10	12	2	14	17	28	
Outflow } Quantity	9,626	9,694	8,830	10,692	10,475	12,265	14,915	14,185	10,230	8,131	9,388	8,680	
Minimum } Date	1	12	10	29	12	24	30	27	23	2	28	12	
Outflow } Quantity	6,336	6,368	6,989	6,725	5,928	4,272	1,765	60	5,930	2,128	2,110	4,254	
Average Outflow	8,280	8,360	7,707	8,495	8,496	9,867	11,654	5,805	7,876	6,235	5,987	6,639	
1942													
Inflow	216,363	215,421	244,732	239,503	288,887	274,717	348,938	333,393					
Outflow	191,246	205,121	220,820	228,921	274,067	264,793	338,718	310,109					
Quantity Consumed	22,100	13,900	13,150	13,300	13,950	13,500	10,800	13,950					
Maximum } Date	7	14	28	13	6	22	12	24					
Outflow } Quantity	9,143	10,467	10,712	11,170	11,236	11,125	13,603	13,548					
Minimum } Date	25	18	11	17	11	28	11	24					
Outflow } Quantity	1,960	5,340	3,200	1,499	6,231	5,104	4,968	7,740					
Average Outflow	6,169	7,682	7,123	7,630	8,840	8,826	10,962	10,2					

TELEPHONE

Except for the South Bank, the North Bank and outlying districts in the greater municipal areas, the automatic telephone system has been installed in Chungking. For the old city area (otherwise known as the downtown section), there are 1,500 lines for automatic telephones installed with Siemens equipment. Machinery and equipment of American manufacture are installed for the new municipal area which has 1,800 automatic telephone lines. The automatic telephone exchange for the downtown section was opened to service at midnight, October 15, 1941, marking a distinct improvement in the history of telephone communication in Chungking. Automatic service started early for the new municipal district as 1,000 automatic trunk lines were installed for that area in April, 1939.

At the end of 1942, the total number of lines in the 16 different exchanges of the Chungking Telephone Administration was 4,370, more than 75 per cent being automatic. The number of lines at each of the exchanges is as follows:

<i>Exchange</i>	<i>No. of Lines</i>	<i>Type</i>
Downtown District	1,500	Automatic
New Municipal Area	1,800	Automatic
South Bank	300	Magneto
Kwang-Chien Highway	20	"
North Bank	100	"
Hsiangkuossu	50	"
Hualungchiao	50	"
Panchi	10	"
Shapingpa	100	"
Laoyingyen	100	"
Koloshan	100	"
Laichiachiao	20	"
Tsingmukwan	50	"
Hsiehmachang	50	"
Tushinchiao	20	"
Peipei	100	"
TOTAL	4,370	

Ever since July, 1938, when the Ministry of Communications purchased the Chungking telephone enterprise, which was then under the Szechwan provincial reconstruction department, the Ministry has been planing to expand the telephone service and facilities in the fast-growing city. The expansion program, however, has been delayed and hindered by force of circumstances such as frequent Japanese bombings and difficulties in transporting from the outside world necessary telephone equipment, wires and cables, and machinery. Time and again certain equipment and wires and cables ear-marked for expansion and improvement of the city's telephone network had to be used in emergency repairs following air-raid destruction,

resulting frequently in the postponement of scheduled expansion projects. Despite all the difficulties and hindrances, the telephone authorities have shown their determination to maintain optimum services under trying conditions and have clung to their expansion plans. In order to avoid waste of material, money and manpower, the standing policy is to do away with slip-shod or non-durable construction and instalment even when this means more time and money.

To reduce possible damages during enemy air-raids and to increase efficiency, hundreds of thousands of dollars has been spent in the construction of underground, bomb-proof shelters for the telephone exchanges and in the laying of subterranean wires and cables. By so doing, telephone communications in Chungking has been maintained even during the more intensive bombings, and damages caused by air-raids have been much reduced. Although replacing aerial cables and wires by underground network involves high cost, in the long run it represents tremendous savings. During the 1941 bombing season, only nine-tenths of one per cent of the underground cables laid in 1941 in the new municipal district was damaged by bombs. The percentage of damage of aerial cables was more than 36 per cent. It is estimated that some 1,400 kilometers in length of wires, costing more than \$300,000 (in 1941) was thus saved by the extension of the underground network.

More underground wires and cables also make the repair jobs easier and more speedily done. In 1940, only 17 per cent of the telephone subscribers in the city whose telephones were put out of commission as a result of enemy air-raids was able to get the services resumed within five days. But in 1941 the percentage was increased to 58. In the new municipal district the relative percentages in connection with such repairs were 30 for 1940 and 52 for 1941.

At the end of 1942, 82.70 per cent of the telephone cables was subterranean. The total length of cables from the telephone exchanges to subscribers' houses and inter-connecting the various exchanges is 6,207.89 pair-kilometers. Bare copper cables are used in some of the outlying municipal districts where they are usually strewn across fields or hill-tops. The following table shows the length and kind of telephone cables in Chungking up to the end of 1942:

TABLE 26—LENGTH AND KIND OF TELEPHONE CABLES

(Unit: Pair-Kilometer)

KIND		EXCHANGES			
		Downtown, South and North Banks	New Municipal District	Outlying Municipal Areas	Total
C A B L E S	Aerial	454.08	198.20	372.26	1,024.54
	Subterranean	2,033.55	3,099.40	1.25	5,134.20
	Underwater	49.15			49.15
	TOTAL	2,536.78	3,297.60	373.51	6,207.89
Aerial Bare-Copper Wires		310.80	180.65	480.40	971.85
TOTAL		2,847.58	3,478.25	853.91	7,179.74

The downtown exchange is located in a bomb-proof, underground establishment cut entirely out of thick layers of solid rock and further strengthened with reinforced concrete. Although only 1,500 trunk lines have so far been installed there, this exchange has a capacity for 3,000 lines. The bulk of the equipment installed therein was removed from the former Wuchang-Hankow Telephone Administration's exchange which at present is valued at more than \$2,200,000. (Another part of the equipment now in use in Chungking formerly belonged to the Nanking Telephone Administration and most of the long-distance telephone equipment came from the Ministry of Communications' Nine-Province Long-Distance Telephone Network Administration.) The strong shelter for the downtown exchange is well-designed and well-planned. Construction began in September, 1940, less than a month after the greatest bombings and fire in Chungking, and was completed in August, 1941. Five hundred and fifty-five days elapsed between the commencement and completion of the construction. Of the 555 days, actual work was done only on 444 days, as on the other 111 days there were air-raids. This underground exchange, built at a cost of nearly \$400,000, has a long, winding tunnel which took 290 days for blasting and digging alone.

Due to shortage of material and equipment, there are at present only 16 trunk lines at the exchanges for each group of 100 telephone subscribers. Therefore only eight out of each group of 50 subscribers can use their telephones simultaneously. Statistics and records show that on the average each telephone subscriber in Chungking makes more than 120 initial calls daily, including calls not put through.

The total amount spent in connection with various expansion projects in five years' time is nearly \$4,500,000, not including the cost of the exchange equipment for the 1,500 lines in the downtown section and the 1,800 lines in the new municipal district. Expansion outlays from 1938 to 1942 (up to the end of October) are as follows:

Year	Amount
1938	\$ 72,249.07
1939	126,434.73
1940	449,982.37
1941	2,981,319.06
1942 (Jan. to Oct.)	755,101.92
TOTAL	\$4,385,087.15

In December, 1942, preliminary arrangements were made by the

Chungking Telephone Administration with the Chungking Police Bureau to install telephones in all the police stations and sub-stations in the municipality and make these telephones available for public use so as to supplement the yet-too-few public telephones. According to the plan, it is hoped that there will be at least one public telephone for each of the 76 *chen* (an administrative unit consisting of from six to 15 *pao*) in the capital city. At the end of December, 1942, there were altogether only 45 public telephones in Chungking, 27 of which were maintained directly by the administration while the remaining 18

were installed in and managed by different business establishments.

An extensive long-distance service is also maintained by the administration. Calls can be put through to cities as far north as Lanchow and as far south as Foochow.

Due to high cost of materials, various outlays and overhead expenses, the telephone administration has been operating with heavy losses since 1940. The extent of yearly deficit is listed in the following table which also shows the trend in the number of subscribers.

TABLE 27—BUSINESS STATISTICS OF THE CHUNGKING TELEPHONE ADMINISTRATION, 1938 TO 1942

YEAR	No. of City Subscribers	No. of Long-distance Calls	Business Receipts	Expenditures	Profit or Loss
1938	(July to December)		\$ 92,034.15	\$ 73,332.22	\$ 18,701.93 profit
1939	Minimum October 1,454				
	Maximum December 1,731		375,256.35	368,329.42	6,926.93 profit
1940	Minimum December 1,302				
1941	Minimum June 976				
	Maximum December 1,636	196,983	1,336,307.60	2,775,780.05	1,439,472.45 loss
1942	(January to June)				
	Minimum January 1,743				
	Maximum June 2,138	119,456	1,908,240.30	6,905,625.66	4,997,385.36 loss
	(July to December)				
	Minimum September 2,153				
	Maximum December 2,315				

Chungking had its first telephones in 1915 when the city police department installed some magnetic telephones to connect its headquarters with the various city gates and outposts. This first stage of telephone facilities grew in 1926 when more than 70 telephones were installed and used by public and private organizations. The Double Tenth national day of 1931 marked another period in the development of Chungking's telephone system when the municipal government took over the management of the telephone company. From August, 1937 to July, 1938, when the telephone concern was bought over by the Ministry of Communications, the administration had been provincial-managed. It had then been an enterprise under the reconstruction

department of the Szechwan Provincial Government. Since then the administration has been an organization directly responsible to the Department of Telephone and Telegraph of the Ministry of Communications.

On January 1, 1943, the Ministry of Communications announced the merger of the Chungking Telephone Administration and the Chungking Telegraph Office (which was also a subsidiary organ of the Ministry), the new organization to be known as the Chungking Telecommunications Administration. With the establishment of this new office, all matters and business relating to telecommunications in Chungking will be handled by one unified organization.

COMMUNICATIONS

Chungking's communication with the outside world, formerly depending merely upon junks on the Yangtze and Chialing rivers and sedan-chairs and carts drawn by horses on the old earth roads, has improved by leaps and bounds during the last decade, particularly since the war began. It is now served by steamers, modern highways and airways in addition to the older means of travelling or transportation by junks, animal-drawn vehicles, and sedan-chairs.

Today Chungking is the pivot of the Chinese civil aviation network as regular air service is maintained between the capital city and the Southeast, Southwest as well as the Northwest. Connections can be made in India to travel by air to America and other continents by those foreign airways linking the Calcutta terminus of the China National Aviation Corporation, and to the U.S.S.R. and Europe or America from Urumchi where a Chinese airline ends. The wartime capital is also the center of highways and stage transportation lines, being either the starting point, terminus or crossing point of most of the highway trunk lines and the main stage transportation routes. Although shipping with coastal cities and some of the big cities on the Yangtze has been cut off as a result of the war, steamers from Chungking can still sail down river to Wanh sien and Patung and the city is served by steamships, river boats and junks with other Free China cities.

Before the closing of the Yangtze by the Japanese, Chungking could be reached from Shanghai by steaming upriver for more than 2,000 kilometers by boat, with stops at Nanking, Kiukiang, Hankow, and other Yangtze ports. Chungking was linked with Chengtu by highway in 1928 and with Kweiyang in 1936. The first air service, connecting Chungking and Shanghai, was established by the China National Aviation Corporation in 1931.

Within the municipality there is a city bus service in addition to rickshas and sedan-chairs for hire. The towns in the outlying municipal districts are also linked by suburban bus lines and the new horse-drawn carriages service which was inaugurated on April 1, 1942. Ferry lines and sampans are used for traffic between the city proper and the South and North Banks.

AIR-RAID AND AIR DEFENSE

Chungking has been the most-frequently and one of the most-extensively bombed cities in China. According to the record kept by the Chungking Air Defense Headquarters, in the 43 months beginning from January 30, 1938 and ending September 1, 1941, there were altogether 193 enemy air-raids. An aggregate of 5,553 enemy planes took part in these raids, during which 11,181 demolition and 1,800 incendiary bombs were dropped over the city or its outskirts.

The first big bombings Chungking witnessed were those on May 3 and May 4, 1939, when many casualties were inflicted on the city's civilian population in addition to material damages. As time went on, more dugouts were built and made safer. After the enforcement of the "thinning out" program before bombing seasons set in every year, everyone remaining in the city may be accommodated in a public or private dugout when there is an air-raid alarm. A sufficient number of shelters has cut down the casualty rate even during the repeated large-scale or "endurance raids" during which enemy raiders came over the city several times within 24 hours.

On August 19 and 20, 1940, enemy raiders rained large numbers of incendiary bombs over the city. Hardest hit among all the city districts was the downtown business section which was in consequence gutted, blocks on end. As a result of such enemy aerial incendiarism, about half of Chungking's busy downtown business section was destroyed. However, in defiance of the indiscriminate, infamous action of the enemy and in line with the typical Chinese spirit of "we can take it," new and wider roads, new buildings, most of them single-storey simple structures, and new business establishments soon arose from the ruins. It became generally acknowledged that the great August fires, though they had brought havoc and tremendous material losses, have in a sense done the city a good turn as without such fires some of the old, dilapidated buildings and narrow roads and lanes would probably have remained as stumbling blocks in the modernization of the municipality.

A record was made by enemy raiders in the six days from August 8 to August 13, 1941. Altogether there were 18 alarms, and in most cases the city

was bombed. The total time of the alarms was close to 70 hours, counting from the first warning to the final all-clear signal.

With an extensive and well-conducted network of observation and information outposts, Chungking's air-raid warning system is one that has drawn favorable comments from all quarters, including persons responsible for air defense in other parts of the Far East who have visited Chungking during wartime. Within the municipal limits are several observation posts while independent outposts, are distributed at important junctions and points 25 to 50 kilometers outside of the municipal area. Air defense observation and warning units are stationed at all the *hsien* within a radius of 300 kilometers from the municipality. Outposts are found at important places even beyond the 300-kilometer limit so that any information regarding the movements of enemy aircraft is reported or relayed to Chungking without loss of time. With such an extensive network in operation it is possible every five minutes to have fresh reports on the movements of enemy planes. Within three minutes after the enemy raiders have crossed a particular place, an intelligence report flashed from that place is picked up in Chungking. Even when the enemy aircraft is more than a thousand miles from Chungking, by close coordination with other air defense headquarters, reports on its movements are received in Chungking at regular intervals of ten minutes each.

In active air defense, from the time of the first Japanese air-raid on Chungking to September 1, 1941, anti-aircraft batteries went into action 126 times, and brought down a total of 35 enemy planes.

The Chungking Air Defense Headquarters was established in the winter of 1937, under the direction of Lieutenant-General Ho Kuo-kuang. All the passive air defense work is entrusted to the Air Defense Corps, a subsidiary organ which is headed by the mayor of Chungking. The commissioner of police is one of the two deputy directors while the other is specially appointed. The Air Defense Corps has eleven sections—alarm, vigilance and policing, traffic control, sheltering, administration, black-out control, fire-fighting, first-aid, anti-gas and decontamination, engineering, supplies, and general affairs.

In accordance with the various police administrative districts, the municipality is divided into 17 areas, each with a branch air defense corps. These branch corps are headed by chiefs of the branch police bureaus in the particular locality. Under these are some sub-corps which are assigned to duties in specified areas. Their work is assisted sometimes by boy scouts detailed to air defense duties. Besides all these, there are three air defense district corps, two of which are located outside of the municipal limits and one on the rivers surrounding Chungking. All three units are directly under the Chungking Air Defense Headquarters. Among members of the air defense corps are volunteers and full-time workers.

To further strengthen the passive air defense work, four units have been organized to take charge of defense, fire-fighting and prevention, first-aid, and engineering. In addition, there is a service corps to render services and assistance during and after air-raids or alarms. These different organizations are placed under the direction of the Air Defense Corps.

In the much-praised air alarm system of Chungking, sound is the main device of warning although the use of color and light also plays a part. Electric or hand-operated sirens are placed at important junctions both in the city and the outskirts. Bells and loud-speakers are used where the wailing of the sirens cannot be distinctly heard. Motor vehicles installed with portable sirens serve as stand-bys and are used to ply in and around the city in case other sirens are out of commission. The beating of drums during air-raid alarm indicates gas attack.

Red triangles, red balls and green cylindrical signals, all of which are lighted as lanterns at night, are used in the warning signal system. A red triangular signal is hoisted when an enemy scouting plane is discovered. When enemy planes are detected at distant places but possibly headed for Chungking, one red ball is hung on each of the 32 warning sign posts distributed throughout the municipality, all of which are located either on hill-tops or on the roof of tall buildings. As soon as the enemy aircraft is within a certain distance from Chungking, a second red ball is added to each of the posts. At the same time the sirens and bells give the preliminary alarm signals. The urgent alarm is

given when the enemy raiders are closer to the capital city, the two red balls being lowered when the sirens wail for a second time. The all-clear signal is indicated by the hoisting of a green cylindrical signal and the setting-off of sirens at an unchanging pitch. During the course of a long air-raid alarm, the two red balls may be hoisted sometime after the urgent alarm is given. Under such circumstances, people in the dugouts may come out for a brief relaxation. Should the enemy planes return or come close to the municipal limits again, the "rest period" is called off, the red balls are again taken down, and the state of emergency is resumed.

A search-light warning system serves as a stand-by alarm at night in case there should be some hitch in the regular alarm network. By using search-lights, the warning posts can be notified of the particular alarm signal they should give at various times. Should the search-lights be turned on at a 30-degree angle, with the beam directed to shine in circles three times and then blinked three times toward the city, the warning posts immediately give the alert signal by hoisting one red lantern. The preliminary air-raid alarm is indicated by having the search-lights make two circles, blink twice, to be followed by the hoisting of two red lanterns. With the search-lights beaming in a single circle and then blinking once, the urgent alarm is to be set off. Finally the all-clear signal is set off by waving the beams of the search-lights left and right for more than ten times, and the use of the long, green lantern.

For each dugout one or more persons are appointed to maintain order and perform other duties during alarms. Movements of enemy aircraft or news of bombings are reported from time to time to those in the dugouts. Certain factories and government offices carry on their work in bomb-proof dugouts even during alarms, and mass education is frequently given in public shelters.

First-aid and fire-fighting work are carried out whenever and wherever needed. They continue uninterrupted even if the alarm period should be lengthened because several waves of enemy aircraft raid the city. Three companies of army engineering corps are ready to excavate and remove duds or unexploded bombs dumped on the wartime capital by the enemy.

Also under the command of the Air Defense Headquarters is an anti-gas corps with the police commissioner as the director. Under it are a number of teams attached in accordance with branch police bureaus or stations. This corps also offers training in fundamental anti-gas knowledge to *pao* and *chia* heads as well as persons in charge of dugouts.

Strong reinforced-concrete block-houses have been erected at important junctions, and militia and civilian defense units organized to be prepared against any possible landing of enemy parachute troops. In addition, there are reserve military units which can be mobilized at a moment's notice to engage in mopping up enemy paratroops.

In view of the steady increase of population, the Chungking Municipal Government was instructed in July, 1941, to organize an air-raid shelter construction office to build new dugouts and improve the old ones. This phase of construction work was carried out in four periods and completed in October, 1942. During the 16 months up to October, 1942, a total of 94 new public dugouts and three underground tunnels were constructed and improvement work carried out in 317 public dugouts and five underground tunnels.

Government or private organizations and offices desiring to build private air-raid shelters are required to apply for a permit and abide by regulations concerning construction and inspection of private dugouts. No construction shall begin until after the location and particulars of the dugout have been examined by the air-raid shelter construction office and after a permit is issued. The Public Works Department is in charge of construction of air-raid shelters in the municipality. During 1942 a total of 126 permits were issued and an aggregate length of 5,837.31 meters of dugouts with a capacity for 34,632 persons completed.

A set of construction standards for dugouts has been issued with the following provisions:

- (1) Each air-raid shelter should have a capacity of approximately 300 and should have at least two outlets;
- (2) Each shelter should have on its top four to five meters of solid rock or 10 to 12 meters of

sandstone and earth and should have strong support built inside ;

four to five meters of solid rock or certain thickness of sandstone or earth.

- (3) Empty space should be provided outside of the dugouts for resting places and in principle there should be one square meter for every six persons ;
- (4) The regulation width of air-raid shelters is two meters and height two-and-a-half meters ;
- (5) For better ventilation and draining off of water, shelters should be built with a grade of at least three per cent. The interior of the dugouts should be separated from the outside by a layer of

Dugouts found not in conformance with the minimum requirements and construction standards are either sealed up or instruction given to the owners to improve them. Inspectors are sent from time to time to all the shelters in various municipal districts.

In February, 1943 there were in total 1,603 public and private dugouts in the Chungking municipality, their aggregate capacity being 426,599. The number, distribution and capacity of the public and private dugouts are given in the following tables :

TABLE 28.—NUMBER, DISTRIBUTION AND CAPACITY OF PUBLIC DUGOUTS IN CHUNGKING

DISTRICT	Number of Dugouts	Aggregate Capacity
1st	24	7,830
2nd	17	3,582
3rd	8	2,686
4th	14	11,456
5th	16	4,973
6th	16	6,394
7th	18	5,897
8th	25	6,862
9th	26	6,228
10th	18	6,178
11th	31	10,176
12th	16	4,972
13th	1	166
14th	25	7,271
15th	3	3,826
16th	4	928
Special	12	23,420
TOTAL	274	112,845

(Source : Office for the Management of Air-Raid Shelters)

TABLE 29.—NUMBER, DISTRIBUTION AND CAPACITY OF PRIVATE DUGOUTS IN CHUNGKING

DISTRICT	Number of Dugouts	Aggregate Capacity
1st	90	20,486
2nd	63	17,144
3rd	51	12,746
4th	63	7,466
5th	94	15,294
6th	78	12,875
7th	51	40,544
8th	138	33,742
9th	39	8,794
10th	29	21,263
11th	136	36,846
12th	87	22,776
13th	82	19,173
14th	99	14,137
15th	74	17,907
16th	27	4,875
17th	58	7,686
TOTAL	1,329	313,754

(Source : Office for the Management of Air-Raid Shelters)

CHAPTER XXII

ASSOCIATIONS AND SOCIETIES

INTERNATIONAL CULTURAL RELATIONS

Chinese-American Institute of Cultural Relations

Founded on February 22, 1939, to promote cultural relations and friendly cooperation between China and the United States. Among the principal activities undertaken are: holding regular cultural lectures, arranging special broadcast programs for America by graduates (Chinese and foreign) of American universities, translating selected articles from current American magazines for publication in Chinese newspapers, supporting the international movement for promoting the cause of the United Nations, engaging in research projects on subjects bearing on Sino-American cultural relations, extending courtesies and facilities to the U.S. Military Mission and the U.S.A.A.F. in Chungking, and exchanging motion pictures between China and America to show the war efforts of the two countries.

In November, 1942, the U. S. State Department donated to the institute a sum of US\$18,000 (equivalent to \$360,000) in support of its activities during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1943.

Present membership: 531. A branch institute has been organized in Chengtu.

Officers:—Honorary Presidents, Madame Chiang Kai-shek, Colonel Henry L. Stimson; President, H. H. Kung; Vice-Presidents, Chen Li-fu, Hu Shih, Arthur N. Young, Dwight Edwards; Secretary-General, P. T. Chen; Deputy Secretaries-General, Maurice E. Votaw, Wu Wen-tien, Treasurer, C. B. Rappe (Rev.) Business Manager, Chu Djang; Chinese Secretary, P. Y. Yin; English Secretary, Francis K. Pan; Liaison Secretaries, Edward Y. K. Kwong (China), Paul C. Meng (U.S.A.).

Address:—Chung San Rd., Chungking.

Sino-British Cultural Association

Founded in October, 1933, in Nanking, for the promotion of cultural relations and friendship among the peoples of China

and Great Britain. The association has sponsored British professorships and lectureships in Chinese universities and also introduced Chinese scholars to lecture in British institutions of higher learning. Among other activities are exchange of English and Chinese books and publications, lectures relating to cultural relations, and social meetings. A periodical "*Amity*" is published in English. Membership: 496. Branch associations in Chengtu and Kunming.

Officers:—Presidents, Wang Shih-chieh, Sir Horace Seymour; Secretary-General, Han Li-wu; Standing Committee, Chang Ping-chun, Chang Tao-fan, Cheng Tsang-po, Chow Keng-sheng, Yao Nien-yuan, T. K. Tseng, Lo Chia-luen, A. J. Bell, B. M. Barry, Keith Waller, W. G. Harmon.

Address:—189 Chung San Rd., Chungking.

Sino-Burman Cultural Association

Founded on December 21, 1939, to promote cultural relations and goodwill between China and Burma and to further Sino-Burman cooperation. In August, 1941, the association sponsored a Chinese Goodwill Mission to Burma, headed by Dr. Chiang Mon-lin, to return the courtesies of the Burmese Goodwill Mission to China in 1939. Since the fall of Rangoon, the association has helped students of Rangoon University to enroll in Chinese universities. Forums on questions relating to Burma are held from time to time. Membership: 158. The Burma-China Cultural Association, a sister organization of the association, was maintained in Rangoon before the fall of Burma. There is a Sino-Burman branch in Kunming.

Officers:—President, Lo Chia-luen; Vice-Presidents, Chang Wei-han, Daw Mya Sein (Miss Mya Sein); Secretary-General, Han Li-wu; Deputy Secretaries-general, H. P. Tseng, Ganga Singh.

Address:—197 Chung San Rd., Chungking.

Sino-French-Belgium-Swiss Cultural Association (Association Culturelle Sino-Franco-Belgo-Suisse)

Founded on March 26, 1939, for the purpose of promoting cultural relations, this organization also conducts classes in French and accounting and engages in academic studies and lectures. Branch associations are located in Kunming, Chengtu, Sian and Indo-China. Present membership is 1,200. *Bulletin of the Sino-French-Belgium-Swiss Cultural Association* and *L'Europe et L'Asie* (both in Chinese) are published.

Officers :—President, Wu Chih-hui; Director, Mao Ching-hsiang; Chief Secretary, Chen Yao-tong; Secretary-General, Chow Man-fain.

Address :—30 Ling Kiang Rd., Chungking.

Sino-Indian Cultural Association

Founded on May 2, 1935, for the purpose of promoting cultural relations between China and India. The association has donated valuable collections of Chinese classics to the International University in India, and has contributed funds for the construction of the university's China College buildings and dormitory. Membership : 300. (India Branch : International University, Calcutta.)

Officers :—Executive Committee—Chairman, Chu Chia-hua; Vice-chairman, Ku Meng-yu; Supervisory Committee—Chairman, Tai Chi-tao; Vice-chairman, Chen Pu-lei; Resident Members of the Executive Committee, Chang Tao-fan; Secretary-General, T. H. Cheng.

Address :—No. 27 Niu Ko To, Chungking.

Sino-Korean Cultural Association

Founded on September 17, 1942. Present membership : 500.

Officers :—President, Sun Fo; Executive Directors, Wu Te-chen, Chu Chia-hua, Pu Chun (Korean), King Kwei-chih (Korean); Executive Supervisors, Wang Shih-chieh, Ma Chao-chun, Hsu En-tseng, Liang Han-chao, Tsui Tung-wu (Korean); Secretary-General, Ssutu Teh; Deputy Secretary-General, An Yuan-sheng (Korean).

Address :—c/o Ssutu Teh, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Sino-Polish Cultural Association

First founded in June, 1933 in Nanking. Suspended when the war broke out but revived in Chungking in April, 1943.

Officers :—Honorary Presidents, Wu Chih-hui, Wang Shih-chieh, Count Alfred Poninski; Executive Committee, Chen Li-fu, Kuo Yu-shou, Li Hsi-mou, Peon Ju, Chiang Fu-tsung, A. H. Kokczynski, M. Habicht; Secretary-General, Yu Ho-jui.

Address :—(Temporary) c/o Chialing House, Chungking.

Sino-Soviet Cultural Association

Founded on September 30, 1935, to promote Sino-Soviet cultural relations. In 1939 the association sponsored an exhibition of Chinese fine arts in the U.S.S.R. (The collection was exhibited at the Eastern Museum in Moscow for more than a year, beginning in January, 1940 and later also at Leningrad.) Exhibitions of photographs depicting life, progress, reconstruction in U.S.S.R., lectures, and exchange of Chinese and Soviet cultural matters are frequently sponsored. The association also maintains a Russian language school. In addition to the monthly magazine the *Sino-Soviet Cultural Relations*, eight booklets have been published. Membership : 3,000.

There are 14 branch associations located in Yuanling (Hunan), Kukong, Kweiyang, Lanchow, Chengtu, Kweilin, Tihua, Kunming, Sian, Chungking, Ili (Sinkiang), Tacheng (Sinkiang), Yen-an, and Southeastern Shensi.

Officers :—President, Sun Fo; Vice-Presidents, Shao Li-tze, Chen Li-fu; Executive Directors, H. C. Liang, Wang Kun-lun, Chang Si-man, Pu Tao-ming, Li Teh-chuan (Mme. Feng Yu-hsiang), Tsao Tsing-hua, Chou I-chih, Simen Tsung-hua, Hsu Pao-chu, Wang Yun-wu, Ke I-hung, Wen Yuan-ning, Hung Fang, L. W. Miklashevsky, E. F. Kovalev.

Address :—No. 198 Chung I Rd., Chungking.

SOCIAL SCIENCES

Administration Society of China

Organized to engage in research and study of practical administrative problems. Actual workings and conditions of provincial and municipal administrative organs in China are studied

through research committees and investigation groups. The *Administrative Quarterly* and books on administration are published.

Officers :—Executive Directors, Tan Hsi-hung, Wu Wei-tao, Wu Hsiang-ling, Chen Shih-cheng, Hsu Ching-chih, Chen Yao-wen, Chang Chih-pang, Chang Chung-tao, Hsu Kung-su, Tuanmu Kai, Hsieh Kwan-sheng.

Address :—c/o Tan Hsi-hung, Ministry of Economic Affairs, Chungking.

Chinese Association of Land Economics

Founded in Nanking in January, 1933, for research in land problems and promotion of land reforms. Among the achievements of the association are the readjustment of land title records by aerial survey, promotion of the Land Law revision movement, promotion of land finance system, wartime reclamation and land administration system, as well as establishment of the China Land Economics Research Institute in December, 1940 in collaboration with the School of Land Administration of the Central Political Institute.

In its first ten years the association collected 366 theses and investigation and practice-work reports, and many published works, including two volumes of the *Chinese Association of Land Economics Series*, three volumes of Chinese translations of the *School of Land Administration Series*, 20 volumes of the *Land Economics Series*, six volumes of the *School of Land Administration Booklets*, and 17 other booklets. The association commenced compilation of a *Yearbook of Land Economics* but the work was suspended due to the war. The *Man and Land* (formerly a fortnightly, now a monthly) is published regularly.

Present membership: 661. There are five branch associations, one each in Chengtu, Chekiang, Fukien, Kwangtung and Suiyuan.

Officers :—Honorary President, Chen Li-fu; President, Hsiao Cheng; Directors, Huang Tung, Wan Kuo-ting, Li Ching-ling, Liu Chou-ching, Kwan Chi-yu, Cheng Cheng-yu, Kao Hsing, Chow Chih-tso, Chu Ping, Pao Teh-cheng, Tsai Tien-yung, Chang Pei-chieh, Kuo Han-ming, Tang Hui-sung, Hu Tse-lai, Chu Tsung-liang, Tang Chi-yu, Tseng Chikuan.

Address :—Wen Ching Rd., South Hot Springs, Chungking.

Chinese Association of Social and Cultural Sciences

A purely academic association, organized to engage in research and promotion of social and cultural sciences. Founded on August 1, 1940, in Kunming, it has now more than 200 members, mostly university professors. The *Journal of Social and Cultural Sciences* (in Chinese) is published twice a year and books of the *Social and Cultural Library* are published at irregular intervals (10 volumes already published). Branch offices in Chungking, Kunming, Loshan, Kweiyang, Tsunyi, Nanchi, Santai, and one each in the Northwest and Honan.

Officers :—Chairman, Wu Chi-yuan; Secretary, Wu Wer-hui; Honorary Treasurer, Wang Kan-yu. Board of Executive: Wu Chi-yuan, Wu Wen-hui, Wang Kan-yu, Wang Chung-hsin, Wu Pao-san, Li Shou-hua, Fei Chien-chao, Chen Hsueh-ping, Chen Chuan, Yang Hsi-meng, Wu Fan-nung.

Address :—c/o Wu Chi-yuan, National Southwest Associated University, Kunming.

Chinese Social Problems Research Society

Founded in 1938. The *Chinese Society Quarterly* is published. Membership: 400. Two branches.

Officers :—Directors, Lo Tun-wei, Hsu Shih-lien, Lo Cheng-lieh, Ho Chih-chao, Chang Tsung-ming, Chang Kuo-kan, Tan Ti-wu, Sung Tung-feng.

Address :—c/o Lo Tun-wei, Executive Yuan, Chungking.

Economics Association of China

Founded in 1924 for exchange of economic knowledge, study of Chinese economic problems and introduction to China of new notions of foreign economists. Publications of the association (books, pamphlets and a quarterly), including works of the members, number more than 700. Membership: 700 individual members and 10 group members.

Officers :—President, Ma Yin-chu; Vice-President, Chow Tso-min; Directors, Wei Ting-sheng, Wang An-hsin, Pan Shu-lun, Mn O-chu, D. K. Lieu, Franklin Ho.

Address :—c/o College of Commerce, Chungking University, Chungking.

Economic Research Society of China

Founded in Nanking in 1932 to engage in research of wartime and post-war economic reconstruction problems. Membership : 78.

Officers :—Directors, Teng Fei-huang, Chen Shou-sung, Hsiao Chung-chen.

Address :—3 Ching Nien Li, Shou Pei Street, Chungking.

Geopolitical Institute, The

Organized in the autumn of 1940 to engage, in studies of geopolitics. All members are university or college professors and lecturers. T. H. Chen is in charge of the institute's *Jing-farn* magazine and books of the *Jing-farn* series.

Address :—80 Shangchingssu, Chungking.

Hsien Administration Society of China

Organized to study theoretical and practical problems in *hsien* administration for the promotion of the New *Hsien* System. Membership : 64.

Officers :—Executive Directors, Sung Mu-chia, Lin Ching, Pang Ching-tang, Chen Cheng, Wen Pu-cheng.

Address :—c/o Li Keng-sheng, Party and Political Work Perscrutation Committee, Chungking.

Institute of Chinese Economic Reconstruction

Organized in April, 1939 for the purpose of supporting governmental policy and studying and promoting post-war economic reconstruction programs in China. The work of the institute in research and planning is divided into eight groups : communications, industry, mining and metallurgy, agriculture, river conservancy, public utilities, architecture, and economics. Thorough studies are made by the experts of each branch in preparation of draft economic reconstruction plans for presentation and recommendation to the Government. A *Collection of Chinese Economic Reconstruction Problems* and the *First Draft of Outlines of Chinese Economic Reconstruction* have been compiled. The *Economic Research Quarterly* is published in Chinese.

Officers :—Secretary-General, Shen Yi ; Deputy Secretaries-General, C. Sung and Li Fa-tuan ; Directors, Wu Yun-chu,

Yun Chen, Shen Yi, Huang Po-chiao, Hoh Pao-shu, Wang Chih-hsin and Hsia Kuang-yu.

Address :—P. O. Box 147, Chungking.

Law Society of China

To do research in law for improvement of the Chinese judicial system, the society was formally inaugurated on September 20, 1935. In addition to the *Chinese Law Magazine*, the society has also published a *Collection of Rudiments of Wartime Laws and Regulations*.

Officers :—Chairman, Chu Chen ; Vice-Chairman, Chin Cheng ; Secretary-General, Hung Lan-yu.

Address :—590 Lin Sen Rd., Chungking.

Personnel Administration Society of China

Founded in Chungking in October, 1941. Membership : 305.

Officers :—Executive Directors, Ming Chung-chi, Su Lei, Hsiung Tung-yi, Chang Hsiao-cheng, Kuo Chi, Wei Hu-keng, Wang Fei.

Address :—c/o Ming Chung-chi, Main Office, National Military Council, Chungking.

Philosophy Society of China

Founded in 1935. The *Philosophical Review Quarterly* is published. Membership : 125.

Officers :—Directors, Hu Shih, Feng Yu-lan, Huang Chien-chung, Feng Tung-mei, Tsung Pai-hua, Chang Chun-li, Fan Shou-kang, Li Chih-chuen, Chin Yueh-lin, Tang Yung-tung, Ho Lin.

Address :—c/o Department of Philosophy, National Southwest Associated University, Kunming.

Political Science and Economics Society of China

Organized in August, 1932 to engage in studies of political science and economics. Activities include discussion meetings and compilation and publication of booklets. Membership : 316.

Officers :—Executive Directors, Chu I-fei, Wang Lung, Lou Tung-sung ; Secretary, Yu Chien-yi.

Address :—No. 1 Chia Lu, Chung I Rd., Chungking.

Political Science Society of China

Organized for the purpose of studying problems in political science and promoting political thought in China.

Officers:—Executive Directors, Wang Shih-chieh (Chairman), Chow Keng-sheng, Chien Tuan-sheng, Pu Hsueh-feng, Chang Chung-yu; Secretary-General, Han Li-wu.

Address:—189 Chung San Rd., Chungking.

Society of International Economics

Membership: 54.

Officers:—Directors, Cato Young, Chang Nai-chi, Yin Wen-chin, Li Tsung-wen, Li Teh-ying, Chang Yu-kiang, Lo Tun-wei, Li Pin-huan, Chu Chi, Tsui Chin-po, Ting Tso-shao.

Address:—44 Fu Hsing Village, Hsiang Chia Po, South Bank, Chungking.

Sociology Association of China

Organized in 1930 to study theories and problems of sociology and social administration. Membership: 116.

Officers:—Directors, Wu Tseh-lin, Wu Ching-chao, Sung Peng-wen, Wu Wen-tsao, Pan Kwan-tan, Chen Ta, Ko Hsiang-feng, Hsu Shih-lien.

Address:—c/o Wu Tseh-lin, National Southwest Associated University, Kunming.

EDUCATION

Association of Life Education

Founded in Kweilin in 1938 for the purpose of developing self-consciousness among the masses, cultivating constructive ability, popularizing education, and raising the standard of living by means of the most-logical, most-efficient new theories and methods of education. The *Wartime Education Monthly* and books of popular and juvenile reading are published. Membership: 190.

Officers:—Directors, Tao Hsin-chih (Chairman), Li Jen-jen, Lei Ping-nan, Huang Yen-pei, Shao Li-tze, Shen Chun-ju.

Address:—Yu Sheng Ssu, Peipei, Szechwan.

Association for the Promotion of Mass Education

Founded in Peiping in 1923. Before the war the association conducted an experimental center at Tingsien, Hopei. Publications number more than 90. Membership: 265.

Officers:—Directors, Chang Po-ling, Chiang Mon-lin, Chang Chun.

Address:—Nan Cheng Ping, South Bank, Chungking.

China Educational Films Association

Founded in Nanking in 1932 to promote the motion picture as a means of supplementary education. Activities include making of educational films, taking charge of international exchange of educational films, and (before the war) conducting contests of Chinese motion pictures, besides the publication of the *China Motion Picture Annual*. Membership: 876.

Officers:—Executive Directors, Chen Li-fu, Chang Tao-fan, Pan Kung-chan, Hung Lan-yu, Chang Pei-hai.

Address:—c/o Chang Pei-hai, Ministry of Education, Chungking.

China Foundation for the Promotion of Education and Culture, The

Organized in 1925 to receive, deposit, and apply the proceeds of the United States Boxer Indemnity, the Foundation maintains as its main enterprises science teaching professorships, the Committee of Editing and Translations, the Institute of Social Research, and kindred institutions. The National Library of Peiping (now in Kunming), the Fan Memorial Institute of Biology, and the Cooperative Research Fund of the National Peking University are its joint enterprises. The foundation also grants scientific research fellowships to Chinese scholars in China as well as in foreign countries and awards prizes to works of scientific research.

Officers:—Chairman, Wong Wen-hao; Vice-Chairman, Paul Monroe; Honorary Secretary, Y. T. Tsur; Joint Treasurers, C. R. Bennett, Sao-Ke Alfred Sze; Assistant Treasurers, H. C. Zen, Arthur N. Young; Director, H. C. Zen; and Executive Secretary, H. H. Lin.

Committees:—The *Special Committee in America*: Paul Monroe, Hu Shih, Sao-Ke Alfred Sze, C. R. Bennett, and

R. S. Greene (concurrently Associate Director in U.S.A.); *The Executive Committee*: Wong Wen-hao, Sun Fo, J. E. Baker, Chiang Mon-lin and H. C. Zen; and *The Finance Committee*: R. S. Greene, Hu Shih, and Paul Monroe.

Address:—Special No. 3, Li Tze Pa Main Street, Chungking.

Chinese Association of Social Education

Founded in Wusih (Kiangsu) in September, 1932. Membership: 1,124.

Officers:—Chen Li-kiang, Yu Ching-tang.

Address:—c/o National College of Social Education, Pishan, Szechwan.

Chinese Child Education Association

Founded in Nanking in 1930. Activities include editing booklets on education, promoting child education movement, assisting in education for orphans and administering relief to unemployed teachers. Membership: 4,000 individual members, 34 group members. There are 28 branch associations.

Officers:—Directors, Ma Ke-tan, Chen Ho-chin, Tung Jen-chien, Li Ching-shu, Hu Shu-yi, Wu Yen-yin, Ku Shu-sung, Shen Tze-shan, Hsueh Tien-han, Chen Chien-heng, Chang Ta-shan, Wu Ting.

Address:—c/o Chungking Normal School, Peipei, Szechwan.

Chinese National Press Association

Founded in 1941 in Chungking for the improvement of Chinese journalistic enterprises and study of journalism. Lectures are frequently sponsored both for members and for the general public. Present membership: 200. The *Chinese National Press Association Annual* is published in Chinese.

Officers:—President, Hsiao Tung-tze; Executive Directors, Peng Ke-cheng, Tsao Ku-ping, Chang Wan-li, Chow Chin-yueh; Secretary, Chen Min-teh; Research Division, Ma Hsin-ya; Investigation Division, Chien Tsang-sho; Publication Division, Lo Cheng-lieh; Service Division, Thomas M. H. Chao.

Address:—c/o Central News Agency, No. 1 Chung San Rd., Chungking.

Education Association of China

Officers:—Sung Cheng-pang, Kuo Tsu-chao.

Address:—c/o National Central University, Shapingpa, Chungking.

English Language Society of China
Founded in Chengtu in 1942.

Officers:—President, Yang Yu-yung; Directors, Miao Chen-fan, Chao Lien-fang, Chang Wen-tsai, Yang Shou-hsuen, Kang Hsin-chih; Secretary, Cheng Chier-li.

Address:—68 Lien Kwan Kung So Street, Chengtu.

Federation of Overseas-Chinese Education

Founded in Chungking in 1940 to carry on studies in education for overseas Chinese and to assist the Government in the improvement of educational methods and popularization of education among overseas Chinese. There are 41 branch associations in different cities abroad.

Officers:—Executive Directors, Yu Tsun-hsien, Ku Shu-sung, Wang Chih-yuan.

Address:—c/o Yu Tsun-hsien, Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission, Chungking.

Geographical Education Research Association of China

Founded in 1936 for the promotion of geographical education and study of teaching methods and materials for geography classes in middle and elementary schools. Membership: 1,020.

Officers:—President, Hu Huan-yung; Directors, Chu Ping-hai, Li Yu-lin, Jen Mei-ao, Shen Ju-sheng.

Address:—c/o Department of Geography, National Central University, Shapingpa, Chungking.

Joint Office of Chinese Association of Education and Culture

Founded in May, 1937 as a coordinating body for all educational and cultural organizations aiming at educational progress and reform by collective efforts. The office was temporarily suspended when the war began but resumed its activities after removal to Chungking. Publications and cultural lectures are sponsored. Attached to the office are research committees on educational system, border education, and scientific education. Membership: 12 organizations.

Officers:—Chang Po-ling, Chang Yin, Kiang Heng-yuan, Chen Li-kiang, Kuo Yu-shou, Meng Pu, Wu Nan-hsuan, Chiang Fu-tsung, Hsiao Hsiao-yung, Shao Shuan-chiu, Gunsun Hoh, Ma Ke-tan, Hsu Cho-shih, Hsu Su-en.

Address:—Wen Chang Kung, Ching-mukwan, Szechwan.

Library Association of China

Founded in Peiping in June, 1925. Representatives of the association were delegated to the International Library Congress four times. Publications include bulletins, a quarterly, a collection of indices and others.

Officers:—President, Yuan Tung-li; Directors, Liu Kuo-chuen, Chiang Futsung, Shen Tsu-yung, Wang Wen-shan, Tai Chih-chien, Tien Hung-tu, Hung Yu-feng, Cha Hsiu, Wang Yun-wu, Liu Yi-cheng, Yen Wen-yu, Chen Hsuen-tze, Li Hsiao-yuan, Tu Ting-yuan.

Address:—c/o Library, National Southwest Associated University, Kunming.

National Association of Vocational Education of China

The purpose of the association is to popularize and improve vocational education and to improve mass education with the a view to better livelihood. With a history of 26 years (founded in May, 1917), it has now more than 20,000 individual members and a group membership of more than 700 units. Major activities include investigation and research in vocational education and vocations, compilation and publication of books and tests, vocational training and guidance, supplementary education, and vocational guarantee service. Among the subsidiary organs are one branch association in Kweilin, five branch offices (in Kunming, Kweiyang, Chengtu, Shanghai and Hongkong—the last two suspended due to the war), two vocational schools (in Chungking and Shanghai), 12 vocational classes (7 in Shanghai and one each in Chungking, Chengtu, Kweiyang, Kweilin and Kunming), six vocational guidance offices (one each in Chungking, Chengtu, Kweilin, Kunming, Kweiyang, and Shanghai), four productive organs and others.

Publications in Chinese and English number more than 260, including the *Education and Vocation* (in Chinese, formerly monthly, now quarterly), *The National Association of Vocational Education of China: Semi-Annual Report* and many books on vocational education.

Officers:—Chairman of the Board of Directors, Chien Yung-ming; Executive Director, Huang Yen-pei; Office Directors, Yang Wei-yu and Kiang Wen-yu.

Address:—56 Chang's Garden, Chungking.

National Society for the Study of Education

Founded in 1933 for the study and reform of education. Research and investigation work are carried out. Twelve branches—Chungking, Yungan (Fukien), Northwest (at Chengku in Shensi), Kunming, Lanchow, Chengtu, Kweilin, Hunan (at Lantien), Kiangsi (at Taiho), Shanghai, Hongkong, and Tsunyi (Kweichow). Membership: 565 individual members and 19 group members including various provincial education departments.

Officers:—Executive Directors, Chang Po-ling, Hsu Cho-shih, Ai Wei, Chang Tao-chih, Wu Chun-sheng, Chang Chuan-nien.

Address:—c/o Department of Education, National Central University, Shapingpa, Chungking.

Research Society of Present-Day Education

Founded in May, 1941, to study educational theories and practical problems in education. Membership: 58.

Address:—c/o Wang Wen-hsin, Ministry of Education, Chungking.

Society of Educational Tests

Founded on June 21, 1931, in Nanking, with the aim of making tests in various problems of Chinese education. Twelve kinds of tests have been devised and carried into effect. Membership: 310.

Officers:—Executive Directors, Ai Wei, Hsiao Hsiao-yung, Yi Ke-hsuen.

Address:—c/o Psychological Laboratory, National Central University Branch School, Po Chi, Chungking.

ENGINEERING

Chemical and Dyeing Engineering Society of China

A research laboratory and a library are maintained by the society in collaboration with some factories. Membership: 260.

Officers:—President, Chu Chu-ching; Vice-Presidents, Pang Tsing-tu, Yin Yueh-tan.

Address:—14 Yung Chi Li, Yu Ya Ching Rd., Shanghai.

Chinese Engineering Society

Founded in Hankow in August, 1913, and merged with the Society of Chinese Engineers in August, 1931. The purpose of the society is to develop engineering works and to study engineering problems by the joint efforts of engineers of different branches. Research committees are maintained. Ten annual conferences have been held, the 10th in Lanchow in 1942. There are 22 branches. Membership: 4,263 individual members and 60 group members. The *Engineering Bi-monthly* and the *Bulletin of the Chinese Engineering Society* are published.

Officers:—President, Wong Wen-hao; Vice-President, Mao I-sheng; Secretary-General, Ku Yu-chuan; Chief Editor, Wu Cheng-lo; Chief Treasurer, Chu Chi-ching.

Address:—P. O. Box 268, Chungking.

Chinese Hydraulic Engineering Society

Organized in April, 1931 for studies in hydraulic engineering and promotion of hydraulic reconstruction projects in China. Major activities include research in and planning of hydraulic engineering model districts, collection of literature on hydraulics and compilation and revision of hydraulic terminology. Thirteen volumes of *Hydraulics Monthly* and more than 10 *Hydraulics Rare Edition Reprints* were published before the war. Since 1938 a monthly magazine—*Hydraulics*—has been issued. There are 475 members, 491 associate members and 70 student members. Branch societies in Sian, Chengku and Shanghai.

Officers:—President, Shen Pai-hsien; Vice-President, Sung Fu-shih; Secretary-General, Hsu Shih-fu.

Address:—P. O. Box 1, Hsinchiao, Chungking.

Civil Engineering Society of China

Founded in Hangchow on May 23, 1936 for studies in civil engineering and development of civil engineering reconstruction. Research sections have been organized to study various civil engineering problems. Present membership: 522. In December, 1942, 17 branch societies were organized, their distribution being one each for the cities of Chungking, Chengtu, Lanchow, Chengku, Kunming, Kweiyang, Kweilin, Sian, Loshan, Tien-shui, Yishan, Taiho,

Pingyueh, Hengyang, Kikiang, Changting and Liuchow.

Officers:—President, F. K. Sah; Vice-Presidents, Y. S. Mao, T. K. Chao; Secretary-General, Y. Lo; Chief Treasurer, Y. S. Pei; Editor-in-Chief, S. T. Li; Directors, C. Y. Tu, T. L. Chang, C. Y. Hou, Lin Hung-hsun, Y. M. Wu, F. C. Chow, Y. Shen, C. L. Nieh, S. H. Chow, T. C. Yen, Y. Lo, Y. S. Pei, S. T. Li.

Address:—c/o Kweilin-Sansui Highway Engineering Office, Kweilin.

Golden Sea Research Institute of Chemical Industry

Founded in August, 1922 in Tangku, Hopei, by Fan Hsu-tung, the institute is the first private chemical engineering research organ in China. Removed from Tangku to Hankow after the outbreak of the war, thence to Changsha and again to Szechwan. More than 90 papers and treatises on research and investigation projects in agricultural chemistry, chemical analysis, metallurgical and chemical engineering have been published in the journals and publications of the institute and similar organizations at home and abroad.

Officers:—Director, Sung Hsueh-wu; Deputy-Director, Chang Cheng-lung; Chief of Bacteriological Division, Fang Hsin-fang; Chief of Pharmaceutical Factory, Liu Yang-hsuen; Chief of Analytical Laboratory, Chao Po-chuan; Chief of Dyestuff Division, Wei Wen-teh.

Address:—P. O. Box 4, Wutungchiao, Szechwan.

Institute for Research in Chinese Architecture

Founded in January, 1929 in Peiping to engage in research of Chinese architecture (particularly ancient architecture) and related arts in respect of dwellings, bridges, sculptures, mural structures and furniture. More than 200 municipalities and *hsien* have been investigated and research work and studies made of more than 1,000 ancient architectural works and related art subjects. Since the war began, the institute has removed three times—from Peiping to Changsha, thence to Kunming, and thence again to Lichuang in southern Szechwan. Membership: 66.

Publications include *Bulletin of the Institute for Research in Chinese Architecture*, *Chinese Architectural Designs Reference Album* in 10 volumes, and 26

other works (all published before the war).

Address :—P. O. Box No. 4, Lichuang, Nanchi, Szechwan.

Metallurgical Engineering Society of China

Founded in 1937. A large part of the society's activities has been suspended due to dispersal of members in wartime.

Officers :—President, Wong Wen-hao; Vice-Presidents, Chen Li-fu, Tseng Yang-fu; Executive Directors, Sung Yueh-chi, Hu po-yuan, Hsueh Kwei-lun.

Address :—9 Fei Lai Ssu, Chungking.

Sanitary Engineering Society of China

Founded on August 1, 1942, to study and promote sanitary engineering in China. Membership: 60, all being sanitation engineers or university professors.

Officer :—Kuo Tsu-yuan.

Address :—c/o Kuo Tsu-yuan, National Health Administration, Hsinchiaio Chungking.

Society of Chinese Architects

Founded in Shanghai in 1927. Membership: 66.

Officers :—President, Ta-yu Doon; Vice-President, Chen Chih.

Address :—c/o Lu Chien-shou, Architecture Section, Bank of China, Chung Cheng Rd., Chungking.

MEDICINE AND PUBLIC HEALTH

Chinese Association of Research for the Supply of Pharmaceutical Products

Founded on April 1, 1941, in Chungking to promote self-sufficiency in pharmaceutical products. Research and investigations are its major activities. The *Pharmaceutical Bulletin* (in Chinese) is published semi-annually. Membership: 267.

Officers :—Board of Directors, Lien Jui-chi (Chairman), Chen Pu, Pan Ching, Liu Shao-kwang, Chen Ssu-yi, Yu Tachun, Liang Chi-kwei, Lin Kung-chi, Hu Ting-an.

Address :—4 Ta Yang Kung Chiao, Shapingpa, Chungking.

Chinese Medical Association, The

The present Chinese Medical Association came into existence in 1932 with the amalgamation of the two leading medical bodies in China, namely, the China Medical (Missionary) Association and the National Medical Association of China. The former had been founded 43 years previously, while the latter has had a history of 17 years. Purposes: (1) to federate and bring into one compact organization duly qualified and scientifically trained physicians; (2) to propagate medical knowledge and advance medical science; (3) to uphold the standards of medical education; (4) to maintain high ethical standards of the medical profession, to safeguard its various interests and to promote friendly relations among its members; and (5) to cooperate with other medical societies or agencies in the attainment of the foregoing objects.

Biennial conferences and scientific meetings (organized in sections such as medicine, surgery, public health, pathology, etc.) are held regularly. The following scientific societies are component sections of the association, each confederating in their membership qualified specialists in the respective fields: Chinese Dermatology Society, Chinese Hospital Society, Chinese Society of Internal Medicine, Chinese Medical History Society, Chinese Society of Obstetrics and Gynaecology, Chinese Pediatrics Society, Chinese Public Health Society, Chinese Ophthalmology Society, Chinese Otolaryngology Society, Chinese Radiology Society, Chinese Surgical Society, and Chinese Tuberculosis Society.

Auxiliary to the associations are also the Council of Medical Missions, the Council on Legal Defense, the Council on Hospitals, the Council on Public Health, the Vacancies Bureau, and the bookselling and medical supplies departments. A museum and the Way-Sung New Library are located at the association's headquarters in Shanghai (41 Tsepan Road).

Membership: more than 3,000, 60 per cent being Chinese. Almost every nationality is represented.

The association has local branches in leading cities and towns throughout China, notably in Kunming Kweiyang, Chungking, Chengtu, Peiping, Shanghai, Hankow, and Canton.

Before the Pacific War the association published two monthly journals—the *National Medical Journal* in Chinese and the *Chinese Medical Journal* in English, the *National Health Journal* a bi-monthly health journal, and the *Chinese Medical Directory*, an annual journal, are also published. (Owing to transportation difficulties since the fall of Shanghai and Hongkong, publication of the above-mentioned periodicals has been temporarily suspended. At present a bi-monthly *Medical Digest* is published in both Chinese and English editions.)

Officers :—Supervisory Committee—Chairman, F. C. Yen ; J. Heng Liu, Wu Lien-teh, E. S. Tyau, Lin Tsung-yang, Hu Hui-teh, H. H. Morris ; **Board of Directors—**Chairman, Fu Wen-shou ; W. H. Pott, Sung Wu-sheng, Liu Chien-chiu, Fang Chia-cheng, Li Ting-an ; **Board of Executives—**Chairman, Chu Heng-pi ; General-Secretary, Szeming Sze ; Chinese Editor, Li Tao ; English Editor, Hsu Yu-chieh ; Nyi Pao-chun ; Lo Wen-chao, B. E. Read, T. K. Wang, L. G. Kilborn, Li Sung-en, Miao An-chen.

General Office :—President, P. Z. King ; Vice-Presidents, Wang Chi-ming, J. L. Maxwell ; General-Secretary, Szeming Sze (T. Y. Tai acting) ; Chinese Editors, Li Tao, Chu Chang-keng ; English Editors, Hsu Yu-chieh, E. B. Struthers.

Address :—Koloshan, Chungking.

Health Education Association of China

Founded in July, 1935 to promote health education on a nation-wide scale as a means to enhance the health level of the nation. Besides assisting the Government in health movements, the association holds exhibitions and lectures and publishes booklets on health education. The *Medical Service In Wartime* is a monthly publication. Membership : 552.

Officers :—Director, Chen Kuo-fu ; Deputy-Directors, Pan Kung-chan, Hung Lan-yu ; Secretary General, Hu Ting-an.

Address :—8 New Villa, Peipei, Szechwan.

Herbal Medicine Society of China

Organized by practitioners in Chinese native medicine. The *Native Medicine Monthly* is published. Membership : 430.

Officers :—President, Chang Chien-chai ; Vice-President Hsieh Chuan-an, Wu Chuan-an.

Infant Health Association of China

Founded in Nanking in 1931.

Officers :—Unknown.

Address :—Su Yi Tsun, Peipei, Szechwan.

Mental Hygiene Association of China

Organized for the purpose of preserving and promoting mental hygiene as well as preventing mental disorders. Membership : 236.

Officers :—Executive Directors, Ai Wei, Wu Nan-hsuan, Hsiao Hsiao-yung, Chen Chien-shiu, Chu Chang-keng.

Address :—c/o College of Education, National Central University, Shapingpa, Chungking.

Midwives Association of China

Founded in Chungking on December 15, 1941. Publications include *Midwifery Professional Ethics* and *Handbook on Feminin and Infantile Hygiene*. Present membership : 560.

Officers :—Honorary Presidents, Yu Sung-yun, Yang Tsung-jui, Ke Cheng-hui ; Directors, Hsieh Nung (Chairman), Yang Hui-lan, Liang Kwei-fang, Tan Pao-ching, Tao Ching-chu, Yang Hui-ying, Chung Su-cheng.

Address :—c/o Hsin Tu Pharmacy, Shangchingssu, Chungking.

Nurses Association of China

Organized in 1909 for the purpose of raising and unifying the standard of nursing education in China. The association was requested by the first Nurses' Conference convened in 1914 to assume the responsibility of the registration of schools of nursing and of supervising examinations for the prospective graduates.

Up to 1934 when the Technical Committee on Nursing Education of the Commission on Medical Education was established (under the joint auspices of the Ministry of Education and the National Health Administration) and took up the registration of nursing schools and examinations of nurses, there were 6,372 nursing graduates holding diplomas issued by the association.

The association was reorganized in October, 1941, in order to comply with government regulations. Its headquarters is in Chungking, with a branch office in Shanghai. The association

established in September, 1942 a school of nursing in cooperation with the Central Hospital in Kweiyang.

The association has more than 1,400 life members and some 500 paid-up members in Free China. The four branch associations officially recognized are located in Chungking, Chengtu, Kweiyang and Kweilin.

A total of 75 books and booklets relating to nursing have been published and translated. A bi-lingual (English-and-Chinese) *Quarterly Journal* is also published.

Officers:—Board of Directors, Hsu Ai-chu (Miss), Chow Mei-yu (Miss), Eva Liu Chen (Mrs.), Chan Pao-chiu (Miss), Lu Chi-ying (Miss), Kwan Pao-chen (Miss), Dih Chen-liu (Miss), Cora E. Simpson (Miss), Tien Tsai-lee (Miss); Board of Supervisors, Hilda Wang Lo (Mrs.), Bernice Chu Chen (Mrs.), James Liu (Mrs.); English General Secretary and Treasurer, Cora E. Simpson (Miss); Chinese General Secretary, Tien Tsai-lee (Miss).

Address:—c/o Miss Hsu Ai-chu, Central Institute of Health, Koloshan, Chungking.

Pharmaceutical Society of China, The

Founded on July 5, 1942, in succession to the 30-year old China Pharmaceutical Society in Shanghai which is now defunct. All regular members are graduates of pharmaceutical colleges in China and abroad while graduates of pharmaceutical vocational schools are admitted as preparatory members. Present membership is 534, including 294 preparatory and 16 honorary members. Branch societies are located in Chengtu, Kunming, Yungan (Fukien) and Anshun (Kweichow).

Officers:—President, Chen Pu; Executive Directors, Meng Mu-ti, Lien Jui-chi, Yu Ta-chun, Ke Keh-chuan; Secretary, Lu Hsueh-yuan.

Address:—Shihpishan, Hsinchiao, Chungking.

NATURAL SCIENCES

Astronomy Society of China

Officers:—Chen Tsun-wei, Yu Tsing-sung.

Address:—20 Hsiao Tung Chen Chiao, Kunming.

Chemistry Society of China

Founded in August, 1931, in Nanking. The *Journal of Chemistry Society of China*, the *Chemical News Leaflet*, and the *Chemistry Magazine* have been published. Membership: 2,120 individual members and 56 group members. Thirteen branches.

Officers:—Directors, Tseng Chao-lun (Chairman), Fan Hsu-tung, Wu Hsueh-chow, Chang Hung-yuan, King Kai-ying, Huang Tse-ching, Tai Ani-pang, Chang Kiang-shu, Yuan Han-ching, Chow Hou-fu, Lin Chi-yung; Secretary-General, Wu Cheng-lo.

Address:—c/o Kao Chi-yu, Department of Chemistry, National Central University, Shapingpa, Chungking.

China Amateur Radio League

Formerly the China Amateur Radio Operators' Wartime Service Corps organized in October, 1937. An annual meeting is held each year on May 5, (Amateur Radio Day) and by means of wireless communication annual radio conferences are held at different places on the same day. Present membership is 380. The *CQ* magazine is published monthly and *Amateur Radio QSL* periodically. Branches in Chungking, Chengtu, Lanchow, Ningsia, Kunming, Kweiyang, Kweilin, Hsifeng, Yuanling, Kukong.

Officers:—President, Hsu En-tseng; Vice-President, K. T. Chu.

Address:—Hungtsaofang, Shapingpa, Chungking.

China Association of Scientific Movement

Founded in 1933 for the promotion of popular scientific movement. Branch associations have been founded in Chekiang, Anhwei, Hunan, Hupeh, Honan, Shansi, Nanking, Shanghai, Peiping, Tientsin, Tsingtao. Membership: 2,321.

Officers:—Executive Directors, Chen Li-fu, Wu Cheng-lo, Ku Yu-chuan, Tsou Shu-wen, Wei Hsueh-jen, Hsu En-tseng; Secretary-General, Chang Pei-hai.

Address:—282 Kuo Fu Rd., Chungking.

China Society of Natural Sciences

Founded in September, 1927, for the purpose of engaging in scientific studies and popularizing scientific knowledge in China. The society has conducted

scientific expeditions to Sikang and the Northwest, published books, and served the public through its social service division. The *Scientific World Monthly* is published bi-monthly since the war began. Besides the nine branches in China (Kunming, Chungking, Chengtu, Lichuan, Loshan, Kweiyang, Tsunyi, Taiho, and the Northwest) there are two other branches, one in the United States and one in England. Membership: 1,500.

Officers:—President, Hu Huan-yung; General Affairs, Shen Chi-yi; Culture, Tseng Chao-lun; Organization, Hsieh Li-hui; Social Service, Hsueh Yu.

Address:—54 Sunglingpo, Shapingpa, Chungking.

Geographical Society of China, The

Founded in September, 1934 with the aim of collecting materials relating to geography and spreading geographical knowledge through research, investigations, lectures and discussions. In 1935 the society represented China at the World Geographical Conference held in Poland. Activities include the holding of annual conferences and lectures, and publication of journals, books and maps. The *Journal of the Geographical Society of China* (bi-lingual), formerly a quarterly, is now published annually. Membership: 345.

Officers:—President, Wong Wen-hao; Councillors, Chu Co-ching, G. Yun Chang, Hu Huan-yung, Johnson Lin, John Lee, Chang Yin-tang, Hsieh Chia-yung, Tung Shao-liang, Wong Wen-hao; Secretary, Hu Huan-yung; Treasurer, Chu Pin-hai; Chief Editor, G. Yun Chang.

Address:—c/o The National Central University, Chungking.

Geological Society of China, The

Founded on January 27, 1922 in Peiping to study geology and related sciences. Besides annual meetings, lectures, discussions and investigation trips are held from time to time. Research subsidies and awards granted to geologists include the V. K. Ting Memorial Prize and the Chao Ya-tseng Memorial Subsidy. Membership: 375 (26 founding members, 103 life members and 246 ordinary members). Branch societies in Chaotung (Yunnan) and Kunming.

The *Bulletin of the Geological Society of China* is published quarterly in English and *Ti Chih Luen Ping* (Geological Review) bi-monthly in Chinese.

Officers:—*Board of Directors*—Chu Chia-hua (Chairman), T. K. Huang (Vice-Chairman), Ying Tsan-hsun (Secretary), Hou Teh-feng, Wong Wen-hao, Yang Chung-chien, Hsieh Chia-yung, Sung Yung-chu, Li Ssu-kwang, Wang Heng-sheng, Chang Keng, Li Chun-li, and A. W. Grabau.

Address:—c/o National Geological Survey, Peipei, Szechwan.

Meteorology Society of China

Founded in Tsingtao in 1924 to promote meteorological science and to develop meteorological activities. Membership: 260 individual members and 20 group members.

Officers:—Presidents, Chu Co-ching, Chiang Peng-jan; Directors, Chang Pao-kun, Cheng Tze-cheng, Hu Huan-yung, Chu Ping-hai, Chu Wen-yung, Tu Chang-wang, Chen Chan-yung, Lu Liu; Secretary-General, Lu Chiung.

Address:—c/o Academia Sinica, Peipei, Szechwan.

New China Society of Mathematics

Founded in Kunming in 1940 for the study of mathematics. Membership: 105.

Officers:—Directors, Chiang Li-fu, Chen Shen-sheng, Hua Lo-keng, Hsiung Ching-lai, Su Pu-tsing, Chen Chien-kung, Yang Wu-chih, Kiang Tseh-han, Sung Kuang-yuan.

Address:—P. O. Box 96, Kunming.

Physics Society of China

Founded in 1932 for research in physics. Delegates of the society once represented China at the World Physics Conference.

Publication: the *Physics Journal*. Membership: 232.

Officers:—President, Wu Yu-hsuen; Board of Directors, Hu Kang-fu, Sah Peng-tung, Wang Shou-chin, Ting Hsi-lin; Board of Supervisors, Yen Chi-tze, Kwei Chih-ting, Chang Shao-chung.

Address:—c/o College of Natural Sciences, National Southwest Associated University, Kunming.

Psychology Society of China

Founded in Nanking in 1937. All activities of the society, including publication of the *Journal of the Psychology Society of China*, have been suspended since the war began. Membership: 57.

Officers :—Tang Yueh, Lu Chih-wei, Timothy T. Lew, Ai Wei, Hsiao Hsiao-yung, Chou Hsien-keng.

Address :—c/o P. O. Box 138, Kweilin.

Science Society of China

Founded in 1914, the society has a biological research institute at Peipei (Szechwan) and the Ming Fu Library in Shanghai. Publications include the *Science Monthly*, the *Science Pictorial*, *Natural Sciences and Human Life*, books on practical civil engineering, booklets on biological research, and books on popular science.

Officers :—Acting Secretary-General, Lu Yu-tao.

Address :—c/o Biological Research Institute of the Chinese Association of Natural Sciences, Peipei, Szechwan.

AGRICULTURE

Agricultural Extension Association of China

Founded in Chungking on May 3, 1939 for the purpose of developing agricultural extension work and studying problems relating to agricultural extension. Membership : 100.

Officers :—Directors, Mao Yung, Chiao Chi-ming, Chien Tien-ho, Hsieh Chia-sheng, Tang Chi-yu, P. W. Tsou, Chang Chih-wen, Chao Lien-fang, Shen Tsung-han, Chang Hsin-i, S. W. Tsou, Sung Wen-yu.

Address :—c/o Mao Yung, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, Chungking.

Agricultural Association of China

Founded in January, 1917, to study agricultural science, promote agricultural reforms and rural rehabilitation, and to improve peasant life. Among the research projects the association engaged in for 1942 are "Chinese Agricultural Policy," "Post-war Agricultural Rehabilitation," and "A 30-year History of Chinese Agricultural Improvement." Scholarships and fellowships are awarded. The *Journal of the Agricultural Association of China* and the *Agricultural Association Newsletter* are published in Chinese. Membership : 3,800. Branches in Kunming and Kwangtung; a new branch is being organized in Chengtu.

Officers :—President, P. W. Tsou; Vice-President, Liang Hsi; Executive Director, Chen Fang-chi; Chief of Editorial Division, Cato Young.

Address :—121 Chung Hwa Rd., Chungking.

China Association of Research in Farm Economy

Founded on March 10, 1940, for the purpose of studying farm economy and rural reconstruction. Membership : 500.

Officers :—Directors, Liu Kuang-hua, Ho Kung-kan, Shih Wei-huan, Huang Hou-tuan, Chin Yung, Tung Shih-chin, Yang Yun-chu, Huang Meng-fei, Lei Cheng, Chow Hsien-wen, Li Wen, Chen Shou-sung, Chen Hsi-hsiang.

Address :—35 Hsia Lo Chia Wan, Chungking.

China Association of Rural Economy

Founded in 1933 to engage in research or rural economy and promote rural work. The *Chinese Farm and Village Monthly* and six books have been published.

Officers :—Directors, Chen Han-sheng, Sung Hsiao-tsun, Chien Chia-chu, Wu Chueh-nung, Feng Ho-fah, Wang Ying-sheng.

China Association of Rural Reconstruction

Founded in 1940.

Officers :—Directors, Liang Chung-hua, Liang Shu-ming, Chang Yuan-shan, Huang Yen-pei, James Yen, Kiang Heng-yuan, Cato Young, Kao Yang, Sung Tseh-jang, Chu Chu-nung, Chen Chu-shan.

Address :—c/o College of Agriculture, University of Nanking, Chengtu.

China Society for the Promotion of Agriculture

Organized by agricultural workers for the improvement of agriculture in China and encouragement of intensified work among agriculturists. Booklets and a monthly magazine are published. Membership : 750. Six branch societies in China and one abroad.

Officers :—Director, Tai Sung-teh; Vice-Director, Chiang Teh-chi; Co-Directors, Chi Chao-sheng, Chiang Chieh, Waung Chu-yuan, Mei Chi-fang, Waung Kwan-chuen.

Address :—c/o Chi Chao-sheng, University of Nanking, Chengtu.

Forestry Association of China

Founded in 1911 for research in forestry and development of forestation. The association has more than 500 members, all forestry experts. The *Journal of the Forestry Association of China* is published periodically. The association has model forests and special research workers in different provinces and branch associations in Chengtu, Kweilin and Kunming.

Officers :—President, Yao Chuan-fah ; Directors, Liang Hsi, D. Y. Lin, Li Shun-ching, Chu Hui-fang.

Address :—8 Weichiawan, Peipei, Eastern Szechwan (or c/o the Tienshengchiao Post Office, Peipei).

FINANCE AND STATISTICS**Accounting Association of China**

Founded in Nanking on November 18, 1934. Activities include publication of magazines, discussion meetings and an accounting school. Membership: 74 individual members and two group members.

Officers :—Executive Directors, Chao Ti-hua, Wen Yi-yu, Li Chin-yu.

Address :—c/o Directorate-General of Budgets, Accounts and Statistics, National Government, Chungking.

Accounting, Budgeting and Statistics Society of China

Founded in Nanking in May, 1933. Membership: 1,197. One branch.

Officers :—Executive Directors, Yang Ju-mei, Chang Ching-li, Wang Fang.

Address :—c/o Yang Ju-mei, Bureau of Accounts, Budgets and Statistics, National Government, Chungking.

Chung Hua Association of Accounting, Budgeting and Statistics

Founded in 1939. Membership: 278.

Institute of Finance of China, The

Organized in Chungking on April 19, 1942 for the study of public finance and financial problems and for assisting financial reconstruction work of the government. By September, 1942, the institution had a membership of 1,046. Branches in different provinces are being planned or organized. Publications include the *Monopoly Policy and Rudiments of Its Regulations, Chinese*

Local Finance, and the periodical *Finance Journal*. In collaboration with the Li Hsin Accounting School, the institution conducts supplementary courses in accounting. Other activities include lectures and forums.

Officers :—Director, H. H. Kung ; Secretary to Director, Lu Pei-chang ; Secretary-General, Kwan Chi-yu ; Secretary-in-Charge, Tsui Ching-shiu ; Editor-in-Chief, Liu Cheng-tung.

Address :—Chun Sung Rd., Chungking.

National Association of Accountants

Founded in 1933.

Officers :—Directors, Hsi Yu-shu, Wen Yi-yu, Kiang Wan-ping, Hsieh Ling, Chien Kai, Ho Yuan-ming, Chen Chih-siang, Ouyang Han-tsun, Kuo Jo-wei, Wang Hai-fan, Chen Jih-ping.

Address :—c/o Wen Yi-yu, Pa Hsien Middle School, Chungking.

Statistics Association of China

Founded in 1930 to promote statistical work in China and to study theories and methods of statistics. Membership: 458.

Officers :—President, Jui Pao-kung ; Vice-President, Chu I-fei ; Directors, D. K. Lieu, King Kuo-pao, Wang Chung-wu, Waung Lung, Chen Chang-heng, Franklin Ho, Li Cheng-mo.

Address :—c/o Li Hui-yuan, Chungking Municipal Government, Chungking.

CULTURE**Association for the Promotion of Tibetan Culture**

Officers :—President, Hsi-Jao-Chia-Tso.

Address :—1 Yeu Yu Li, Hsuantan-miao, South Bank, Chungking.

China Association for the Promotion of Border Culture

Founded in Chungking in 1939. Membership: 174.

Officers :—President, Chen Li-fu ; Executive Directors, Chang Yuan-fu, Ma Liang, Chung Lu-chien, Pien Tsung-meng, Yung Hsiang, Hsi-Jao-Chia-Tso.

Address :—78 Chin Tang Street, Chungking.

China Institute for Research in Border Cultures

Founded in July, 1939 to engage in research and popularization of the cultures of border peoples. At present emphasis is laid on the study of the Chinese race, including border peoples from the ethnological point of view. Membership: 100.

Officers:—Chairman of Board of Directors, Chang Si-man; Directors, Yang Cheng-chih, Chang Jen-hsia, Ma Ho-tien, Huang Wen-shan, Chen Chi-yun; Research Fellow, Hu Nai-an.

Address:—P. O. Box 255, Chungking.

China Society of Border Problems

Founded on June 1, 1941 to engage in research of China's border culture and political, educational, economic, sociological and other problems. Fifteen books, scheduled for publication in 1943, have been compiled and prepared under the auspices of the society. The *Chinese Border Monthly* is published in Chinese. Present membership is 652. There are two branches—in Chengtu and in Yulin (Shensi).

Officers:—President, Chao Shou-yu; Acting President, Ku Chi-kang; Executive Director and Secretary-General, Huang Feng-shen.

Address:—Nan Yuan, Hsuantanmiao, South Bank, Chungking.

Chinese Federation of Border Reconstruction

Founded in 1940 to promote border productive reconstruction as well as culture and fellowship among the border peoples. Membership: 173.

Officers:—President, Yu Yu-jen; Vice-Presidents, Wang Lu-jen, Mao Ching-hsiang.

Address:—3rd Floor, 17 Chung I Rd., Chungking.

Cooperative Culture Association of China

The purpose of the association is to popularize and develop cooperative culture. Membership: 789.

Officers:—President, Wen Chuen.

Address:—c/o Wen Chuen, Provincial Kuomintang Headquarters, Taiho, Kiangsi.

Ethnological Society of China

Founded in December, 1923, to engage in research, investigations and collection of materials, lectures and discussions. There are more than 70 members. Publications: the *Southwestern Border* magazine and the *Ethnological Journal*.

Officers:—Board of Directors, Huang Wen-shan, Shang Cheng-tsu, Hsu I-tang, Hu Chien-ming, Wu Ting-liang, Sung Peng-wen, Ho Lien-kwei.

Address:—c/o University of Nanking, Chengtu.

Oriental Cultural Association, The

Founded in Chungking in 1940 with the aim of studying, preserving and diffusing Oriental culture in collaboration with all the Oriental peoples. Lectures and discussion meetings are included in its regular activities. The *Oriental Culture* magazine is published. Membership: 519.

Officers:—President, Yu Yu-jen; Vice-President, Chin Cheng; Secretary-General, Kuo Chun-tao.

Address:—20 Han Chia Hang, Nanchimen, Chungking.

Society for Studies in Confucianism

Founded on April 22, 1942 for the promotion of Confucianism and Chinese national culture. A college for studies in Confucianism is being established, with an attached middle school already in existence at Fowling, Szechwan. Membership: 670.

Officers:—President, H. H. Kung; Executive Directors, Wu Chih-hui, Chang Chi, Ho Chien, Chen Li-fu; Secretary-General, Tan Kuang.

Address:—31 Chung Ssu Rd., Chungking.

West China Border Research Society, The

Founded in 1922 to promote scientific studies connected with the topography, peoples, cultures and environments of West China, especially as they affect the tribespeople. The aim of the society has been expanded to include the encouragement of research in Chinese culture and in natural history in the western provinces of China. The *Journal of the West China Border Research Society* which contains articles, photographs, maps and drawings covering subjects such as

archaeology, anthropology, biology and medicine, is published annually. Series of monthly lectures are held yearly. Present membership is 200 (Chinese and foreign) of whom about 20 are residents abroad.

*Officers:—Executive Committee for 1942-43:—*President, Hou Pao-chang; Vice-President, H. L. Richardson; Treasurer, R. C. Spooner; Editors: Series A, D. C. Graham; Series B, K. J. Richardson; Librarian, D. C. Graham (Mrs.); Member-at-Large, L. G. Kilborn; Secretary, Cheng Te-kun.

*Address:—*West China Union University Museum, Chengtu.

SERVICE AND FELLOWSHIP

American-Returned Youth League

Organized on November 23, 1941, by Chinese youths returned from America in recent years for promotion of fellowship and Sino-American goodwill. All members, numbering about 200, have attended universities in the United States. Monthly dinners are held to discuss problems concerning American-returned youths and Chinese students in the U.S.; and information is supplied to students who intend to go.

*Officers:—Executive Committee:—*Chao Wang (Chairman), Lin Tung, Wang Kwan, Chang Hsu, Shen Chang-huan.

*Address:—*c/o Chao Wang, P. O. Box 349, Chungking.

Association of French-Belgium Swiss-Returned Students (Association des Etudiants Chinois Retour de F. B. S.)

Founded in Chungking on February 1, 1938, the association has now 1,200 members, with branches in Kunming, Chengtu, Kweiyang, Sian, and in the provinces of Kiangsi, Hunan and Kwangsi.

*Officers:—*Director, Mao Ching-hsiang; Chief Secretary, S. C. Liao; Secretary-General, M. F. Chow.

*Address:—*30 Ling Kiang Rd., Chungking.

British-Returned Students' Association

Founded in November, 1939. Major activities include monthly lectures and social gatherings. Membership: 216.

*Officers:—*Wang Shih-chieh, Han Li-wu, Lo Mien, Chen Tsang-po, Hwang Shao-ku.

*Address:—*189 Chung San Rd., Chungking.

Chungking International Women's Club

Founded in 1938 with a three-fold purpose—to encourage better fellowship among the women of Chungking, to cooperate in community or national service, and to increase intellectual interests. Among its major activities are lectures, group discussions, social meetings, weekly sales of home cooked foods, annual charity bazaars and jumble sales, besides grouping the members for practical work into such sections as handicraft, cooking, dramatics, first-aid and nursing, music, languages, international relations, etc. Membership is approximately 100. The *Club Handbook* is published annually and the *C. I. W. C. News-Sheet* (in English) monthly.

*Officers:—*Honorary President, Mrs. H. R. Wei; President, Mrs. James L. Stewart; Vice-President, Mrs. David Kiang; Secretary, Mrs. Gao Shih-yu; Treasurer, Mrs. Henry Lin; Chairman of Membership Committee, Mrs. Liu Chi-wen; Chairman of Social Committee, Mrs. William Wu; South Bank Representative, Mrs. Peter Kiang.

*Address:—*c/o Mrs. J. L. Stewart, American Information Service, Chiu Ching Middle School, Chungking.

Freemasonry

Masonic activity in China first took root in "treaty ports" a century ago. Among the principal constitutions working in China are the English, Scottish, Massachusetts and Philippine Constitutions. Until the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war, or rather until Pearl Harbor, Freemasonry flourished in China and Lodges were found in practically all big cities. Chinese were initiated into Freemasonry probably after the founding of the Republic. The International Lodge at Peiping, operating under the Massachusetts Grand Lodge, was the first to accept Chinese members, among them Dr. Wang Chung-hui and Dr. C. T. Wang.

Before July 7, 1937, the Philippine Grand Lodge operated six Lodges in China—Amity No. 106 (Shanghai), Sun No. 114 (Shanghai), Nanking No. 108 (Nanking), Pearl River No. 109 (Canton), Szechwan No. 112 (Chengtu), and West Lake No. 114 (Hangchow). Membership in these Lodges is international, several hundred being Chinese.

Freemasonry's three principal tenets—Relief, Brotherly Love, and Truth.

With the outbreak of the Pacific War, all Masonic activities in Japanese-occupied territory had to be suspended, and now Szechwan Lodge No. 112 (Chengtu) is the only legally-constituted lodge in China functioning as usual. In Chungking, where more than 50 Masons are making their temporary homes, a "Fortitude Lodge" has been proposed and formed and application made for a dispensation so as to permit it to work regularly and constitutionally. Under Special Communication from the District Grand Lodge for China under the Philippine Constitution, "Fortitude Lodge" has been meeting monthly.

Elective officers of "Fortitude Lodge"—Worshipful Master, George A. Fitch; Senior Warden, David Kiang; Junior Warden, Peter Kiang; Treasurer, Lott Wei; Secretary, T. C. Tang.

Address:—c/o Canadian Mission Business Agency, Shensi Rd., Chungking.

International Association of Y's Men's Clubs

With a history of more than 10 years in China, the association has been active in helping spread the International Y's Men's Movement of Fellowship, Service and Culture in accordance with its motto "To acknowledge the duty that accompanies every right." Before the war there were 16 clubs in China, with a total membership of 400. There are about 100 members in Free China. All the clubs in China are chartered chapters of the Y's Men's International, with general headquarters in Chicago.

A Chungking chapter, the Y's Men's Club of the Wartime Capital, was organized in the spring of 1939. It has around 30 members Chinese, Americans Canadians.

Officers:—Chinese Regional Director's Office:—J. L. Huang, International Director for the China Region; Y. Lewis Mason, Chinese Regional Director (Shanghai); William Yinson Lee, Director-Emeritus (Shanghai); T-wu Chang, District Governor for North China (Tientsin); Anson T. Wong, District Governor for Central China (Shanghai); Tseung Fat-im, District Governor for South China (Hongkong); Herman Fan, District Governor for West China (Kunming); Francis C. T. Wang, Editor of *Y's Men of the East Review*.

Y's Men's Club of the Wartime Capital:—President, Thomas M. H. Chao; Secretary, T. C. Tang; Treasurer, Peter Kiang.

Address:—Chungking—c/o T. C. Tang, Central News Agency, Chungking.

Chapter Distribution:—Free China: Chungking, Chengtu, Kunming, Kanchow (Kiangsi), Sian, Foochow, Kweiyang, Kukong.

Occupied area: Peiping, Tientsin Tsingtao, Tsinan, Shanghai, Shanghai International, Soochow, Wuhu, Hankow, Canton, Amoy and Hongkong.

International Student Service Fund Committee in China

Organized shortly after the outbreak of the war in 1937 to administer student relief funds contributed by the International Student Service in Geneva, and formally instituted in Hankow in 1938. Activities are confined to the maintenance of the student center at Shapingpa, Chungking, and to granting of subsidies to various universities for student welfare.

Officers:—Chairman; Chang Po-ling, Joint Secretaries; Mei Yi-chi and Han Li-wu.

Address:—189 Chung San Rd., Chungking.

Japanese-Returned Students Association

Organized in Nanking in 1932 under the leadership of Tai Chi-tao. More than 10,000 members in Free China and occupied areas. The association is now being reorganized, with Wang Peng-sheng as chairman of the reorganization committee.

Address:—Yeu Chuang, Tseng Kai Yen, Chungking.

National Committee, Y.M.C.A.

Founded in 1901 as a coordinating organ of the Young Men's Christian Associations in China for the promotion of the four-fold program—physical, educational, spiritual and social—of the "Y" Movement. At present there are in China 20 city associations (excluding those in occupied areas which have temporarily suspended their activities) and 80 student associations in educational institutions. Wartime services include: (1) Emergency service to soldiers, 38 units, (2) Student relief, 26 centers

(3) Civilian relief and (4) Promotion of international understanding and goodwill.

The Association Press of China, a subsidiary organ of the committee, has during the past several years produced book and pamphlets, both originals and translations, on religious, social, economic and political subjects.

Officers:—Chairman of Board of Directors, Chang Po-ling; Secretary-General, S. C. Leung.

Address:—38 Chung Hsueh Kai, Tantzeshih, South Bank, Chungking.

National Committee of the Y.W.C.A.

Organized in 1899, nine years following the organization of the first Y.W.C.A. in China (in the Southern Presbyterian Girl's School in Hangchow, 1890), to coordinate and assist in the work of the Young Women's Christian Associations in China. The committee, moved to Chengtu in the spring of 1941 from the former headquarters in Shanghai. Under the Committee are 21 city associations in Amoy (suspended), Canton (in Kukong and Macao), Changsha, Chefoo, Chengtu, Chungking, Foochow (suspended), Hangchow (suspended), Hankow (suspended), Hongkong, Kweiyang, Kunming, Mukden (directly affiliated with World Y.W.C.A.), Nanking (suspended), Peiping, Shanghai, Sian, Taiyuan (suspended), Tientsin, Tsinan, and Wuchang (suspended), and six rural associations—Fushan, Shantung, Toishan, Kwangtung (suspended), Tachang, Kiangsu (suspended), Shunhuachen, Kiangsu (suspended), Wusu, Hunan and Lungfengchang, Penghsien, Szechwan. There are also 53 registered girls' clubs and student associations in 80 schools. Since the outbreak of the war, the committee and its associations have engaged in various forms of war relief work.

Officers:—*Executive Committee,*
Chengtu—Chairman, Chen Wang Ming-yi (Mrs.); Vice-Chairmen, Yoh Pao-chi (Mrs.), Canning Yang (Mrs.); Chinese Secretary, Chen Wen-hsien (Miss); English Secretary, May Streeter (Miss); Treasurers, Chen Chu-chuen (Miss), B. A. Slocum (Mrs.); Members, Wu Yi-fang (Miss), Chang Hsiang-lan (Miss), Yu Liu Lan-hua (Mrs.), Liu Yu-lien (Mrs.), Cheng Chiu Deh-young (Mrs.), Chow Li-chiu (Miss), Mei Yi-pao (Mrs.);
National Committee—General Secretary, Tsai Kwei (Miss); Secretarial Staff, Deng Yu-dji (Miss), Winifred Galbraith

(Miss), Gao Reng-ying (Miss), Lily H. Haass (Miss), Kao Yu-hsing (Miss), Liu Yu-hsia (Miss), J. E. Moncrieff (Mrs.), Pearl Pollock (Miss), Maird Russell (Miss), Shen Pei-lan (Miss), Shih Pao-chen (Miss), Yu Chih-ying (Miss), Edith Lerrigo (Miss), Penelope Piercy (Miss).

Address:—87 San Sheng Chieh, Chengtu.

Rotary International

The objects of Rotary are to encourage and foster the ideal of service as a basis of worthy enterprise and, in particular, to encourage and foster: (1) the development of acquaintance as an opportunity for service; (2) high ethical standards in business and professions; the recognition of the worthiness of all useful occupations; and the dignifying by each Rotarian of his occupation as an opportunity to serve society; (3) the application of the ideal of service by every Rotarian to his personal, business and community life; and (4) the advancement of international understanding, good-will, and peace through a world fellowship of business and professional men united in the ideal of service. The first Rotary Club in China was founded in Shanghai in the latter half of 1919. It grew rapidly until it attained a membership of about 130 at the outbreak of the Pacific War. The Shanghai Rotary Club maintained a Christmas-toy factory which distributed its products to orphanages and schools for the poor, a creche for Russian babies, a workshop for the Institution for the Chinese Blind, assistance to the Ricksha Mission and other services.

At present only five clubs are functioning in China. They are located in Chungking, Chengtu, Kunming, Changsha and Sian. Clubs in Amoy, Antung, Canton, Foochow, Hangchow, Hankow, Harbin, Mukden, Nanking, Ningpo, Peiping, Soochow, Swatow, Tientsin, Tsinan, Tsingtao, Wusih, Wuchow and Wuhu had to suspend their activities after Japanese occupation.

The Chungking Rotary Club, holding charter number 4471, was organized in June, 1937. Its present membership is 32.

Officers:—*Chungking Rotary Club*—President, George A. Fitch; Vice-President, David Kiang; Treasurer, K. Z. Yang; Directors, G. Findlay Andrew, Peter Kiang, C. B. Rappe; Sergeant-at-

Arms, Peter Kiang; Secretary, E. Lichtenstein.

Address:—c/o 6 Dai Chia Hsiang, Chungking.

Society of Northeastern Youths

Founded in May, 1940, as a federation of youths who are natives of the Northeastern provinces. There are 12 branches in various provinces.

Officers:—Executive Directors, Li Yin-chün, Lin Peng, Chao Shih-chi, Chang Hung-fu, Chow Mu-wen, Chang Shen-fu, Wang Tsung-hsi.

Address:—17 Jan Chia Hsiang, Chungking.

Soviet-Returned Students' Association

Founded in 1939. Membership: 110 individual members and two group members.

Officers and Address:—Unknown.

World Student Association China Branch

With all the universities and colleges in China as group members, represented by presidents of these institutions, the China Branch of this world-wide organization was founded in February, 1939. Through its regular correspondence with and contributions to the *Students of the World*, publication of the main association in the U.S., and other channels, close coordination is maintained with student associations and youth organizations throughout the world. Outstanding work includes the books-for-Chinese-university-libraries movement and the publication of Chinese and English editions of *Students in Wartime*.

Officers:—Chairman of Board of Directors, Chang Po-ling; Vice-Chairman, Wu Yi-fang (Miss); Secretary, Paul R. Sung; Treasurer, Chen Shih.

Address:—c/o Y. M. C. A., Chungking.

WAR SERVICE

Association of Honored Soldier's Vocational Guidance

Founded in Chungking in 1940 to assist and guide honored (disabled) soldiers in vocations. Membership: 158.

Officers:—President, Ho Ying-chin; Vice-Presidents, Ku Cheng-kang, Hsu Shih-ying.

Address:—46 Tseng Chia Yen, Chungking.

Catholic Women's Wartime Service League

Officers and Address:—Unknown.

China Association for the Promotion of Wartime Production

Founded in Hankow in March, 1938, to study problems of economic reconstruction in China and to accept investments for increased wartime production. Among its activities are publication of bulletins and booklets, exhibitions, research in economic problems, investigations, and assistance to members in productive enterprises. Membership: 2,186 individual members and 125 group members. Eight branch associations.

Officers:—Directors, Mao Ching-hsiang, Yu Fei-peng, Chow Chih-jou, Chen Liang, Huang Yung, Hsu Hung-tao, Wei I-fu, Pan Yi-chih, Wang Yu-san.

Address:—8 Lai Lung Hsiang, Chungking.

China Wartime Child Relief Association, The

Founded in Hankow in 1938 by a group of government and social leaders to administer child relief in wartime. The purpose of this charity organization is to aid and educate destitute refugee children during war so that they may be independent when grown up.

Officers:—Director, Hsu Shih-ying; Deputy Directors, Ma Chao-chun and Ku Cheng-kang; Acting Secretary-General, Chou Chu-yuan; Chairman of Fund-Raising Committee, Chu Ching-lan; Chairman of Finance Committee, Ho Heng-fu.

Address:—12 Taitienpa, Shantung, Chungking.

Chinese Islamic National Salvation Federation

Founded in Hankow in 1938 to render war services. There are 441 branches in China and one abroad.

Officers:—President, Pai Chung-hsi; Vice-Presidents, Tang Ko-san, Ma Ling; Secretary-General, Ma Cheh.

Address:—62 Chang's Garden, Chungking.

Chinese National Women's Association for War Relief, The

Organized in Nanking on August 1, 1937, three weeks after the outbreak of the war with Japan to mobilize women at home and abroad for participation in wartime services and collection

of funds for war relief. Major activities are: troop-comforting, service to wounded soldiers, making clothes and comfort bags for soldiers, establishment of factories for relief of families and dependants of soldiers, founding of the honored soldiers self-governing experimental district for rehabilitation of disabled warriors, organization of mutual-aid societies of servicemen's dependants, medical units and other service corps. Relief work is also administered to war refugees and warphans. Branch offices in Honan, Kwangtung, Hunan, Fukien, Shensi, Yunnan, Kwangsi, Chungking, Chengtu, Kweiyang, Peipei and Paisha.

Officers:—President, Mayling Soong Chiang (Madame Chiang Kai-shek); Secretary-General, Huang Tsui-fung (Miss).

Address:—Chiu Chin Middle School, Chungking.

National Christian Service Council for Wounded Soldiers

Organized to render various services to wounded soldiers. Membership: 20 group members. Seventeen branches.

Officers:—President, H. H. Kung; Vice-Presidents, J. L. Huang, Chung Koto.

National Refugee Children Association

Founded in Hankow in 1938 to administer relief to refugee children. The association maintains 37 orphanages besides twelve branches in China.

Officers:—Directors, Mayling Soong Chiang (Madame Chiang Kai-shek), Li Teh-chuan (Mme. Feng Yu-hsiang), Shen Chun-ju, Chen Min-shu, Hu Tun-wu, Chen Chi-yi (Miss); Secretary-General, Hu Tun-wu.

Address:—Chiu Ching Middle School, Chungking.

Research Society of Wartime Social Problems

The Wartime Association of Labor

Founded in January, 1939 for the promotion of culture among laborers and guidance of their livelihood in wartime. With a main office in Chungking, branches have been established in Sian, Lanchow, Hengyang, Kweiyang, Chungking and Hsiakwan. *The Wartime Laborer* is published monthly.

Officers:—Chairman, Chi Yuan-pu; Secretary, Tai Chuen-tao.

Address:—82 Shangchingssu Street, Chungking.

CHARITY

Chinese Association for the Mute and Deaf

Founded in Shanghai in 1937 to promote welfare and education for the mute and deaf. The head office is in Shanghai; four branches in other parts of China.

Officers:—Directors, Ho Yu-lin (Chairman), Sung Tsu-hui (Executive Secretary).

Address:—c/o Li Wen-ping, Yih Shih Pao, Chungking.

International Relief Committee of China

Formerly the International Red Cross Committee of Central China founded in Hankow on September 9, 1937. Adopted the present name after reorganization in September, 1941. The main purpose of this charity organization is to administer relief to those suffering from the war in China. Aid is given to plans for rehabilitation and reconstruction in both wartime and post-war days. The committee undertakes to solicit and collect donations in medical supplies and equipment from both abroad and at home for distribution among hospitals, refugee camps, warphanages and other charity organizations. At present more than 200 medical and health organizations are receiving such aid and financial subsidies. The committee also engages in the transportation of medical supplies and equipment to various areas in China and assists in anti-epidemic work.

With main office in Chungking, branches are maintained in Foochow, Yuanling, Changsha, Kunming and Sian and representatives of the Committee stationed in Kukong, Kanhsien, Hengyang, Chengtu, Kutsing and Philadelphia (U.S.A.).

Officers:—Executive Director, Arnold B. Vaught; Deputy Directors, James K. Shen, Chang Ping-chun, Yu Hsing-ching, Dwight W. Edwards, A. Stewart Allen, Phillips F. Greene; Treasurers, Glenn V. Fuller, Wilym Jenkins; Resident Members of Executive Committee, Chang Yuan-shan, Mark A. Tennien, Gordon Jones, Mei Yi-lin; Secretary-General, T. S. Outerbridge; Chief of Medical Division, Marian E. Manly; Chief of Transportation Division, R. E. Lawrey.

Address:—84 Matikai, Nanchimen, Chungking.

SOCIAL WELFARE

Association for Wartime Adjustment of Social Affairs Personnel

Organized on November 21, 1939 to help place proper talent in proper employment and to promote the "right jobs for right persons" movement. Besides offering training and employment recommendation services, the association has assisted in the moving-in of technical personnel from occupied areas. A factory is maintained to give constructive relief. Present membership: 39 groups and 251 individuals. Head-office is in Chungking, with branches in Kweiyang and Hengyang, and stations in Kukong, Waichow, Chinchengkiang, Kunming, Loyang and Kienyang.

Officers:—Executive Directors, Hsu Shih-ying, Chen Li-fu, Chen Cheng, Li Chi-sheng, Kiang Heng-yuan, Ma Chao-chun, Ku Cheng-kang, Huang Po-tu, Chen Yu, Tai Ching-chen, Li Yi-chung; Secretary-General, Ching Sheng-en.

Address:—7 Chiutaomen, Li Sen Rd., Chungking.

China Association of Social Service

Founded in December, 1941. Membership: 148.

Officers:—President, Hsu Shih-ying; Vice-President, J. L. Huang.

Chinese Women's Christian Temperance Union

Founded in February, 1932 to cultivate thrift, to eliminate improper habits, and to render social service.

Officers:—President, Mme. Feng Yuh-siang; Vice-President, Mrs. Hollington K. Tong; Chinese Secretary, Mrs. Liu Chi-wen; English Secretary, Mrs. William Wu; Treasurer, Mrs. Tao Kwei-lin; Office Director, Mrs. Herman C. Liu.

Address:—17 Chialing Village, Chungking.

Chinese Women's Mutual Aid Association

Address:—1 Tsang Pa Tze, Chungking.

Chinese Women's Vocational Association

Founded in Kunming in 1939.

Officers and Address:—Unknown.

National Child Welfare Association of China

The oldest organization of its kind in China. It cares for orphans and during wartime engages in relief of refugee children.

Officers:—H. H. Kung, Chen Tieh-sheng.

Address:—Lochiapa, South Bank, Chungking.

ARTS

China National Association of Fine Arts

Founded in Nanking in 1937. Activities include publication and exhibitions. Membership: 368.

Officers:—Directors, Chang Tao-fan, Chen Hsiao-nan, Lu Ssu-pai, Wu Tso-jen, Waung Jih-chang, Ju Peon, Chen Chih-fou, Chang Shu-chi, Lin Feng-mien.

Address:—c/o Chang Tao-fan, Ministry of Information, Chungking.

China Sinology Society

Founded in Shanghai on December 8, 1927 to promote studies in Chinese classics and to popularize Chinese literature. Present membership: 673 (not including branch societies). Publications, the *Outline of Sinology Movement* and *Chung Hua Pien*, a textbook for mass education.

Officers:—Honorary Presidents, Yu Yu-jen, Chu Cheng, Wu Chih-hui, Chang Chi; President, Ku Shih; Secretary-General, Wang Mu-tsun; Acting Secretary-General, Chang Shou-hsien.

Address:—c/o Fuhtan University, Peipei, Szechwan.

China Wood-Cut Society

Founded in Chungking in 1942. Membership: 138.

Officers:—Executive Directors, Ting Cheng-yeu, Wang Chi, Shao Heng-chiu, Liu Tieh-hua, Lo Sung-ching.

Address:—7 Tien Kwan Fu, Chungking.

China Society of Music

Founded on April 6, 1942.

Officers:—Executive Directors: Ku Yu-hsiu, Liu Chi-hung, Yang Chung-tze, Wu Pao-chao; Board of Supervisors: Chen Li-fu, Chang Tao-fan, Chen Li-Kiang.

Address:—c/o Liu Chi-hung, Ministry of Education, Chungking.

Society of Chinese Arts History

Founded in 1937 to study history of Chinese fine arts. Membership: 40.

Officers and Address:—Unknown.

PHYSICAL CULTURE**China National Amateur Athletic Federation**

Founded on May 24, 1924, as a co-ordinating body of all amateur athletic organizations and groups throughout China. The federation takes charge of management of and participation in international athletic meetings and games. Since 1925, the federation has conducted one Far Eastern Olympics once (being the 8th Far Eastern Olympics held in Shanghai in 1927); and has taken charge of China's participation in the Far Eastern Olympics four times (7th to 10th inclusive), in the World Olympics Games twice (10th and 11th) and in the Davis Cup Tennis Tournament three times. Sports regulations of divers games have been formulated and published in Chinese since 1927.

The *Physical Education Quarterly* has been published since 1935. Twenty-nine member units (provinces, municipalities and overseas) are represented in the federation; but at present only 14 units maintain regular contact with the federation owing to the war.

Branches still in contact with the federation are located in Chungking, Kunming, Lanchow, Kweiyang, Sian, Taiho, Liuchow, Paoki, Hanchung, Sichang, Tsunyi, Mienyang and Santai. (Branches in Hongkong, Malaya, Java and Singapore have been temporarily suspended.)

Officers:—Honorary Directors, Tai Chi-tao, Chen Li-fu, Ku Cheng-kang; President, Chang Po-ling; Executive Directors, William Z. L. Sung, Wu Yun-chu, Gunsun Hoh, Chang Chi-wu; Directors, Chang Po-ling, C. T. Wang, Gunsun Hoh, Wu Yun-chu, John Ma, William Z. L. Sung, Yuan Li-tun, Kao Tze, Chu Chia-hua, Wu Te-chen, Tung Shou-i, Wang Cho-jan, Chang Chi-wu, Sung Chuen-fu, Shang Shu-mei; Executive Supervisor, Shang Chen; Secretary-General, William Z. L. Sung; Acting Secretary-General, Tung Shou-i.

Address:—Liang Fu Rd., Chungking.

Chinese Boxing Society

Founded in Chungking in December, 1941. Membership: 275.

Officers:—President, Ho Yun-chiao; Vice-Presidents, Hung Lan-yu, Peng Hsueh-pei, Li Tsung-huang, Chang Chiang, Chen Pan-ling.

Address:—c/o Wu Meng-hsia, Department of Ordnance, Chungking.

National Association of Chinese Boxing and Physical Culture

Organized with the aim of promoting national health through the medium of Chinese boxing and physical culture. Training classes are conducted from time to time. The *Chinese Boxing and Physical Culture* magazine is published. Membership: 132. Six branch associations.

Officers:—President, Chang Chih-kiang; Vice-Presidents, Niu Yung-chien, Li Tsung-huang; Directors, Chu Cheng, Tai Chi-tao, Sun Fo, Yu Yu-jen, Chen Li-fu, Ho Ying-chin, Gunsun Hoh, Cheng Teng-ke, Wu Yung-jui.

Address:—c/o Central Physical Culture Academy, Peipei, Szechwan.

Physical Cultural Society of China

Officers:—Executive Directors, Gunsun Hoh, Yuan Tun-li, Cheng Teng-ke.

Address:—c/o National Central University, Shapingpa, Chungking.

RELIGION**Chinese Buddhist Association**

Founded in 1928, the association has organized a Monks' Wartime Service Corps in Chungking and a Chinese Buddhist Corps for International Publicity.

Officer:—Abbot Tai Hsu.

Address:—Ching Yun Shan, Peipei, Szechwan.

Chinese Buddhist Society

Founded in Nanking in 1929 with Abbot Tai Hsu (*Supreme Void*) as the chief promoter to study and popularize Buddhist philosophy and culture. Up to the time of its removal to Chungking, the society had a membership of more than 9,000 persons. The *Hai Chao In* (Tidal Sound), first published in 1920, is still in circulation.

Officers:—Chairman, Abbot Tai Hsu; Vice-Chairman, Hsieh Chien and Mei Kuang-hsi.

Address:—c/o Chang An Temple, Chungking.

Chinese Catholic Cultural Association

Founded on December 24, 1941, for the promotion of Catholic culture in China. Major activities include introducing European and American Catholic culture by means of writings, translations and fine arts, collecting and editing Chinese Catholic documents, promoting religious culture in collaboration with other Catholic cultural organizations, and assisting various universities to institute lectureships on scholasticism. Present membership: 400. Branch associations are being organized in Sian and Lanchow.

The *Christian Life* is published fortnightly and the *Religion and Culture* weekly, both in Chinese.

Officers :—President, Paul Yu-pin (Bishop); Executive Directors, John I-wei Niu (Rev. Father), Mathias S. C. Kang (Rev. Father), Matthew M. S. Yang (Rev. Father), John B. S. C. Kao (Rev. Father), Yuan Cheng-pin, Stephen C. Y. Pan.

Address :—138 Chung Hua Rd., Chungking.

Federation of Chinese Christians

Founded on March 6, 1938, in Hankow to coordinate Christians in war services.

Officers :—Directors, Feng Yu-hsiang, Chung Ko-to, Shen Wen-ching, Chang Po-ling, Shen Tse-kao, Tan Wo-hsin, Chang Lin-kao, Wu Yi-fang (Miss), Chang Chih-hsin, T. V. Soong.

General Assembly of the Church of Christ in China

Founded in 1926.

Address :—72 Fang Cheng East Street, Chengtu.

MISCELLANEOUS

Association for the Promotion of Food Policy

Founded in Chungking in 1942 to assist the Government in carrying out its food policy. Membership: 167.

Officers :—Executive Directors, Liu Yun-chou, Kwan Chi-yu, Liu Kung-yun, Yang Jui-ling, Chang Chih-hsin.

Address :—Fenghuangtai Street, Chungking.

Border Administration Society of China

Founded in Chungking in 1941 for the study of problems in border political

administration and culture and for the realization of border reconstruction. Membership: 107.

Officers :—President, Wu Chung-hsin; Directors, Chow Kun-tien, Chen Chih-mai, Wu Wen-tsao, Wang Hua-cheng, Hsu Feng-wu, Chu Ming-shan, Tseng Shao-lu, Hsiung Yao-wen.

Address :—c/o Chow Kun-tien, Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission, Chungking.

China Branch of the International Peace Campaign and Free World Association

First started in 1936 and then reorganized and expanded on January 23, 1938. After the organization of the Free World Association in Washington in the summer of 1941, this organization also became the China Branch of the F.W.A., hence the present name in English is shortened to I.P.C. & F.W.A. Promotion of the international peace movement and anti-aggression is the main object of the association while post-war world peace problems are also studied. Lectures, meetings, forums, exhibitions and other gatherings are frequently held.

Total membership is 45,956,764, including 173 group members (45,938,028 persons in these units) and 18,763 individual members.

The nine sub-branches in China are: Kukong Kweilin, Kunming, Kweiyang, Lanchow, Sian, Enshih, Taiho, and Liaoning-Kirin-Heilungkiang-Jehol and Chungking.

In addition, there are 13 district offices, ten of which are in Szechwan (Tienkiang, Fowling, Chunghsien, Choyang, Changshou, Kiangtsin, Fengtu, Pishan and Luchow), one in Kansu (Changyeh), one in Sikang (Sichang) and one in Hunan (Yungui).

Among its publications are four books of the *Anti-Aggression Series*, one book of the *International Reconstruction Series* (*A New World Order and San Min Chu I* by Liang Han-chao, in Chinese), booklets, and the periodicals the *Anti-Aggression Weekly*, the *Anti-Aggression Fortnightly*, the *Anti-Aggression Forum*, and the *Free World* monthly.

Officers :—President, T. V. Soong; Vice-President, Shao Li-tze; Director of Executive Department, Cheng Yen-fen; Acting Director of Executive Department, Yin Pao-yu.

Address :—42 Tsao Tze Lan Ya, Chungking, or P. O. Box 123, Chungking.

China Chu Huen Society

Founded in 1933 with the purpose of promoting the reading habit and a martial spirit. The *Ta Hsia Huen* weekly and monthly and other reading matters are published. Membership: 10,000.

Officer :—President, An Jo-ting.

Address :—c/o Lo Chun-tai, 205 Tou Tang, North Bank, Chungking.

China Communications Federation

Officers :—Unknown.

Address :—20 Fu Hsing Rd., Tangchiato, Chungking.

Chinese Cooperative Association

Founded in December, 1928. The *Cooperative Monthly* and the *China Cooperatives Bulletin* are published. Membership: 620 individual members, two group members.

Officers :—Executive Committee, Chen Kuo-fu, Wang Shih-yin, Chen Chung-ming, Miachen Shaw, Hou Hou-pei, Tang Chi-yu, Chang Li-fu, Wang Chih-hsien, Chang Yuan-shan.

Address :—c/o Central Political Institute, South Hot Springs, Chungking.

Chinese Association of Labor

Founded in April, 1935 for the purpose of studying labor theories and promoting labor culture and laborer's welfare. Close coordination is maintained with international labor organizations. Among the various activities of the association are lectures and forums on labor problems. Membership: 52 group members (350,000 persons) and 225 individual members. The *Chinese Labor Monthly* is published in Chinese and the *Bulletin of the Chinese Association of Labor* is published in English monthly or every other month.

Officers :—President, Chu Hsuen-fan; Chief Secretary, Fan Tsai-tsung, Board of Executives: Chu Hsueh-fan, Tao Pai-chwan, Kan Hsiao-chen, Wu Weh-tien, Shui Hsiang-yun, Fan Tsai-tsung, Wang Chia-shu, Chi Yuan-po, Wang Chi-i, Chang Chien-pai and Chu Shih-kang.

Address :—Chiutaomen, Chungking.

Chinese Industrial and Commercial Federation

Founded in 1939 for the purpose of developing Chinese industries and commerce through mutual-aid and co-

operation. Activities include investigations, planning and publication. Membership: 177 individual members and 25 group members.

Officers :—Directors, Wen Shao-ho, Wu Cheng-lo, Lo Mei-huan, Kang Hsin-ju, Chow Mao-chih, Hu Tze-an, Wang Yen-sung, Chang Mao-ching, Chiang Chih-cheng, Lin Chi-yung, Ma Wei-san.

Address :—Chiutaomen, Chungking.

Cooperative League of China

Examination Administration Society of China

Founded in Nanking in 1934 to study technique and system of examination of government-service personnel. Membership: 630.

Officers :—Directors, Chu Lei-chang, Huang Wen-chi, Chow Pang-tao, Li Hsueh-teng, Yang Chuen-li, Shih Lien-fang, Chiang Tien-ching.

Address :—c/o Huang Wen-chi, Ministry of Education, Chungking.

China Society of Foreign Affairs

Founded in Chungking in April, 1942. Membership: 86.

Officers :—Directors, Li Wei-kuo, Li Tieh-cheng, Lin Tung-hai, Chen Yao-sheng, Tang Wu, Wu Shih-ying, Huang Cheng-ming; Supervisors, Lone Liang, Shao Yu-lin, Chang Chung-fu, Wang Peng-sheng, Han Li-wu.

Address :—c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Chungking.

Chinese League of Nations Union, The

An association for the promotion of people's foreign relations and international peace and justice, organized in April, 1920. Branches are established in all big cities and universities in China. Total membership: 5,400. The *World Politics Fortnightly* is published in Chinese. The *China Forum* (in English) is temporarily suspended.

Officers :—President, Chu Chia-hua; Vice-President, Wang Shih-chieh; Directors, Hu Shih, Fu Ssu-nien; Chief Secretary, Tai Ke-kwang.

Address :—187 Chung San Rd., Chungking.

Chung Hwa Police Research Society, The

Founded on April 16, 1940, to study matters relating to police theory and practice. Twelve branches have been established in Chungking, Chengtu, Sian, Lanchow, Lushan (Honan), Kweiyang, Kweilin, Kukong, Laiyang (Hunan), Enshih (Hupei), Kian (Kiangsi) and Lihuang (Anhwei). Membership: 2,611. The *Police Voice Monthly* is published in Chinese.

Officers :—Honorary Director-General, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek; Honorary Directors, General Ho Ying-chin, Chow Chung-yueh; Chief Adviser, Tai Chi-tao; members of Director Committee, General Hsueh Yueh, General Chen Yi; Advisers, Chen Ta-chi, T. F. Tsiang, Li Pei-chi, K. C. Wu, General Li Han-huen, General Ma Pu-fang, General Huang Hsu-chu, General Wang Tung-yuan; President, General Chen Cheng; Vice-President, Li Shih-cheng.

Address :—9 Fuhsing Street, Tantzeshih, South Bank, Chungking.

Chung Shan Society

Organized to promote fellowship and to propagate the revolutionary spirit for the realization of the *San Min Chu I*. There are 13 branch societies in China and two abroad. Membership: 382.

Officers :—Executive Directors, Liang Han-chao, Wang Shu-fang, Hsu En-tseng.
Address :—Chung Erh Rd., Chungking.

Chung Yuan Reclamation Association

Founded in Chungking in December, 1941, for development of reclamation enterprises.

Officers :—President, Chen Tsun-feng; Vice-President, Chung Ching-tang.

Address :—No. 12, Lien Huan Street, Taomenkou, Chungking.

Foreign Affairs Research Institute, The

Founded in Hankow in September, 1938, to study Chinese wartime foreign affairs problems, and international trend as well as problems relating to international law and diplomatic history. Activities of the institute include publication, lectures and forums. The *Foreign Affairs* magazine is published in Chinese bi-monthly. Membership: 67 (mostly

university professors and research workers).

Officer :—Director, Chang Tao-hsing.

Address :—170 Pao An Rd., Chungking.

Kwangsi Reconstruction Research Society

Founded on October 9, 1937, for research in Kwangsi's political, economic, cultural and other reconstruction problems with emphasis on adaptation to wartime needs. In five years, the society's research work has covered 75 political, 71 economic and 66 cultural problems some of which were undertaken at the request of the government. Besides the two magazines—the *Reconstruction Research Monthly* and the *Current Events Analysis Monthly*—a collection of 12 books has been published.

Officers :—President, Li Tsung-jen; Vice-Presidents, Pai Chung-hsi, Huang Hsu-chu; Members of Executive Committee, Li Jen-jen, Chen Shao-kwang, Huang Tung-chou, Huang Chuen-ta; Chief of Political Division, Huang Hsu-chu; Chief of Economic Division, Kan Tsung-hua; Chief of Cultural Division, Su Hsi-hsuen.

Address :—Kwei Tung Rd., Kweilin.

Chinese Life Insurance Association

Founded in Chungking in November, 1941, to popularize life insurance theories and assist in life assurance work. Membership: 154.

Officer :—President, Lo Pei-cheng.

Address :—c/o Life Insurance Department, Central Trust of China, Chungking.

Municipal Reconstruction Association

Organized to study and promote municipal reconstruction.

Officers :—Directors, Chiu Ho-ching, Li Cheng-wu, Chiu Chih-chung, Yao Hua-sung, Wang Jih-chang, Wang Tsun-chieh, Chow Man-fan, Kiang Kang-li, Chang Yu-hsin.

Address :—145, Chung Erh Rd., Chungking.

Navigation Society of China

Organized for the promotion of navigation in China and research in practical problems relating to navigation. Publications include booklets and the *China Navigation Monthly*. Membership: 255.

Officers :—Executive Directors, Wei Wen-han, Wang Kuang, Shen Chung-yi, Wu Chi-chung, Yang Yu-lung.

Address :—5, Hsiao Ho Shun Cheng Street, Chungking.

Northwest Reconstruction Association

Founded in Nanking in 1932 for the development of the Northwest. Membership : 300.

Officers :—Executive Directors, Chen Li-fu, Shao Li-tze, Lei Pao-hua, Hung Lu-tung.

Address :—c/o Pi Nai-chien, Ministry of Social Affairs, Chungking.

People's Foreign Relations Association

Founded in Hankow in January, 1938. With an initial membership of little more than 100, in four and a half years the membership grew to more than 1,100 individuals and 37 group members. In addition there are 73 branch associations in China and abroad with a total membership of several hundred thousand. The association is organized mainly for the promotion of international good-will with eight divisions—organization, research, broadcasting, correspondence, compilation and translation, culture, international cultural service, and public relations.

Branches in China are located in the provinces of Chekiang, Yunnan, Kansu, Hunan, Shensi, Szechwan, Kweichow, Hupeh, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Ningsia and Kiangsi.

The association has published four books in Chinese and 11 pamphlets in English. The *Foreign Affairs Quarterly* (in Chinese) and the *Voice of China* (in English) are both published quarterly.

Officers :—Presidium members, Wu Te-chen (Executive Chairman), Chen Ming-shu, Chen Li-fu, Yeh Chu-tsang, Lu Chao; Secretary-General, Jen C. Hsieh; Chief Secretary, Liang Hua-yen; Chief of Research Division, Pan Chao-yung; Resident Director, Paul Sung.

Address :—7 Chiutaomen, Lin Sen Rd., Chungking.

Police Society of China

Besides studying police science and administration, the society assists the Government in conducting investigations and publishes the *Chinese Police* magazine

Membership : 2,379. There are 18 branch societies.

Officers :—Board of Directors, Tai Li (Chairman), Wang Ku-pan, Li Shih-cheng, Feng Yu-kun, Chao Lung-wen, Hsu Wei-ping, Li Ku-chuan.

Address :—236 Min Sen Rd., Chungking.

Reconstruction Society of China

Founded in Nanking on March 29, 1929, to promote development of spiritual and material reconstruction. Membership : 1,000.

Officers :—Directors, Chang Jen-chieh, Li Li-yin, Wu Chih-hui, Yeh Chu-tsang, Wei Tao-ming, Chen Li-fu, Tseng Yang-fu.

Address :—4th Floor, Ta Chwan Bank, 20 Lin Sen Rd., Chungking.

Spinning and Weaving Society of China

Officers :—Unknown.

Address :—c/o Yu Feng Cotton Mill, Chungking.

Southwestern Industrial Federation

Founded in 1939 for the development of resources in Szechwan, Kwangsi, Kweichow and Yunnan provinces through leaders and representatives of industrial, commercial, agricultural and mining circles. Activities include research, investigations and compilation of statistics on industries in Southwestern provinces, planning of industrial development, training of technical and administrative personnel, and publication of *Southwestern Industrial Bulletin* monthly. Three branches.

Officers :—Kang Hsin-ju, Ho Pei-heng.

Address :—Chiu Ching Middle School, Chung Ssu Rd., Chungking.

Steamship Pilots Association of China

Organized by steamship pilots for mutual-aid, fellowship, promotion and improvement of technique and service efficiency. Membership : 247.

Officers :—Chairman, Huang Yu-shih; Vice-Chairman, Chow Hai-ching.

Address :—18 Mawangmiao Street, Chaotienmen, Chungking.

Weights and Measures Society of China, The

Organized in July 14, 1940 to study applied science for the promotion of China's new weights and measures system. Under the auspices of the society, British and German weights and measures regulations have been translated into Chinese. Books compiled and published by the society include the *Outline of History of Weights and Measures* and other books and reports. The *Weights and Measures Companion* is published periodically. Membership : 456. Branch

societies are located in Taiho, Chengtu, Kweilin, and Lanchow, Shanghai, Hupeh, and Honan branches are temporarily suspended.

Officers :—President, Chenglott Wu ; Secretary-General, T. C. Liao ; Chairman of Board of Directors, Cheng Li-ming ; Secretary, Lou Chih-chung ; Corresponding Secretary, Fan Ti-yun ; Treasurer, Weng Chung-heng.

Address :—56 New Villa, Peipei, Szechwan.

CHAPTER XXIII

CHRONOLOGY OF MAJOR EVENTS

1937

July 7.—The Marco Polo Bridge Incident occurred when Japanese soldiers in night maneuvers in the vicinity of the vital railway bridge 20 miles west of Peiping launched an attack on the city of Wanping.

July 8.—Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs lodged a verbal protest with the Japanese Embassy in Nanking over the incident.

July 10.—Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs lodged a written protest with the Japanese Embassy in Nanking, holding the Japanese responsible for the incident.

July 16.—Ambassador Hsu Shih-ying, who had been on leave in China, left Shanghai for Japan to resume his duties in view of the tense situation.

July 17.—China sent a memorandum to the Powers interested in the Far East on Japan's latest provocation in North China. It was explained, however, that China was not formally invoking the Nine-Power Treaty.

Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek laid down four minimum conditions for the settlement of the Marco Polo Bridge Incident as embodied in a speech delivered at Kuling.

July 20.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek returned to Nanking from Kuling by airplane.

July 25.—In the name of the Imperial Japanese Army, an ultimatum was sent to General Sung Cheh-yuan, Chinese commander in the Hopei-Chahar area, demanding that the 37th Division, part of which guarded Wanping city, evacuate Peiping and its vicinity. General Sung ordered his 29th Army to resist the Japanese.

July 27.—Japanese troops attacked Peiping and besieged the city. General Sung rejected the Japanese "ultimatum" of the 25th.

July 28.—Chinese evacuated Peiping during the night. Evacuation completed on the morning of the 29th.

July 29.—Fighting broke out in Tientsin before dawn. Nankai University was destroyed. At Nanyuan, south of Peiping, General Chao Teng-yu, commander of the 132nd Division, and General Tung Ling-ke, deputy commander of the 29th Army, were killed in action.

July 31.—Chinese units evacuated Tientsin and its vicinity.

August 4.—General Pai Chung-hsi arrived at Nanking, pledging Kwangsi's support to the National Government in its firm stand toward Japan. Governors and leaders from Shansi, Shantung, Kwangtung, Hunan, Szechwan, Yunnan and other places also gathered in or were on way to Nanking to confer with the central authorities.

August 9.—The Hungjao airdrome incident occurred when two Japanese marines forced an entrance to the Chinese military airfield at Hungjao west of Shanghai and shot a Chinese guard. Both Japanese marines were killed by other Chinese guards who rushed to the scene.

August 13.—Fighting broke out at Chapei, Shanghai, between the Chinese and Japanese forces at about 9:30 a.m. The National Government announced in an official statement that the Yangtze River below Chinkiang had been mined and thereby closed to traffic.

August 14.—Chinese Air Force went into action on the Shanghai front. In the north, Japanese commenced their attack on the Nankow Pass.

August 24.—Chinese evacuated Nankow Pass.

August 26.—Japanese planes bombed and machine-gunned the car of British Ambassador Sir Hughe Knatchbull-Hugessen near Wushih. Sir Hughe was wounded in the back by machine-gun fire. The car flew British flag and had a Union Jack painted on its roof.

August 27.—Chinese evacuated Kalgan, capital of Chahar.

August 29.—Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced that a Treaty of Non-Aggression was concluded between China and the U.S.S.R.

August 30.—The National Government in a mandate ordered the drafting of all able-bodied male citizens for military service in accordance with the *Conscription Law*.

The National Government presented a statement to the League of Nations reviewing the situation from the Marco Polo Bridge Incident up to events shortly after the outbreak of the Shanghai hostilities on August 13.

September 1.—The National Government issued \$500,000,000 Liberty Loan.

September 3.—Fighting broke out between Chinese and Japanese forces at Amoy, Japanese landing attempts were foiled. The Min River had been blockaded by the Japanese.

September 5.—Effective from 6 p.m., the Chinese coast from Chingwangtao in the north to Pakhoi in the south, was proclaimed closed to Chinese shipping by the Japanese Second and Third Fleets. Excepted were Tsingtao and "waters belonging to leased territories of Third Powers."

September 10.—The "Chinese Red Army" reorganized into the 8th Route Army under the National Military Council to fight as part of the Chinese national army.

September 12.—Chinese troops readjusted their positions in Shanghai. The line extended from Chapei through Kiangwan to Liuhu.

September 15.—China, through her ambassador to France Dr. Wellington Koo, formally appealed to League Assembly against Japanese aggression under Article XVII of the League Covenant.

September 22.—The Chinese Communist Party issued a manifesto renouncing all Communistic programs and pledging support to the realization of Dr. Sun's Three People's Principles. The manifesto announced the abolition of the government of the so-called "Chinese Soviet Republic" and the "Red Army."

September 24.—Interviewed by foreign press correspondents, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek asserted that China could hold out indefinitely, citing the great resources of China's untapped strength. The Generalissimo also said that China was fighting not only for her own existence, but to uphold the principles of the Nine-Power Treaty, the Anti-War Pact, and the Covenant of the League of Nations.

September 28.—The Assembly of the League of Nations unanimously adopted a resolution condemning bombing of open Chinese cities by Japanese.

October 1.—Japan declared that she would reject any foreign mediation in her present dispute with China.

October 3.—General Li Fu-ying was court-martialled and executed for abandoning strategic points (Northern Shansi) and disobedience.

October 5.—The National Government in a mandate ordered the postponement of the convocation of the National People's Congress which was scheduled to be convened on November 12, 1937.

October 6.—The Assembly of the League of Nations adopted the Advisory Committee's resolution expressing moral support for China. Japan was adjudged guilty of invading China in violation of her treaty obligations.

The U. S. Department of State issued a statement, condemning Japan's invasion of China and upholding the principle of sanctity of treaties and deplored the use of force.

October 14.—Kweihua, capital of Suiyuan, was reported captured by the Japanese.

October 16.—The National Government received through Belgian Embassy in Nanking invitation to attend Nine-Power Conference in Brussels on October 30. China's formal acceptance was made by Foreign Minister Wang Chung-hui.

October 17.—Paotow, western terminus of the Peiping-Suiyuan Railway, fell.

October 27.—After checking Japanese troops for 76 days, Chinese forces defending Chapei and Kiangwan withdrew to new positions, extending from the south side of Soochow Creek for 30 kilometers to Liuhu. Entire Chapei in flames.

Japanese formally declined invitation to attend Nine-Power Conference to be held at Brussels.

October 28.—Chinese troops evacuated Chenju and withdrew to the south of Soochow Creek.

October 29.—Puppet Mongol state, called "Autonomous Government of Inner-Mongolia," established at Kweihua, Suiyuan capital.

October 31.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek ordered the "Lone Chinese Battalion," after holding out for four days covering the Chinese retreat, to

evacuate the Joint Savings Bank godown. The detachment entered the International Settlement where it was interned.

November 1.—Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs issued a long statement refuting allegations in the statement issued by Japanese Foreign Office on October 28, and declared that China was compelled to resist Japanese aggression.

November 3.—Nine-Power Conference opened in Brussels.

November 5.—Japanese landed near Chapoo on northern shore of Hangchow Bay.

Japan, Germany and Italy signed an Anti-Comintern Pact.

November 8.—Taiyuan, Shansi capital, fell.

Chinese forces in western Shanghai south of the Soochow Creek withdrew westward during the night to new positions. Chinese still held Nantao.

November 11.—Chinese evacuated entire Shanghai area.

November 20.—Japanese Government established Imperial Headquarters.

The National Government officially announced its removal from Nanking to Chungking and reiterated China's strong determination to resist Japanese aggression to the bitter end.

November 24.—With Italy voting in opposition, the Nine-Power Conference adopted its report and declaration, urging a suspension of hostilities and a resort to peaceful means to find a settlement, and then adjourned indefinitely.

November 30.—Panchan Lama, spiritual head of Tibet, died near Jye Kundo, western China.

December 7.—Japanese troops converged on Nanking from three directions. All Nanking city gates were closed as the siege of the Chinese capital began.

December 9.—Japanese began general offensive against Nanking and asked Chinese defenders to surrender. The demand was rejected.

December 12.—The U. S. S. "Panay," Yangtze River gunboat, was bombed and sunk by Japanese planes near Hohsien, Anhwei, 50 kilometers upriver from Nanking. The H.M.S. "Ladybird" and H.M.S. "Bee" were also shelled by Japanese artillery near Wuhu.

December 13.—Chinese evacuated Nanking. After their occupation of the Chinese capital, Japanese soldiers started a systematic murdering of Chinese civilians, raping of women, looting and burning of properties which lasted for about five months.

December 14.—New puppet regime established in Peiping, styled "Provisional Government of the Republic of China."

December 24.—Chinese evacuated Hangchow, capital of Chekiang.

December 27.—Chinese evacuated Tsinan, capital of Shantung.

December 31.—Chinese evacuated Tsingtao, important port in Shantung.

1938

January 1.—Government changes decided at Hankow with Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek devoting himself entirely to military affairs and Dr. H. H. Kung appointed President of Executive Yuan.

January 11.—General Han Fu-chu, governor of Shantung, arrested.

January 16.—Japan officially announced decision reached at Imperial Conference on January 11 that Japan would henceforth refuse to deal with the Chinese National Government.

January 18.—The National Government issued a statement, declaring that the object of China's armed resistance against Japan was to safeguard her national existence and maintain the sanctity of international treaties.

S. Kawagoe, Japanese Ambassador to China, was recalled by the Japanese Government. Chinese Ambassador Hsu Shih-ying decided to return to China on January 20.

January 20.—General Liu Hsiang, Szechwan military leader, died at Hankow.

January 24.—General Han Fu-chu executed by shooting at Hankow for disobedience and maladministration.

February 2.—The League Council recommended that members of the League individually extend aid to China.

February 18.—Major air battle fought over Hankow, Japanese lost 12 against China's loss of five planes.

February 20.—Hitler announced Germany's decision to recognize the puppet regime in the Northeastern Provinces.

February 23.—Chinese planes bombed Taihoku, capital of Formosa, and Shinchiau in western Formosa. First time any part of the Japanese Empire was bombed by Chinese planes.

General Iwane Matsui, former commander-in-chief of Japanese forces in central China, was recalled and succeeded by General Shunroku Hata.

March 13.—The National Government lodged further protest with Germany against Hitler's recognition of the puppet regime in the Northeastern Provinces.

March 14.—The National Government issued mandate and regulations, restricting foreign exchange operations; sales to be centralized through Central Bank of China; ruling to become effective immediately.

March 22.—New Japanese puppet regime called "Reformed Government of the Republic of China" established at Nanking.

March 29.—Emergency National Congress of Kuomintang opened in Hankow.

April 2.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek elected "Tsunghsai" of Kuomintang by the Emergency National Congress of Kuomintang which also adopted the *Program of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction*, the formation of the *San Min Chu I* Youth Corps, and the People's Political Council.

April 3.—General Li Tsung-jen reported the capture of Taiherchwang and Hanchwang after 12 days and nights of severe fighting.

April 7.—General Li Tsung-jen reported the successful conclusion of the Battle of Taiherchwang. Japanese casualties reached about 7,000.

April 8.—The Fourth Plenary Session of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang met at Hankow. Regulations governing the People's Political Council were adopted.

April 29.—Twenty-one invading Japanese planes were brought down by Chinese fighters and anti-aircraft guns at Hankow in a severe aerial engagement.

May 1.—Chinese Ministry of Finance issued National Defense Bonds of 1938 amounting to NC \$500,000,000 and Gold Bonds of 1938 amounting to C.G.U. 100,000,000, £10,000,000 and US \$50,000,000.

May 6.—The National Government lodged formal protest with Great Britain

through Chinese Embassy at London against Anglo-Japanese agreement on Chinese customs, declaring that China reserves full right and freedom of action in Customs matters, deploring that the Chinese customs should be made subject of agreement between two foreign nations without China's consent.

May 12.—Japanese occupied Amoy in Fukien.

Germany officially recognized the puppet regime in the Northeastern Provinces.

May 14.—The 101st Session of the League Council adopted a resolution urging League members to give serious and sympathetic consideration to requests they may receive from Chinese Government.

May 19.—Chinese evacuated Hsuehchow, railway junction in northern Kiangsu.

May 20.—Chinese bombers flew over western Japan Proper and dropped thousands of leaflets but no bombs.

May 21.—Hitler ordered German advisers serving with the Chinese Army to return to Germany.

May 31.—Fifteen Japanese planes were brought down in a severe air battle over Hankow.

June 6.—Japanese entered Kaifeng, capital of Honan, in the morning.

June 11.—Yellow River dykes were damaged below Chengchow as a result of hostilities.

June 13.—Chinese evacuated Anking, capital of Anhwei.

June 29.—Chinese evacuated Matang forts and boom area in central Yangtze sector.

July 3.—French Government officially announced the occupation of Paracel Islands, Chinese possessions south of Hainan Island.

July 5.—Twenty-six German military advisers headed by General Alexander von Falkenhausen, left Hankow for Hongkong en route to Germany.

July 6.—First Session of People's Political Council opened at Hankow.

July 7.—Dr. Wellington Koo, Chinese Ambassador to France, reminded French Foreign Minister Georges Bonnet of Chinese sovereignty over Paracel Islands.

July 13.—People's Political Council adopted the Government's *Program of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction* as adopted by the Emergency

National Congress of Kuomintang in April last.

July 15.—First Session of People's Political Council adjourned.

July 26.—Chinese evacuated Kiukiang, trading town on the Yangtze in Kiangsi.

August 20.—Chinese Ambassador Quo Tai-chi called attention of British Foreign Office to reports from Tokyo that Japan was proposing an arrangement to Britain, whereby Japan would agree to leave Yangtze Valley for British interests on condition that Britain agreed to give Japan free hand in North China. Quo emphasized that China could never accept an arrangement of such nature.

August 24.—Japanese pursuits shot down China National Aviation Corporation airliner "Kweilin" over Canton Delta. Fifteen of the 18 persons on board were killed.

August 30.—Japanese occupied Feng-lintu, southern terminus of Tatung-Puchow Railway in Shansi on the Yellow River Bend.

September 1.—Chinese reported victory west of Juichang in Kiangsi. Japanese lost 4,000.

September 11.—China officially invoked Article XVII of the League Covenant.

September 20.—League Council complied with China's request for application of Article XVII of League Covenant, and cabled Japan inviting her to accept the League's jurisdiction in her dispute with China.

September 25.—Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs instructed Chinese delegation at Geneva to demand application of Article XVI of League Covenant.

September 29.—Chinese evacuated Tienchiacheng Forts, gateway to the Wuhan cities on the Yangtze.

September 30.—League Council adopted report, urging member states to abstain from any action that would weaken China and to consider, individually, measures to aid China. Members may act according to stipulations of Article XVI of the Covenant.

October 10.—Chinese scored victory in vicinity of Tehan, northern Kiangsi, after four days of sanguinary fighting. Twenty thousand Japanese troops were routed and mostly wiped out in the battle.

October 12.—Japanese landed at Bias Bay in Kwangtung.

Sinyang, important city in southern Honan on the Peiping-Hankow Railway, fell.

October 21.—Japanese troops entered Canton, capital of Kwangtung.

October 25.—Chinese evacuated Hankow and Wuchang.

October 27.—Tokyo Privy Council confirmed Japanese Government's decision to sever all relations with the League of Nations.

October 28.—Second Session of People's Political Council opened at Chungking.

November 1.—Second Session of People's Political Council adopted resolution affirming its faith in Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek and supporting his message to the Council to fight to bitter end.

November 3.—Japanese Government officially notified League Secretariat of its decision to cease cooperation with the technical organizations of the League.

November 12.—Yochow, gateway to Hunan Province, fell. Huge fires broke out at Changsha, capital of Hunan.

December 8.—Japanese Foreign Minister Arita told British Ambassador Sir Robert Craigie that "the creation of a new order in East Asia is Japan's national aspiration," and it is necessary to remove the Nine-Power Treaty and other treaties with China.

December 15.—The Reconstruction Finance Corporation of the United States announced that the Export and Import Bank had authorized a credit of US \$25,000,000 to the Universal Trading Corporation for purchase of farm goods and manufactures for China. Credit to be paid back by Chinese export of tung oil to America.

December 18.—Wang Ching-wei left Chungking for Kunming by air.

December 21.—Wang Ching-wei reached Hanoi.

December 22.—Japanese premier Prince Konoye in a statement laid down three points as guiding principles for settlement of Sino-Japanese conflict and the "establishment of new order in East Asia."

December 26.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek in a speech at Chungking reiterated China's determination to carry on the war of resistance against Japan, said Konoye statement clearly revealed Japan's intention to conquer China.

December 29.—Wang Ching-wei in Hongkong issued statement urging peace based on Konoye's three-point statement.

1939

January 1.—Emergency joint session of the Kuomintang Central Executive and Supervisory Committees expelled Wang Ching-wei from the Party permanently and dismissed him from all posts.

Sikang provincial government formally established at Kangting with General Liu Wen-hui as governor.

January 4.—Japanese cabinet under Prince Konoye resigned. Baron K. Hiranuma appointed premier.

January 14.—New British note to Japan reiterated Great Britain's adherence to the principles of the Nine-Power Treaty.

January 20.—League Council adopted a resolution, requesting member-states to hold consultations for taking effective measures to assist China.

Fifth Plenary Session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee opened at Chungking.

Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek appointed president of the People's Political Council.

January 30.—Fifth Plenary Session of Kuomintang Central Executive Committee decided to create the Supreme National Defense Council under the chairmanship of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek.

February 10.—Japanese army and navy units invaded Hainan Island.

February 11.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek declared that "Japanese occupation of Hainan Island marks a turning point in the history of the Pacific. It would be the beginning of Japan's naval dominance in the Pacific Ocean."

February 12.—Third Session of People's Political Council opened at Chungking.

February 21.—Third Session of People's Political Council adopted many resolutions, the most important being one reaffirming China's determination to continue resistance.

March 8.—British Chancellor of the Exchequer, Sir John Simon, announced the grant of £10,000,000 credit to China for stabilizing Chinese currency; two British banks to subscribe £5,000,000 while two Chinese banks the remainder.

March 12.—Spiritual Mobilization Campaign inaugurated at Chungking under auspices of Supreme National Defense Council

March 28.—Japanese troops entered Nanchang, Kiangsi capital, the evening of the 27th. Chinese evacuated the city after severe street fighting.

March 31.—Japan occupied the Spratly Islands in South China Sea.

April 14.—The National Government announced flotation of Reconstruction Bonds to the value of \$600,000,000 for financing reconstruction projects.

April 27.—The term of the First People's Political Council was prolonged for another year according to an order issued by the National Government.

May 1.—National Spiritual Mobilization enforced beginning today.

May 3.—Chungking heavily bombed by Japanese planes.

May 4.—Chungking again bombed by Japanese planes. Downtown section partially wiped out. Heavy casualties reported. National Government allotted \$1,000,000 for emergency relief.

May 12.—Japanese navy landed on Kulangsu, the international settlement at Amoy in Fukien.

Chungking again heavily bombed. The three bombings on the 3rd, 4th, and 12th caused more than 10,000 casualties, according to the National Relief Commission.

May 16.—American, British and French blue jackets landed on Kulangsu.

May 27.—League Council urged member-states to continue to aid China individually and asked that the League be kept informed of Japanese bombings of civilian population in China.

May 30.—After four weeks of battle, Japanese drive against Hsiangyang and Fancheng, strategical towns on the Han River in northwestern Hupeh, collapsed.

June 8.—The National Government issued mandate, ordering the arrest and punishment of Wang Ching-wei who recently visited Tokyo intriguing with the Japanese for the creation of a new puppet organization.

June 14.—Japanese began blockade of British and French Concessions in Tientsin.

June 16.—New Sino-Soviet Commercial treaty signed in Moscow.

June 18.—Remains of Genghis Khan removed from southern Suiyuan to Kansu. Removal ordered by National Government following rumors that the Japanese had designs on his tomb.

June 21.—Japanese landed at Swatow, eastern Kwangtung port.

July 7.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, in a message to the foreign powers, declared that China would not abandon her resistance against Japan until Japan had completely abandoned her policy of aggression.

July 15.—Anglo-Japanese negotiations began in Tokyo on the Tientsin issue.

July 24.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek condemned the Anglo-Japanese accord on China reached at Tokyo, said agreement not valid without China's approval.

July 26.—The United States officially notified the Japanese Government of its decision to abrogate the American-Japanese Treaty of Commerce and Navigation.

August 12.—The National Government formally protested to the British Government against the decision to hand over four Chinese suspects in a murder case detained in the British Concession in Tientsin to the Japanese-controlled court there.

August 14.—Anglo-Japanese negotiations in Tokyo on the Tientsin problem discontinued.

August 23.—Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, Indian Congress leader, arrived at Chungking by air on a goodwill visit.

August 28.—Japanese cabinet under Baron Hiranuma resigned *en bloc*; failure of foreign policy attributed as cause of resignation; General Nobuyuk Abe ordered to form a new cabinet.

Wang Ching-wei called "Sixth Congress of the Kuomintang" in Shanghai and had himself elected "chairman" of his "orthodox party."

August 30.—Japanese cabinet under General Abe formed.

September 2.—Chinese Ministry of Finance announced a general reduction in the tariffs on imports into Free China.

September 5.—The four Chinese murder suspects held in the Tientsin British Concession were handed over to the puppet court.

September 8.—Joint Board of Four Government Banks established, with Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek as chair-

man to strengthen wartime financial structure.

September 9.—Fourth session of the People's Political Council opened in Chungking.

September 18.—Fourth Session of the People's Political Council closed. Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek declared that China would establish a constitutional form of government.

October 1.—General Toshizo Nishio became commander-in-chief of all Japanese Army Forces in China, with headquarters at Nanking.

October 5.—Chinese scored important victory outside Changsha, capital of Hunan, after two weeks of severe fighting; Japanese suffered 30,000 casualties.

October 10.—The National Government, in a manifesto issued on Chinese National Day, reaffirmed its exclusive right to rule the whole country and to negotiate with foreign powers. Any agreement concluded by rebels or puppet organizations with any foreign country at any time would be null and void.

October 18.—Japanese and American landing parties withdrew from Kulangsu International Settlement at Amoy.

November 12.—Sixth Plenary Session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee opened in Chungking.

November 20.—Sixth Plenary Session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee appointed Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek president of Executive Yuan.

November 24.—Nanning, former capital of Kwangsi fell to the Japanese. Enemy troops attacking Nanning, landed at Chinchow Bay on the 15th.

December 4.—General Wu Pei-fu, 67-year-old Chinese military leader, died at Peiping. Wu resisted all Japanese pressure to head a puppet "Central China Government."

December 14.—China reelected to the League Council by the Assembly of the League of Nations.

1940

January 1.—The National Government ordered the application of New Hsien (county) System throughout the country.

January 14.—Japanese Abe cabinet resigned. Admiral Yonai appointed premier and assumed office on January 16.

January 21.—Tao Hsi-sheng and Kao Tsung-wu revealed Wang Ching-wei's secret treaty signed in Shanghai on December 30 last with the Japanese.

January 23.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek denounced the "Japan-Wang secret treaty."

The National Government ratified the Sino-Soviet Trade Agreement signed in June, 1939.

February 11.—Chinese scored important victory in southern Kwangsi, recaptured Wuming on February 10, and Pingyang next day.

February 22.—The 14th incarnation of the Dalai Lama "enthroned" at Lhasa.

March 1.—Chinese Ministry of Finance issued the first instalment, amounting to \$600,000,000, of the 1940 Military Supplies Bond.

March 5.—Tsai Yuan-pei, president of Academia Sinica, died.

March 8.—United States Government announced another credit of US\$20,000,000 to China.

March 22.—Chinese recaptured Wuyuan in western Suiyuan.

March 30.—Wang Ching-wei's puppet organization established at Nanking. Old "Provisional Government" at Peiping and "Reformed Government" at Nanking superseded by Wang's organization.

Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs declared Japanese puppet organization illegal and its acts null and void.

Secretary of State Cordell Hull declared America would not recognize the Nanking puppet regime.

April 1.—Fifth Session of the People's Political Council opened in Chungking.

April 2.—France refused to recognize the Nanking puppet regime.

April 5.—Draft constitution was discussed by the People's Political Council.

April 10.—Fifth session of the People's Political Council closed.

May 1.—Chinese Ministry of Finance issued first instalment amounting to £5,000,000 and US\$25,000,000, of the 1940 Reconstruction Gold Bonds.

May 3.—The National Government ordered reorganization of the Liaoning, Kirin, Heilungkiang, and Jehol provincial governments.

May 17.—Chinese scored important victory in central Hupeh. Japanese suffered 50,000 casualties after two weeks of battle.

June 11.—Ichang, important trading town in western Hupeh and gateway to the Yangtze Gorges leading into Szechwan, fell.

June 19.—Anglo-Japanese agreement reached in Tokyo on the Tientsin issue.

June 20.—Japanese blockade of British and French concessions in Tientsin lifted after 372 days of enforcement.

July 1.—The Seventh Plenary Session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee opened in Chungking.

July 2.—Lungchow, gateway to Indo-China in southwestern Kwangsi, fell.

July 8.—Seventh Plenary Session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee closed. Measures adopted to strengthen Chinese administrative structure.

July 16.—Japanese Yonai cabinet resigned *en bloc*.

July 17.—Prince Konoye appointed premier of new cabinet.

July 18.—Great Britain declared closure of the Burma Road for three months.

July 22.—Japanese Konoye cabinet assumed office.

July 23.—Chinese recaptured Chenghai, important Chekiang port, after six days of Japanese occupation.

July 27.—President Roosevelt ordered embargo on oil and scrap iron shipments to Japan.

July 30.—The Executive Yuan adopted resolution to establish National Food Administration to handle the supply and control of food.

August 19.—In four batches, 190 Japanese bombers heavily raided Chungking and started mile-long fire in the city. More than 10,000 houses, including foreign property, were destroyed.

August 20.—Altogether 170 Japanese planes in five batches raided Chungking. The two days of bombing left four-fifths of Chungking's city in ruins.

August 25.—Final contingent of British troops left Shanghai.

September 1.—Second instalment, totalling \$600,000,000, of the 1940 Military Supplies Loan issued today.

September 22.—Japan signed agreement with Indo-China according to which Japanese troops entered Indo-China in three columns. Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs lodged strong protest with France.

September 26.—National Congress, scheduled to be convened this November, postponed on account of war conditions.

The American Import and Export Bank announced credit of US\$25,000,000 to China to be paid back by Chinese delivery of tin.

September 27.—Germany, Japan, and Italy signed tripartite pact in Berlin.

October 1.—Chungking made auxiliary capital.

October 16.—America placed embargo on scrap iron and steel export to Japan.

October 18.—Burma Road reopened after three months of closure.

October 28.—Chinese troops recaptured Lungchow in southwestern Kwangsi.

October 29.—Japanese troops evacuated Nanning, capital of Kwangsi.

Japanese planes shot down China National Aviation Corporation airliner "Chungking" over Chanyi, Yunnan. Eight passengers and two members of the crew, including an American pilot, were killed.

November 1.—Second instalment, amounting to £5,000,000 and US\$25,000,000, of the 1940 Reconstruction Gold Bonds issued.

November 30.—The Wang Ching-wei puppet regime concluded a treaty with Japan by which Japan was "granted" virtual control over the lower Yangtze River, North China, and Inner Mongolia.

The National Government ordered the arrest of Wang Ching-wei.

President Roosevelt announced that the United States would grant to the Chinese Government a credit of US\$100,000,000. Half of it would be given to China for general purposes and the other half for currency stabilization.

December 2.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek denounced Wang-Japan Treaty.

December 4.—Shih Yu-san, former governor of Chahar, was executed for disobedience.

December 10.—The British Government announced a £10,000,000 credit to the Chinese Government.

1941

January 18.—National Military Council ordered disbandment of the New Fourth Army operating on the Kiangsu-Chekiang-Anhwei border. The army refused to obey orders and revolted.

February 7.—Lauchlin Currie, personal representative of President Roosevelt, arrived at Chungking to study economic conditions of China.

February 10.—Chinese troops scored important victory in southern Honan where more than 30,000 casualties were inflicted on the Japanese army.

March 1.—First Session of the Second People's Political Council opened in Chungking.

General Shunroku Hata appointed commander-in-chief of Japanese troops in China succeeding General Toshizo Nishio.

March 10.—First Session of the Second People's Political Council closed today, expressing full confidence in the Government's intention to introduce a constitutional government and in Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek's leadership.

March 24.—Eighth Plenary Session of the Central Executive Committee of Kuomintang opened in Chungking.

March 28.—Chinese scored important victory at Kaoan in northern Kiangsi. Japanese lost about 20,000 men killed and wounded.

April 2.—Eighth Plenary Session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee adopted a three-year wartime reconstruction program for the promotion of wartime reconstruction in interior China.

April 14.—In connection with the Soviet-Japanese Neutrality Pact signed on the 13th in Moscow, Chinese Foreign Minister Wang Chung-hui declared that Outer Mongolia and the Northeastern Provinces are Chinese territory, and the "Chinese government and people cannot recognize any engagements entered into between Third Powers which are derogatory to Chinese territorial and administrative integrity and wishes to state that the Soviet-Japanese declaration has no binding force on China."

April 15.—President Roosevelt announced that the United States had begun listing materials for China under the Lend-Lease Bill.

April 21.—Japanese entered Foochow, capital of Fukien. A number of coastal

towns in Chekiang and Fukien recently captured by the Japanese in its "blockade battle."

April 25.—In Washington, the United States and Great Britain signed separate but parallel agreements with China for the stabilization of Chinese national currency. The Sino-American agreement provided for an American stabilization fund of US \$50,000,000 while the Sino-British Agreement provided for a British fund of £5,000,000, in addition to the £5,000,000 allotted in 1939. In addition to these, the Chinese government banks would provide US \$20,000,000 for collaboration.

April 29.—Captain James Roosevelt, U.S.M.C., eldest son of the American president, arrived in Chungking and stayed until May 3 when he left for Burma *en route* to Cairo.

May 13.—Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced the exchange of diplomatic representatives with Australia.

May 18.—Chinese High Command announced that part of the Chinese troops in the Chungtiaoshan range in southern Shansi succeeded in moving to the back of the Japanese, thus frustrating the Japanese plan of annihilating Chinese troops in Shansi. Heavy casualties were inflicted on the Japanese.

June 17.—Chinese Ministry of Food established under the Executive Yuan, superseding the National Food Administration.

June 18.—Sino-British Yunnan-Burma Boundary Demarcation Agreement signed in Chungking.

June 28.—American Government revealed that Owen Lattimore was appointed Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek's personal adviser at President Roosevelt's recommendation.

July 1.—Chinese Ministry of Finance and Ministry of Communications jointly issued US \$10,000,000 in bonds to finance the construction of the Yunnan-Burma Railway.

Germany, Italy, and Rumania recognized the Nanking puppet regime. Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs ordered Chinese diplomatic representatives to leave Germany and Italy, and declared that China had severed diplomatic relations with Germany and Italy.

July 4.—Great Britain declared her willingness to abolish extraterritoriality in China after the war.

July 16.—Japanese Konoye cabinet resigned *en bloc*.

July 17.—Prince Konoye was ordered to form another cabinet (his third.)

July 19.—Owen Lattimore, personal adviser to Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, arrived in Chungking.

July 25.—Vichy revealed that Indo-China authorities agreed to "Japanese protection of peace" in entire Indo-China. Japanese troops occupied a number of bases in southern Indo-China.

Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs declared that China considers entire Indo-China under Japanese military occupation and restated China's determination to resist aggression.

Great Britain cancelled Anglo-Japanese Treaty of Commerce and Navigation, also ordered the freezing of Chinese and Japanese assets in the British Empire.

The United States ordered the freezing of assets of Japan and China.

July 28.—Authorities in Dutch East Indies ordered the freezing of Japanese assets and cancelled the Dutch-Japanese financial agreement. Dutch authorities also ordered embargo of Dutch oil to Japan.

July 29.—Japan officially occupied entire Indo-China.

August 1.—Thailand recognized the puppet regime in Northeastern Provinces and decided to join the Japanese "Sphere of Co-Prosperity in East Asia."

The United States ordered the embargo of oil against Japan.

August 26.—President Roosevelt declared his readiness to send an American Military Mission to China.

August 29.—Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced the exchange of diplomatic representatives between China and Canada.

September 3.—Chinese recaptured Foochow, capital of Fukien, completing the recovery of Chekiang and Fukien coastal cities lost in April and May last.

September 11.—Japanese government announced the establishment of a garrison headquarters for home defense under the Imperial Headquarters. The new headquarters was to be headed by General O. Yamada.

October 2.—Chinese scored important victory in the second battle of Changsha. The campaign started on September 18,

and the enemy was forced to retreat from the suburbs of Changsha the morning of October 2.

October 3.—Former Assistant Secretary of State Henry W. Grady arrived in Chungking and stayed until October 6 when he left for Hongkong *en route* to Washington.

October 4.—Chengchow, important railway town in Honan, fell.

October 9.—The American Military Mission under Major-General John Magruder arrived in Chungking.

October 10.—Chinese troops broke into Ichang but were forced to evacuate after being heavily gassed by the Japanese.

October 16.—Konoye's third cabinet resigned *en bloc*.

British economic mission arrived in Chungking.

October 17.—Lieutenant-General H. Tojo appointed premier to form a new Japanese cabinet.

October 31.—Chengchow, important railway town in Honan, recaptured by Chinese.

November 14.—President Roosevelt ordered the evacuation of American marines from China.

November 17.—Second Session of the Second People's Political Council opened in Chungking.

November 26.—Second Session of the Second People's Political Council adopted an important resolution for further promotion of democracy and redoubled war efforts.

December 8.—Japan declared war on the United States and Great Britain after attacking Pearl Harbor, Hongkong and other American and British bases in the Far East. Shanghai, Tientsin, and Kulangsu international settlements and concessions occupied by Japanese.

The United States and Great Britain declared war on Japan.

Chinese Foreign Minister Quo Tai-chi announced that China was ready to declare war against Japan, Germany, and Italy.

December 9.—China declared war against Japan, Germany, and Italy.

December 15.—Ninth Plenary Session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee opened in Chungking.

December 20.—The American Volunteer Group of the Chinese Air Force had its first baptism of fire over Kunming.

December 22.—The Ninth Plenary Session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee adopted a resolution to give supreme power to Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek.

General Sir Archibald Wavell, commander-in-chief of India, Major-General George Brett of the American Army Air Corps, visited Chungking to consult with Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek on the war situation in the Far East.

December 23.—The Ninth Plenary Session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee closed. Dr. T. V. Soong appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs.

December 24.—Generals Wavell and Brett left Chungking for India.

December 25.—Hongkong surrendered.

1942

January 1.—Joint declaration of 26 United Nations signed in Washington.

January 2.—Chinese military spokesman announced that Chinese troops entered Burma for the joint defense of the country.

January 3.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek accepted command of the China theater of war.

January 4.—Chinese troops scored another victory at Changsha. The Third Battle of Changsha started on December 23 last and after a four-day battle at the gates of the Hunan capital, the invading armies were finally routed.

January 15.—Owen Lattimore left Chungking for America.

February 2.—President Roosevelt asked Congress to grant US \$500,000,000 credit to the Chinese Government.

The British Government announced its readiness to grant £50,000,000 credit to the Chinese Government.

February 9.—Generalissimo and Madame Chiang Kai-shek visited India on February 11. They issued a message to the Indian nation and returned to Chungking on March 5.

March 4.—Lieutenant-General Joseph Stilwell arrived in Chungking.

March 10.—The National Government announced that a Chinese military mission would be sent to Washington under General Hsiung Shih-hui.

Lieutenant-General Joseph Stilwell appointed Chief of Staff of the China theater.

China and India to exchange resident representatives.

March 12.—Chinese Military Mission left Chungking for India *en route* to the United States.

March 16.—Sino-Iraq treaty of friendship signed in Bagdad.

March 24.—Chinese Ministry of Finance announced the issues of 1942 Allied Victory Gold Bond amounting to US \$100,000,000 and 1942 Gold Savings Certificates amounting to US \$100,000,000.

March 27.—President Roosevelt announced the establishment of Pacific War Council, including China, United States, Great Britain, Australia, New Zealand, Canada, and Holland.

March 29.—The National Government promulgated National General Mobilization Act.

April 1.—Chinese announced the evacuation of Toungoo on the central Burman front.

April 18.—American planes bombed Tokyo, Yokohama, Kobe, Nagoya, and Osaka.

April 20.—Headquarters of the Chinese Expeditionary Force announced the recapture by Chinese troops of Yenang-yang, saving several thousand of besieged British troops.

April 24.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek received the decoration of the Grand Cross of the Bath given by King George VI.

April 29.—Chinese troops evacuated Lashio.

May 1.—Chinese troops evacuated Mandalay, old capital of Burma.

May 3.—Japanese troops advanced into Western Yunnan along the Burma Road.

May 5.—National General Mobilization Act enforced.

May 9.—Japanese invading army stopped on the Salween River by the Chinese.

May 28.—Chinese troops evacuated Kinhsa, Chekiang's wartime provincial capital.

June 15.—Chinese troops evacuated Shangyao, important railway city in eastern Kiangsi.

July 1.—Japanese occupied entire Chekiang-Kiangsi Railway.

July 4.—The American Volunteer Group of the Chinese Air Force was superseded by the 23rd Pursuit Squadron of the United States Army Air Force. With other combat squadrons, the unit was to be part of American air force operating in China.

July 7.—Chinese National Military Council announced that in five years of war, the enemy suffered 2,500,000 casualties in China.

July 11.—Wenchow, eastern Chekiang port city, fell.

July 20.—Lauchlin Currie arrived in Chungking.

August 15.—Chinese recaptured Wenchow.

August 19.—Chinese troops recaptured Shangyao.

August 28.—Chinese troops recaptured Chuhsien, one of the "bomb-Tokyo" bases in Chekiang. Major part of Chekiang-Kiangsi Railway recovered.

September 21.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek in the Weekly Memorial Service at the National Government reported on his recent one-month trip to the Northwest during which he and Madame Chiang visited the northwestern provinces of Kansu, Shensi, Ningsia, and Chinghai. Madame Chiang also visited Sinkiang.

September 29.—Mr. Wendell Willkie, representative of President Roosevelt and leader of Republican Party, arrived in Sinkiang from the U.S.S.R. He arrived in Chungking *via* Lanchow and Chengtu on October 2. He left Chengtu for the United States *via* Alaska on October 9.

October 10.—American and British Government announced their intention to relinquish extraterritoriality and other related rights in China.

October 13.—Owen Lattimore arrived in Chungking from America.

October 22.—First session of the Third People's Political Council opened in Chungking.

October 25.—Chinese Foreign Minister T. V. Soong returned to Chungking from the United States *via* India.

October 29.—People's Political Council adopted price control program proposed by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek.

October 31.—First session of the Third People's Political Council closed.

November 1.—Japan established Ministry of Greater East Asia to rule occupied territories.

November 10.—British Parliamentary Mission arrived in Chungking.

November 12.—The Tenth Plenary Session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee opened in Chungking.

November 18.—Owen Lattimore left Chungking for America. He was "loaned" by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek to the American Office of War Information.

November 27.—The Tenth Plenary Session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee closed today. The session adopted resolutions for voluntary labor service, price control, and the transfer of Ministry of Justice from the Judicial Yuan to the Executive Yuan.

Madame Chiang Kai-shek arrived in New York for medical treatment.

December 10.—British Parliamentary Mission left Kunming for India *en route* to England.

1943

January 11.—New Sino-American and Sino-British treaties concluded.

January 16.—First Sinkiang Kuomintang Provincial Headquarters established in Tihwa.

January 21.—The Battle of Tapieshan on the Anhwei-Hupei border concluded.

February 5.—Lieutenant-General H. H. Arnold, Chief of the United States Army Air Force, and Sir John Dill, Empire Chief of Staff, representing President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill, respectively, arrived in Chungking for conference with the Chinese High Command.

February 15.—Chinese and Dutch governments announced the elevation of the status of their respective diplomatic representatives to ambassadorship.

February 18.—Madame Chiang Kai-shek addressed the American Senate and House of Representatives.

February 24.—Japanese occupied Kwang-chowwan. Chinese Government lodged a strong protest with the Vichy regime.

February 26.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek broadcast to the people of Thailand.

March 6.—The 14th Air Force of the United States Army, with Major General Claire L. Chennault as commander, began operations in China.

March 15.—Generalissimo Chang Kai-shek visited Kweichow on an inspection trip.

April 22.—Chinese Foreign Minister T. V. Soong visited Canada.

April 28.—Lieutenant-General Joseph Stilwell and Major-General Claire L. Chennault arrived in Washington for conference with American authorities.

May 4.—Chinese and Brazilian governments announced the elevation of the status of their respective diplomatic representatives to ambassadorship.

May 18.—Japanese troops launched large-scale campaign against western Hupei.

May 20.—Ratifications of the new Sino-American and Sino-British treaties exchanged in Chungking and Washington.

May 21.—Chinese and American governments exchanged notes in Chungking concerning criminal jurisdiction over U. S. armed forces in China.

May 29.—Chairman Lin Sen ill. The Standing Committee of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee announced the modification of the organic law of the National Government providing that when the Chairman of the National Government cannot exercise his duties, the President of the Executive Yuan will act on his behalf.

Chinese troops recaptured Yuyangkwan.

May 31.—Chinese troops began counter-offensive in western Hupei.

June 10.—Washington announced that agreement has been reached among China, the United States, Great Britain, and the U. S. S. R. on Inter-Allied Relief and Rehabilitation Administration. Branch offices to be established in Chungking and London.

June 16.—Madame Chiang Kai-shek delivered a speech before joint session of the Canadian Parliament.

June 17.—Chinese military spokesman announced the conclusion of the western Hupei and northern Hunan campaign. Japanese lost 40,000 dead and wounded.

CHAPTER XXIV

GOVERNMENT DIRECTORY

(List of Foreign Diplomats Attached)

THE KUOMINTANG

TSUNGTSAI (President) : Chiang Kai-shek

MEMBERS OF THE CENTRAL EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

Chu Cheng*	Tai Chi-tao*
Sun Fo*	Yu Yu-jen*
Ting Wei-fen*	Tsou Lu*
H. H. Kung*	Li Wen-fen*
Chen Kuo-fu*	Feng Yu-hsiang*
Ho Ying-chin*	Pai Chung-hsi*
Teng Chia-yen*	Chang Li-sheng*
Chen Chi-tang*	Yeh Chu-tsang*
Pan Kung-chan*	T. V. Soong*
Wu Chung-hsin*	Yen Hsi-shan
Wu Te-chen	Ho Cheng-chun
Chen Li-fu	Shih Ying
Chang Hsueh-liang	Liu Shih
Ku Chu-tung	Yang Chieh
Chu Chia-hua	Chang Chih-chung
Ma Chao-chun	Ho Chung-han
Tseng Kwang-ching	Fang Chueh-hui
Chiang Ting-wen	Chien Te-chun
Ho Chien	Tseng Yang-fu
Chen Cheng	Hsu En-tseng
Hung Lan-yu	Yu Ching-tang
Chan Chak	Chang Tao-fan
Chen Pu-lei	Fang Chih
Liang Han-chao	Li Tsung-huang
Liu Chi-wen	Hsu Yuan-chuan
Wang Lu-yi	Po Wen-wei
Liu Wei-chih	Chang Chun
Chao Tai-wen	Ting Chao-wu
Kan Nai-kuang	Chiang Po-cheng
Hsiao Chi-shan	Chen Chi-cheng
Miao Pei-cheng	Chow Po-min
Ku Cheng-kang	Liu Chien-chun
Yu Han-mou	Mei Kung-jen
Chu Shao-liang	Wang Su-fang
Ku Cheng-lun	Lin Yi-chung
Tai Kwei-sheng	Fu Tso-yi
Chen Chao-ying	Huang Hsu-chu
Chow Chi-kang	Yu Hsueh-chung
Wei Li-huang	Hsiao Tung-tze
Chiao I-tang	Masud
Chen Shao-kwan	Hung Lu-tung
Peng Hsueh-pei	Tien Kun-shan
Shen Hung-lieh	Chen Yi
Hsia Tou-ying	Mao Tsu-chuan
Wang Po-chun	Hsiung Shih-hui
P. S. Foo	Lu Chung-lin
Li Yang-ching	Hsu Kan

Lo-sang-chien-tsan	Lo Ching-tao
Wu Kai-hsien	Miao Pei-nan
Chen Shu-jen	Kung-chiao-chung-ni
Ku Meng-yu	Hsueh Tu-pi
Yeh Hsiu-feng	Wang Chuan-sheng
Ku Cheng-ting	Lai Lien
Yu Fei-peng	Chen Tiao-yuan
Wu Yi-feng	Hsiao Cheng
Lin Lei	Li Ping-hsien
Shih Tze-chow	Chu Chi-ching
Wang Yung-ping	Chen Ching-yun
Fu Ju-ling	Liu Chien-hsu

NOTE.—Those marked * are members of the Standing Committee of the C.E.C.

RESERVE MEMBERS OF THE CENTRAL EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

Chang Chiang	C. T. Wang
Huang Chi-lu	Tang Sheng-chih
Huang Shih	Yu Tsun-hsien
Li Jen-jen	Soong Ching-ling (Madame Sun Yat-sen)
Chang Ting-fan	Wu Pao-feng
Lo Chia-lun	Chao Ti-hua
Li Ching-chai	Lo Yi-chun
Ma Hung-kwei	Hsieh Tso-min
Tuan Hsi-peng	Chen Pan-ling
Wang Mao-kung	Yang Ai-yuan
Chen Fang-hsien	Li Szu-tsung
Cheng Chien	Chang Fang
Cheng Yi-tung	Chang Chen
Chen Yueh-huan	Chang Chih-pen
Wang Kun-lun	Chao Pi-lien
Ou Fang-pu	Chao Yun-yi
Chan Chu-ssu	Cheng Tien-ku
John C. H. Wu	Shih Ching-ting

MEMBERS OF THE CENTRAL SUPERVISORY COMMITTEE

Lin Sen*	Wu Ching-heng*
Chang Chi*	Chang Jen-chieh*
Wang Chung-hui*	Shao Li-tze*
Yang Hu*	Yang Hu-cheng*
Li Tsung-jen*	Chang Fa-kwei*
Hsu Chung-chih*	Hu Tsung-nan
Cheng Tien-fang	Huang Shao-hsiung
Hsiang Han-ping	Shao Hua
Shang Chen	Li Lieh-chun
Li Yu-yung	Hsueh Yueh
Sun Lien-chung	Lung Yun

Liu Chen-hua	Pang Ping-hsun
Li Fu-lin	Ho Yao-tsu
Lin Yun-kai	Chin Chen
Wang Tze-chwang	Chang-chia Hutukhtu
Yao Ta-hai	An-ching Hutukhtu
Hsiung Ke-wu	Sheng Shih-tsai
Chin Te-chun	Sze Lun
Wang Ping-chun	Hsu Yung-chang
Wang Shu-han	Lu Tang-ping
Chang Jen-min	Wang Shih-chieh
Lei Cheng	Wen Yi-yu
Ho Ssu-yuan	Liu Wen-tao
Tan Tao-yuan	Lee Tze-wen
Peng Kuo-chun	

NOTE.—Those marked * are members of the Standing Committee of the C.S.C.

RESERVE MEMBERS OF THE CENTRAL SUPERVISORY COMMITTEE

Chang Mo-chun	Teng Ching-yang
Ma Lin	Ti Ying
Quo Tai-chi	Tsui Kwang-hsiu
Hu Wen-tsan	Li Yi-an
Hsiao Chung-chen	Sun Ching-ya
Huang Lin-shu	Lu Yu-kang
Yang Hsi-chi	

SECRETARIAT-GENERAL OF THE CENTRAL EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

SECRETARY-GENERAL : Wu Te-chen
DEPUTY SECRETARY-GENERAL : Ti Ying

BOARD OF ORGANIZATION

MINISTER : Chu Chia-hua
VICE-MINISTER : Ma Chao-chun
VICE MINISTER : CHANG CHIANG

BOARD OF INFORMATION

MINISTER : Chang Tao-fan
VICE-MINISTER : Chen Chung-hsing
VICE-MINISTER : Hollington K. Tong

BOARD OF OVERSEAS AFFAIRS

MINISTER : Liu Wei-chih
VICE-MINISTER : Tai Kwei-sheng
VICE-MINISTER : Chen Ching-yun

PENSION COMMITTEE

VICE-CHAIRMAN : Li Wen-fan

PARTY HISTORY COMPILATION AND EDITING COMMITTEE

CHAIRMAN : Chang Chi
VICE-CHAIRMAN : Lo Chia-lun
VICE-CHAIRMAN : Mei Kung-jen

REVOLUTIONARY LOANS INVESTIGATION COMMITTEE

CHAIRMAN : Sun Fo

REVOLUTIONARY ACHIEVEMENTS EXAMINATION COMMITTEE

CHAIRMAN : Lin Sen

OVERSEAS CHINESE CONTRIBUTIONS CUSTODY COMMITTEE

Chiang Kai-shek	T. V. Soong
Lin Sen	Yeh Chu-tsang
Yu Yu-jen	Chen Shu-jen

PARTY BUREAU OF INVESTIGATIONS AND STATISTICS

CHIEF : Chu Chia-hua
DEPUTY CHIEF : Hsu En-tseng

PARTY AFFAIRS COMMITTEE

CHAIRMAN : Wu Te-chen

TRAINING COMMITTEE

CHAIRMAN : Chen Cheng
ACTING CHAIRMAN : Tuan Hsi-peng
VICE-CHAIRMAN : Chow Ya-wei

CENTRAL TRAINING CORPS

LEADER : Chiang Kai-shek

SAN MIN CHU I YOUTH CORPS

LEADER : Chiang Kai-shek
SECRETARY-GENERAL : Chang Chih-chung

CENTRAL POLITICAL INSTITUTE

PRESIDENT : Chiang Kai-shek
DEAN : Cheng Tien-fang

THE SUPREME NATIONAL DEFENSE COUNCIL

CHAIRMAN : Chiang Kai-shek
SECRETARY-GENERAL : Wang Chung-hui
DEPUTY SECRETARY-GENERAL : Kan Nai-kuang

THE CENTRAL PLANNING BOARD

DIRECTOR-GENERAL : Chiang Kai-shek
SECRETARY-GENERAL : Wang Shih-chieh*
DEPUTY SECRETARY-GENERAL : Y. C. Koo
POLITICAL DIVISION : Hsu Hsiao-yen
Chang Chung-fu
ECONOMIC DIVISION : Chen Pao-yin
Ho Kung-kan
FINANCIAL AND CURRENCY DIVISION : Huang Yuan-pin
Li Cho-min

THE PARTY AND POLITICAL WORK PERSCRUTATION COMMITTEE

CHAIRMAN : Chiang Kai-shek
SECRETARY-GENERAL : Chen Yi
DIRECTOR, POLITICAL AFFAIRS DEPARTMENT : Lei Ying
DIRECTOR, PARTY AFFAIRS DEPARTMENT : Li Chi-hung

*Succeeded on August 10, 1943, by General Hsiung Shih-hui, formerly head of the Chinese Military Mission to the United States.

THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT :

CHAIRMAN : Lin Sen*

STATE COUNCILLORS

Chang Jen-chieh	Chang Chi
Tsou Lu	Hsiung Ke-wu
Feng Yu-hsiang	Chao Tai-wen
Yen Hsi-shan	Wang Shu-han
Huang Fu-sheng	Po Wen-wei
T. V. Soong	Chow Chen-lin
Wang Po-chun	Li Wen-fan
Teng Chia-yen	Ma Chao-chun
Li Lieh-chun	Soong Ching-lin
Yeh Chu-tsang	Hu Yi-sheng
Ma Lin	Hsu Chung-hao
Niu Yung-chien	Lo Ching-tao
Liu Cheh	Masud
Chang-Chia-	Tsiao Yi-tang
Hutukhtu	Chiao Yi-Sheng
Sha-Keh-Tu-Erh-Cha-Pu	

THE CIVIL AFFAIRS DEPARTMENT

DIRECTOR : Wei Huai

CHIEF OF THE SEALS ENGRAVING BUREAU :
Chow Chung-liang

THE MILITARY AFFAIRS DEPARTMENT

DIRECTOR : Lu Chao

CHIEF OF THE CEREMONIES BUREAU :
Tien Shih-chieh

CHIEF OF THE GENERAL AFFAIRS BUREAU :
Lee Yi-tze

THE DIRECTORATE-GENERAL OF BUDGETS, ACCOUNTS AND STATISTICS

DIRECTOR-GENERAL : Chen Chi-tsai

DIRECTOR OF STATISTICS : T. C. Wu

DIRECTOR OF ACCOUNTS : Y. Y. Wen

DIRECTOR OF BUDGETS : J. M. Yang

THE EXECUTIVE YUAN

PRESIDENT : Chiang Kai-shek

VICE-PRESIDENT : H. H. Kung

SECRETARY-GENERAL : Chang Li-sheng

POLITICAL AFFAIRS DIRECTOR :

T. F. Tsiang

THE NATIONAL GENERAL

MOBILIZATION COUNCIL

CHAIRMAN : Chiang Kai-shek

SECRETARY-GENERAL : Shen Hung-lieh

DEPUTY SECRETARIES-GENERAL :

Ho Hao-jo

Tuanmo Kai

THE MINISTRY OF INTERIOR

MINISTER : Chow Chung-yueh

POLITICAL VICE-MINISTER :

Chang Wei-han

ADMINISTRATIVE VICE-MINISTER :

Wang Te-pu

DIRECTOR, POLICE AFFAIRS DEPARTMENT :

Feng Yu-kun

DIRECTOR, RITES AND CUSTOMS DEPARTMENT : Wen Chun-tien

DIRECTOR, CIVIL AFFAIRS DEPARTMENT :
Yang Chun-mai

DIRECTOR, GENERAL AFFAIRS DEPARTMENT : Wang Chi-fu

THE MINISTRY OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS

MINISTER : T. V. Soong

POLITICAL VICE-MINISTER : K. C. Wu

ADMINISTRATIVE VICE-MINISTER :

Victor Chitsai Hoo

DIRECTOR, GENERAL AFFAIRS DEPARTMENT : Li Wei-kuo

DIRECTOR, AMERICAN AFFAIRS DEPARTMENT : Henry K. Chang

DIRECTOR, EUROPEAN AFFAIRS DEPARTMENT : Lone Liang

DIRECTOR, EAST ASIATIC AFFAIRS DEPARTMENT : Yang Yun-chu

DIRECTOR, WEST ASIATIC AFFAIRS DEPARTMENT : Hsu Shu-hsi

DIRECTOR, TREATY DEPARTMENT :
Wang Hwa-cheng

DIRECTOR, INTELLIGENCE DEPARTMENT :
Shao Yu-lin*

THE MINISTRY OF MILITARY AFFAIRS

MINISTER : Ho Ying-chin

POLITICAL VICE-MINISTER :

Chien Ta-chun

ADMINISTRATIVE VICE-MINISTER :
Chang Ting-fan

THE MINISTRY OF FINANCE

MINISTER : H. H. Kung

POLITICAL VICE-MINISTER : O. K. Yui

ADMINISTRATIVE VICE-MINISTER :

P. W. Kuo

ACTING ADMINISTRATIVE VICE-MINISTER :
Y. C. Koo

DIRECTOR, GENERAL AFFAIRS DEPARTMENT : Pien Ting-yuan

DIRECTOR, PERSONNEL DEPARTMENT :
Kao Hsiang-kao

DIRECTOR, SALT DEPARTMENT :
Ma Tai-chun

DIRECTOR, LOANS DEPARTMENT :
Yin Jen-hsien

DIRECTOR, MONOPOLIES DEPARTMENT :
Chu Chi

DIRECTOR, CURRENCY DEPARTMENT :
Tai Ming-li

DIRECTOR, CUSTOMS ADMINISTRATION :
Loy Chang

DIRECTOR, REVENUE ADMINISTRATION :
Chang Ching-yu

DIRECTOR, CUSTOMS PREVENTIVE SERVICE ADMINISTRATION : Tai Li

*Died August 1, 1943. Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, in his capacity as President of the Executive Yuan, appointed Acting Chairman. On September 13 Generalissimo Chiang was elected President of the National Government.

*Succeeded in July, 1943, by Ho Feng-shan, formerly secretary of the Chinese Military Mission to the United States.

DIRECTOR, NATIONAL TREASURY ADMINISTRATION : Li Tang
 DIRECTOR, DIRECT TAX ADMINISTRATION : Kao Ping-fang
 DIRECTOR, DIRECTORATE-GENERAL OF SALT AFFAIRS : Miao Chiu-chieh
 CHAIRMAN, FOREIGN TRADE COMMISSION : Tsou Lin
 CHAIRMAN, LAND TAX COMMISSION : Kwan Chi-yu

THE MINISTRY OF ECONOMIC AFFAIRS

MINISTER : Wong Wen-hao
 POLITICAL VICE-MINISTER : Chin Fen
 ADMINISTRATIVE VICE-MINISTER : Tan Po-yu
 DIRECTOR, GENERAL AFFAIRS DEPARTMENT : Wu Pei-chun
 DIRECTOR, CONTROL AFFAIRS DEPARTMENT : Li Ching-lu
 DIRECTOR, MINING DEPARTMENT : Li Ming-ho
 DIRECTOR, INDUSTRY DEPARTMENT : Ouyang Lun
 DIRECTOR, POWER INDUSTRY DEPARTMENT : Chang Chia-chih
 DIRECTOR, COMMERCE DEPARTMENT : Ma Keh-chiang
 DIRECTOR, ENTERPRISE DEPARTMENT : Chuang Chih-huan

HEADS OF ORGANS SUBSIDIARY TO THE MINISTRY OF ECONOMIC AFFAIRS

DIRECTOR, DAILY NECESSITIES ADMINISTRATION : Hsiung Tsu-tung
 DIRECTOR, FUEL CONTROL ADMINISTRATION : Cheng Ta-sheng
 DIRECTOR, NATIONAL GEOLOGICAL SURVEY : Li Chun-li
 DIRECTOR, NATIONAL MINING AND METALLURGICAL RESEARCH INSTITUTE : Chu Yu-lun
 DIRECTOR, INDUSTRIAL AND MINING ADJUSTMENT ADMINISTRATION : Wong Wen-hao (concurrently)
 DEPUTY-DIRECTOR : Chang Tze-kai
 DIRECTOR, NATIONAL RESOURCES COMMISSION : Wong Wen-hao (concurrently)
 DEPUTY-DIRECTOR : Chien Chang-chao
 DIRECTOR, NATIONAL GOLD MINING BUREAU : Liu Ying-fu
 DIRECTOR, NATIONAL INDUSTRIAL RESEARCH BUREAU : Ku Yu-chuan
 DIRECTOR, NATIONAL WEIGHTS AND MEASURES BUREAU : Cheng Li-ming
 DIRECTOR, TRADE MARK BUREAU : Chang Yi-kun

THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

MINISTER : Chen Li-fu
 POLITICAL VICE-MINISTER : Ku Yu-hsiu
 ADMINISTRATIVE VICE-MINISTER : Yu Ching-tang

DIRECTOR, GENERAL AFFAIRS DEPARTMENT : Chiang Chih-chen
 DIRECTOR, HIGH EDUCATION DEPARTMENT : Wu Chun-sheng
 DIRECTOR, SECONDARY EDUCATION DEPARTMENT : Chang Yi
 DIRECTOR, PRIMARY EDUCATION DEPARTMENT : Ku Shu-shen
 DIRECTOR, SOCIAL EDUCATION DEPARTMENT : Liu Chi-hung
 DIRECTOR, MONGOLIAN AND TIBETAN EDUCATION DEPARTMENT : Lo Mei-huan

THE MINISTRY OF COMMUNICATIONS

MINISTER : Tseng Yang-fu
 POLITICAL VICE-MINISTER : Hsu En-tseng
 ADMINISTRATIVE VICE-MINISTER : Pan Yi-chih
 DIRECTOR, GENERAL AFFAIRS DEPARTMENT : Chen Kuo-chun
 DIRECTOR, PERSONNEL DEPARTMENT : Wang Wen-shan
 DIRECTOR, FINANCIAL DEPARTMENT : Hsu Cheng-ao
 DIRECTOR, SUPPLIES DEPARTMENT : Shen Hsi-jui
 DIRECTOR, RAILWAYS DEPARTMENT : Yang Cheng-hsun
 DIRECTOR, POSTS AND TELE-COMMUNICATIONS DEPARTMENT : Chao Tseng-Chueh
 DIRECTOR, NAVIGATION DEPARTMENT : Ho Mo-lin
 DIRECTOR, BUREAU OF HIGHWAYS : Tseng Yang-fu (concurrently)
 DEPUTY-DIRECTORS : Chen Ju-hsuan
 Chao Tsu-kang
 Kung Hsueh-sui
 DIRECTOR, POSTAL ADMINISTRATION : Hsu Chi-chuang
 DIRECTOR, TELE-COMMUNICATIONS ADMINISTRATION : Chu I-Cheng
 DIRECTOR, STAGE TRANSPORTATION BUREAU : Tan Ping-hsun

THE MINISTRY OF AGRICULTURE AND FORESTRY

MINISTER : Shen Hung-lich
 POLITICAL VICE-MINISTER : Lei Fa-chang
 ADMINISTRATIVE VICE-MINISTER : Chien Tien-ho
 DIRECTOR, AGRICULTURE DEPARTMENT : Chang Yuan-feng
 DIRECTOR, FORESTRY DEPARTMENT : Li Shun-ching
 DIRECTOR, FISHERY DEPARTMENT : Cheng Shao-chun
 DIRECTOR, RURAL ECONOMY DEPARTMENT : Chao Pao-chuan
 DIRECTOR, GENERAL AFFAIRS DEPARTMENT : Hsing Chi-hua
 DIRECTOR, NATIONAL AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH BUREAU : K. S. Sie
 DEPUTY-DIRECTOR : T. H. Shen

THE MINISTRY OF SOCIAL AFFAIRS

MINISTER : Ku Cheng-kang
 POLITICAL VICE-MINISTER : Hung Lan-yu
 ADMINISTRATIVE VICE-MINISTER :
 Huang Po-tu
 DIRECTOR, SOCIAL WELFARE DEPARTMENT : Hsieh Cheng-fu
 DIRECTOR, GENERAL AFFAIRS DEPARTMENT : Chen Yen
 DIRECTOR, ORGANIZATION AND TRAINING DEPARTMENT : Lu Ching-shih
 DIRECTOR, NATIONAL COOPERATIVE ENTERPRISE ADMINISTRATION :
 Shaw Miachen

THE MINISTRY OF FOOD

MINISTER : Hsu Kan
 POLITICAL VICE-MINISTER :
 Liu Hang-shen
 ADMINISTRATIVE VICE-MINISTER :
 Pang Sung-chow
 DIRECTOR, CIVILIAN FOOD DEPARTMENT :
 Yin Ching-fu
 DIRECTOR, MILITARY FOOD DEPARTMENT :
 Yang Lin
 DIRECTOR, PERSONNEL DEPARTMENT :
 Chen Hsi-hsiang
 DIRECTOR, TRANSPORTATION AND STORAGE DEPARTMENT :
 Chung Cheng-yu
 DIRECTOR, FINANCIAL DEPARTMENT :
 Li Chia-lung
 DIRECTOR, GENERAL AFFAIRS DEPARTMENT : Yang Hsi-chih

THE MINISTRY OF JUSTICE

MINISTER : Hsieh Kwan-sheng
 POLITICAL VICE-MINISTER :
 Hung Lu-tung
 ADMINISTRATIVE VICE-MINISTER :
 Hsia Chin
 DIRECTOR, CIVIL CASES DEPARTMENT :
 Yu Chueh
 DIRECTOR, CRIMINAL CASES DEPARTMENT :
 Lee Tai-shan
 DIRECTOR, GENERAL AFFAIRS DEPARTMENT : Chu Wei-min
 DIRECTOR, PRISON AFFAIRS DEPARTMENT :
 Wang Yuan-tseng

MONGOLIAN AND TIBETAN AFFAIRS COMMISSION

CHAIRMAN : Wu Chung-hsin
 VICE-CHAIRMAN : Chao Pi-lien
 DIRECTOR, MONGOLIAN AFFAIRS DEPARTMENT : Chu Min-shan
 DIRECTOR, TIBETAN AFFAIRS DEPARTMENT : Kung Ching-chung
 DIRECTOR, GENERAL AFFAIRS DEPARTMENT : Tseng Shao-lu

OVERSEAS CHINESE AFFAIRS COMMISSION

CHAIRMAN : Chen Shu-jen
 VICE-CHAIRMAN : Chow Chi-kang
 DIRECTOR, OVERSEAS CHINESE CONTROL DEPARTMENT : Chow Yen-ming
 DIRECTOR, SECRETARIAL DEPARTMENT :
 Kuo Wei-pai
 DIRECTOR, OVERSEAS CHINESE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT : Yu Tsun-hsien

NATIONAL RELIEF COMMISSION

CHAIRMAN : H. H. Kung
 ACTING CHAIRMAN : Hsu Shih-ying
 VICE-CHAIRMAN : Chu Ying-kwang
 FIRST DEPARTMENT : Sun Lu-sheng
 SECOND DEPARTMENT : Wang Tien-Chih
 THIRD DEPARTMENT : Wang Fang
 FOURTH DEPARTMENT : Pan Lien-ju

NATIONAL CONSERVANCY COMMISSION

DIRECTOR : Hsueh Tu-pi

NATIONAL HEALTH ADMINISTRATION

DIRECTOR : P. Z. King
 DEPUTY-DIRECTOR : James K. Shen

NATIONAL LAND ADMINISTRATION

DIRECTOR : Cheng Chen-yu
 DEPUTY-DIRECTOR : Chu Ping

THE LEGISLATIVE YUAN

PRESIDENT : Sun Fo
 VICE-PRESIDENT : Yeh Chu-tsang
 SECRETARY-GENERAL : Wu Shang-yin
 DIRECTOR, RESEARCH DEPARTMENT :
 Hsieh Pao-chao

LEGISLATIVE MEMBERS

Kwan Su-jen	Chao Wen-ping
Liang Han-chao	Wu Yun-peng
Chen Po-chuang	Huang Chin-tao
Liu Shu-hsun	Kung-Chueh-Chung-Ni
Peng Yang-kwang	Lo Yu-jen
Lu Ya-fu	Yeh Hsia-sheng
Lu Chung-ling	Chang Shao-yuan
Chang Feng-chiu	Feng Tze-yu
Wang Ping-chien	Wang Yu-hsiang
Ling Yueh	Sa Yusuf
Huang Yi-ou	Ma Hsiao-chun
Ma Yin-chu	Tai Hsia
Chen Chang-heng	Chang Hsi-man
Wei Ting-sheng	Wen Yuan-ning
Huang Yu-chang	Hung Jui-chao
Tai Hsiu-tsun	Hou Keh-ching
Tau Tung-sun	Chao Pei
Lo Ting	Chao Chu-hsu
Tsai Hsuan	Tseng Yen
Lin Ping	Yuan Shih-pin
Liu Ke-chun	Chen Tze-feng
Chao Shen	Hsu Pao-chu
Feng Chao-yi	Chu Wu
Chao Nai-chuan	Sheng Hsiao-chin

Yang Kung-ta
Yang Yu-chun
Chen Ku-yuan
Mei Ju-ao
Teng Kung-hsuan
Huang Kun-lun
Ho Sui
Chung Tien-hsin
Chow Yi-chih
Yao Chuan-fa
Hu Hsuan-ming
Chao Mao-hua
Liu Tung
Shih Wei-huan
Tung Chi-cheng
Liu Chih-ping
Yi Ying
Teng Hung-yeh
Chi Chih-hou
Peng Chun-shih
Wu Huan-chang
Ling Chang
Wang Tseng-shan

GENERAL COMMITTEE

CHAIRMAN : Lin Ping

FOREIGN AFFAIRS COMMITTEE

CHAIRMAN : John C. H. Wu

FINANCE COMMITTEE

CHAIRMAN : Wei Ting-sheng

ECONOMIC AFFAIRS COMMITTEE

CHAIRMAN : Lou Tung-sun

MILITARY AFFAIRS COMMITTEE

CHAIRMAN : Ho Sui

CIVIL LAW COMMITTEE

CONVENER : John C. H. Wu

CRIMINAL LAW COMMITTEE

CONVENER : Liu Ke-chun

COMMERCIAL LAW COMMITTEE

CONVENER : Tai Hsiu-tsun

LABOR LAW COMMITTEE

CONVENER : Wang Kun-lun

SELF-GOVERNMENT LAW COMMITTEE

CONVENER : Huang Yu-chang

LAND LAW COMMITTEE

CONVENER : Yao Chuan-fa

THE JUDICIAL YUAN

PRESIDENT : Chu Cheng

VICE-PRESIDENT : Chin Cheng

SECRETARY-GENERAL : Mao Tsu-chuan

SUPREME COURT

PRESIDENT : Li Pa

CHIEF PROSECUTOR : Weng Ching-tang

ADMINISTRATIVE COURT

PRESIDENT : Chang Chih-peng

Huang Wen-shan
Li Chin-fang
Wang Pei-jen
Huang Yun-su
Chen Hai-teng
Wang Yi-han
Shen Yung
Wen Hsiung-fei
Tso Kung
Tsou Shan-chun
Li Ching-lin
Chien Yu-wen
R. Y. Lo
John C. H. Wu
Yeh Chiu-yuan
Chuan Cheng-ku
Chien Kwan-san
Yen Kuo-fu
Chen Hsun-tu
Sun Chiu-lu
Lu Fu
Liu Pu-tung
Chu Hsueh-fan
Tsao Chin-yuan

COMMISSION FOR THE DISCIPLINARY
PUNISHMENT OF PUBLIC
FUNCTIONARIES

CHAIRMAN : Wang Yung-pin

THE EXAMINATION YUAN

PRESIDENT : Tai Chi-tao

VICE-PRESIDENT : Chu Chia-hua

SECRETARY-GENERAL : Shih Shang-kwan

MINISTRY OF PERSONNEL

REGISTRATION

MINISTER : Chia Ching-teh

POLITICAL VICE-MINISTER :

Wang Tze-chwang

ADMINISTRATIVE VICE-MINISTER :

Ma Hung-huan

DIRECTOR, GENERAL AFFAIRS DEPARTMENT : Pu Shao-kan

DIRECTOR, REGISTRATION DEPARTMENT :

Chu Han-sheng

DIRECTOR, EXAMINATION DEPARTMENT :

Hsu Tao-lin

DIRECTOR, MERITS RECORDING DEPARTMENT : Chen Man-jo

DIRECTOR, AWARDS AND PENSION

DEPARTMENT : Tan Yi-kwei

COMMISSION OF CIVIL SERVICE

EXAMINATION

CHAIRMAN : Chen Ta-chi

VICE-CHAIRMAN : Shen Shih-yuan

COMMITTEE MEMBERS

Chang Mo-chun (Miss) Chu Hsi-tsu

Chang Chung-tao Chen Nien-chung

Lu Yu-tsun Wu Fei-pi

THE CONTROL YUAN

PRESIDENT : Yu Yu-jen

VICE-PRESIDENT : Liu Shang-ching

SECRETARY-GENERAL : Chen Chung-hsing

SUPERVISORY MEMBERS

Liu Cheng-yu

Shen Yi-mo

Li Meng-keng

Lin Ho-cheng

Yao Yu-ping

Cheh Chueh-lin

Wang Ping-cheng

Ho Han-wen

Hsieh Wu-liang

Wu Chien-chang

Kao Lu

Pai Peng-fei

Yen Chuang

Wu Han-tao

Hu Po-yueh

Wang Shu-tseng

Pai Jui

Ho Chao-tsung

Pa Wen-tsun

Yu Fen

Tseng Tao

Teng Chun-kao

Li Cheng-lo

Chow Li-sheng

Mei Kung-jen

Chang Hua-lan

Wang Hsien-chang

Lin Ching

Chu Tsung-liang

Chin Shou-kun

Wang Hsin-lin

Ho Keh-fu

Tsai Tze-sheng

Yeh Yuan-lung

Wang Tung
Ma Yao-nan
Tai Kwei-sheng
Han Tsun-chieh
Tien Chun-chin
Wan Tsan
Ku Feng-hsiang
Fan Cheng-po
Ho Chi-hung
Wu Nan-hsuan

Lin Yi-chung
Chien Chih-hsiu
Yang Pu-sheng
Tu Chen
Liu Shih-chuan
Wu Hui-liang
Hsiao Hsuan
Chu Lei-chang
Tuan Hung-kang
Li Hsiao-ting

SUPERVISORY COMMISSIONERS

Wu Shao-shu, Kiangsu
Yang Liang-kung, Anhwei and Kiangsi
Kao Lu, Fukien and Chekiang
Miao Pei-cheng, Hunan and Hupeh
Li Ssu-tsun, Honan and Shantung
Li Ken-yuan, Yunnan and Kweichow
Kao Yi-han, Kansu, Ningsia, and Chinghai
Liu Hou-wu, Kwangtung and Kwangsi
Wang Lu-yi, Shansi and Shensi
Lo Chia-luen, Sinkiang

MINISTRY OF AUDIT

MINISTER : Lin Yun-kai
POLITICAL VICE-MINISTER : Liu Chi-wen
ADMINISTRATIVE VICE-MINISTER :
Wang Chi-tien

PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENTS

ANHWEI PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSION

Li Pin-hsien, Chairman
Chu Fo-ting, concurrently Secretary-General
Wei Yung-cheng, concurrently Civil Affairs Commissioner
Kwei Ching-chiu, concurrently Finance Commissioner
Wan Chang-yen, concurrently Education Commissioner
Chu Ying-shih, concurrently Reconstruction Commissioner
Huang Shao-keng
Tsai Hao
Chang Yi-chun
Chang Tsung-liang
Su Ming
Cho Heng-tze
Liao Wei-fan
Chou Lan

CHAHAR PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSION

Feng Chin-tsai, Chairman
Pai Pao-chin, concurrently Civil Affairs Commissioner
Hsu Shih-fu, concurrently Finance Commissioner
Hu Tze-heng, concurrently Education Commissioner

Chang Li-sheng, concurrently Reconstruction Commissioner
Wang Jung-tsan
Kao Shu-hsun
Tai Hsi-tseng
Chen Hsiang-sheng
Shih Yu-yi
Sung Hsiu-feng, Secretary-General

CHEKIANG PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSION

Huang Shao-hsiung, Chairman
Li Li-min, concurrently Secretary-General
Juan Yi-cheng, concurrently Civil Affairs Commissioner
Huang Tsu-pei, concurrently Finance Commissioner
Hsu Shao-ti, concurrently Education Commissioner
Wu Ting-yang, concurrently Reconstruction Commissioner
Hsu Pan-yun
Hsu Fu
Ho Yang-ling

CHINGHAI PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSION

Ma Pu-fang, Chairman
Chen Hsien-jung, concurrently Secretary-General
Kou Hsueh-li, concurrently Civil Affairs Commissioner
Ma Lu, concurrently Finance Commissioner
Ma Shao-wu, concurrently Education Commissioner
Ma Chi, concurrently Reconstruction Commissioner
Liu Cheng-teh
Hsieh Kang-chieh
Ma Chi-pa

FUKIEN PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSION

Liu Chien-hsu, Chairman
Cheng Hsing-ling, concurrently Secretary-General
Kao Teng-ting, concurrently Civil Affairs Commissioner
Yen Chia-kan, concurrently Finance Commissioner
Cheng Chen-wen, concurrently Education Commissioner
Lu Kwei-hsiang, concurrently Reconstruction Commissioner
Huang Tien-chueh
Lin Yu-shih
Chu Chiu-ying
Han Han
Chen Pei-kun
Li Shih-chia
Chiu Han-ping

**HEILUNGKIANG PROVINCIAL
GOVERNMENT**

MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSION
Ma Chan-shan, Chairman
Jung Lu-su, Secretary-General

HONAN PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSION
Li Pei-chi, Chairman
Fang Cheh, concurrently Civil Affairs
Commissioner
Peng Yu-kang, concurrently Finance
Commissioner
Lu Tang-ping, concurrently Education
Commissioner
Chang Kwang-yu, concurrently Recon-
struction Commissioner
Sung Huan-chung
Li Ming-chung
Lo Chen
Chang Chun-ming
Li Chin-jung
Wang Yu-chiao
Yang Chung-ming
Chi Chen-ju
Tien Chen-nan
Ma Kuo-lin, Secretary-General

HOPEI PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSION
Pang Ping-hsun, Chairman*
Hu Meng-hua, concurrently Secretary-
General
Chan Chao-yang, concurrently Civil
Affairs Commissioner
Wang Teh-chien, concurrently Finance
Commissioner
Ho Yi-hsin, concurrently Education
Commissioner
Ting Shu-pen
Li Hsi-chiu
Teng Cheh-hsi
Yin Yao-wu
Ma Huau-wen
Pi Cheh-yu

HUNAN PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSION
Hsueh Yueh, Chairman
Wang Kwang-hai, concurrently Secretary-
General
Li Yang-ching, concurrently Civil Affairs
Commissioner
Hu Mai, concurrently Finance Com-
missioner
Wang Teng-kai, concurrently Education
Commissioner
Yu Chieh-chuan, concurrently Recons-
truction Commissioner
Tan Tao-yuan
Tao Lu-chien
Chen Chu-chen
Liu Hsing
Mao Ping-wen

HUPEH PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSION
Chen Cheng, Chairman
Hsu Ying-lien, concurrently Secretary-
General
Chu Huai-ping, concurrently Civil Affairs
Commissioner
Chao Chih-yao, concurrently Finance
Commissioner
Chang Po-chin, concurrently Education
Commissioner
Chu Yi-cheng, concurrently Reconstruc-
tion Commissioner
Chu Tai-chieh
Lin Yi-sheng
Li Shih-chiao
Chow Tsang-po
Huang Chung-hsun
Ho Shao-nan

JEHOL PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Liu To-chuan, Chairman
Hung Sheng, concurrently Secretary-
General

KANSU PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSION
Ku Cheng-lun, Chairman
Chen Ching-lieh, concurrently Secretary-
General
Wang Shu-fang, concurrently Civil Affairs
Commissioner
Chen Kuo-liang, concurrently Finance
Commissioner
Cheng Tung-ho, concurrently Education
Commissioner
Cheng Hsin-yi, concurrently Reconstruc-
tion Commissioner
Tien Kun-shan
Chao Lung-wen
Kao Wen-po
Teng Pao-shan
La Shih-tsun

KIANGSI PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSION
Tsao Hao-shen, Chairman
Hu Chia-feng, concurrently Secretary-
General
Wang Tse-fu, concurrently Civil Affairs
Commissioner
Wen Chun, concurrently Finance
Commissioner
Cheng Shih-kwei, concurrently Education
Commissioner
Yang Cho-an, concurrently Recon-
struction Commissioner
Hu Chia-shao
Li Teh-chao
Chiu Chun
Hsiao Chun-chin
Hsiung Sui

* Captured by the Japanese in May, 1943.

Succeeded by General Ma Fa-wu.

KIANGSU PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT**MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSION**

Han Teh-chin, Chairman
 Wang Kung-yu, concurrently Civil Affairs
 Commissioner
 Chia Shih-yi, concurrently Finance
 Commissioner
 Chin Tsung-hua, concurrently Education
 Commissioner
 Cheng Ching-sheng, concurrently Re-
 construction Commissioner
 Li Ming-yang
 Pao Shu-ming
 Miao Cheng-liu
 Chia Wen-shan
 Wang Keng-chung
 Ma Chen-pang
 Ku Hsi-chiu, Secretary-General

KIRIN PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT**MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSION**

Tsou Tso-hua, Chairman
 Cheng Lieh, Secretary-General

KWANGSI PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT**MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSION**

Huang Hsu-chu, Chairman
 Chiu Chang-wei, concurrently Secretary-
 General
 Chu Chao-shen, concurrently Civil Affairs
 Commissioner
 Wang Hsun-tze, concurrently Finance
 Commissioner
 Su Hsi-hsun, concurrently Education
 Commissioner
 Kan Tsung-hua, concurrently Re-
 construction Commissioner
 Chen Liang-tsu
 Sun Jen-lin
 Tseng Chi-hsin
 Liang Chao-chi
 Lu Ching-tsun

**KWANGTUNG PROVINCIAL
GOVERNMENT****MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSION**

Li Han-huen, Chairman
 Cheng Yen-fen, concurrently Secretary-
 General
 Ho Tung, concurrently Civil Affairs
 Commissioner
 Chang Tao-min, concurrently Finance
 Commissioner
 Huang Lin-shu, concurrently Education
 Commissioner
 Cheng Feng, concurrently Reconstruction
 Commissioner
 Hu Ming-tsao
 Hsu Chung-ching
 Wu Nai-hsien
 Wang Chih-yuan
 Kao Hsin
 Liu Tso-jen
 Fang Shao-yun

**KWEICHOW PROVINCIAL
GOVERNMENT****MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSION**

Wu Ting-chang, Chairman
 Cheng Tao-ju, concurrently Secretary-
 General
 Tan Ke-min, concurrently Civil Affairs
 Commissioner
 Y. T. Tsur, concurrently Finance
 Commissioner
 Ou Yuan-huai, concurrently Education
 Commissioner
 Yeh Chi-yuan, concurrently Re-
 construction Commissioner
 Yen Shen-yu
 Ho Yu-shu
 Ho Chi-wu

LIAONING PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT**MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSION**

Wan Fu-lin, Chairman
 Hung Fang, Secretary-General

NINGZIA PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT**MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSION**

Ma Hung-kwei, Chairman
 Hai Tao, concurrently Civil Affairs
 Commissioner
 Chao Wen-fu, concurrently Finance
 Commissioner
 Wang Hsing-chou, concurrently
 Education Commissioner
 Li Han-yuan, concurrently Reconstruc-
 tion Commissioner
 Ta-Li-Cha-Ya
 Ma Ju-lung
 Chang Tien-wu
 Ma Chi-teh
 Wang Pei
 Chien Tun-tao, Secretary-General

SHANSI PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT**MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSION**

Chao Tai-wen, Chairman
 Chiu Yang-chun, concurrently Civil
 Affairs Commissioner
 Wang Ping, concurrently Finance
 Commissioner
 Po Yu-hsiang, concurrently Education
 Commissioner
 Fan Hsiang-li, concurrently Re-
 construction Commissioner
 Liang Tun-hou
 Wang Huai-ming
 Yeh Ting-yang
 Li Chiang
 Tu Jen-chih
 Pai Chih-yi
 Hsi Shang-chien
 Hsu Shih-hung
 Ning Shao-wu, Secretary-General

SHANTUNG PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT**MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSION**

Mou Chung-yen, Chairman
 Chen Kwan-chun, concurrently Secretary-General
 Ho Sze-yuan, concurrently Civil Affairs Commissioner
 Chen Ping-yen, concurrently Finance Commissioner
 Liu Tao-yuan, concurrently Education Commissioner
 Chin Chi-jung, concurrently Reconstruction Commissioner
 Chou Fu
 Wang Chung-yu
 Wu Hua-wen
 Chia Mu-yi
 Li Hsien-liang
 Pei Ming-yu
 Lin Ming-chiu
 Kao Jen-fu, concurrently Peace Preservation Corps Commander

SHENSI PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT**MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSION**

Hsiung Pin, Chairman
 Ku Jen-fa, concurrently Secretary-General
 Peng Chao-hsien, concurrently Civil Affairs Commissioner
 Chou Chieh-chun, concurrently Finance Commissioner
 Wang Chieh-san, concurrently Education Commissioner
 Chen Ching-yu, concurrently Reconstruction Commissioner
 Chang Nai-wei
 Liu Chih-chou
 Ma Ling-fu
 Liu Chu-tsai
 Li Chih-kang

SIKANG PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT**MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSION**

Liu Wen-hui, Chairman
 Chang Wei-chun, concurrently Civil Affairs Commissioner
 Li Wan-hua, concurrently Finance Commissioner
 Han Meng-chun, concurrently Education Commissioner
 Liu Yi-yen, concurrently Reconstruction Commissioner
 Wang Ching-yu
 Yang Yung-tsun
 Ke-Tsung

Tuan Pan-chi
 Lo Mei-lun
 Li Ching-hsuan

SINKIANG PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT**MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSION**

Sheng Shih-tsai, Chairman
 Huang Fei-chang, concurrently Secretary-General
 Hu Shou-kang, concurrently Finance Commissioner
 Chen Tung-pai, concurrently Education Commissioner
 Lin Chi-yung, concurrently Reconstruction Commissioner
 Chen Teh-li
 Sha-Li-Fu-Han
 Hu Ting-wei
 Yu Wen-ping
 Man-Chu-Ke-Cha-Pu
 Ho-Chia-Ni-Ya-Tze

SUIYUAN PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT**MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSION**

Fu Tso-yi, Chairman
 Chen Ping-chien, concurrently Civil Affairs Commissioner
 Li Chu-yi, concurrently Finance Commissioner
 Pan Hsiu-jen, concurrently Education Commissioner
 Tseng Hou-tsai, concurrently Reconstruction Commissioner
 O-Chi-Erh-Hu-Ya-Ke-Tu
 Yen Wei
 Yun-Tung-Wang-Chu-Keh
 Wang Tseh-ting
 Wang Kuo-ying
 Yu Chun-chai, Secretary-General

SZECHWAN PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT**MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSION**

Chang Chun, Chairman
 Li Shao-fu, concurrently Secretary-General
 Hu Tze-wei, concurrently Civil Affairs Commissioner
 Shih Ti-yuan, concurrently Finance Commissioner
 Kuo Yu-shou, concurrently Education Commissioner
 Hu Tze-nang, concurrently Reconstruction Commissioner
 Shen Peng
 Wu Ching-po
 Leng Hsun-nan
 Yu Cheng-hsun
 Liang Ying-wen

YUNNAN PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT**MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSION**

Lung Yun, Chairman
 Yuan Pi-yu, concurrently Secretary-General
 Li Pei-tien, concurrently Civil Affairs Commissioner
 Lu Chung-jen, concurrently Finance Commissioner
 Kung Tze-chih, concurrently Education Commissioner
 Chang Pang-han, concurrently Reconstruction Commissioner
 Lu Han
 Hu Ying
 Chang Wei-han
 Chin Han-ting
 Chang Feng-chun
 Ting Chao-kwan
 Tang Chi-lin
 Miao Chia-ming

MEMBERS OF THE THIRD PEOPLE'S POLITICAL COUNCIL

Anhwei : Ma Ching-chang
 Chen Tieh
 Mei Kuang-ti
 Wu Tsang-chow
 Kuang Sheng
 Han Li-wu
 Mrs. Herman Liu (nee Wang Li-ming)
 Hsi Lun
 Shensi : Chang Feng-hui
 Li Chih-ting
 Chang Shou-yueh
 Wang Pu-han
 Chao Ho-ting
 Chang Tan-ping
 Hunan : Chang Chun
 Hsin Shu-chih
 Hu Shu-hua
 Wang Feng-chieh
 Tso Shun-sheng
 Chao Chun-mai
 Teng Fei-huang
 Li Yu-yao
 Kwangsi : Yang Shu-pao
 Huang Tung-chou
 Lei Pei-hung
 Huang Chung-yueh
 Chiang Chi-yi
 Lin Hu
 Kwangtung : Lu Tsung-chi
 Chin Tseng-teng
 Huang Fan-yi
 Han Han-fan
 Chen Shao-hsien
 Yang, Tze-yi
 Hu Mu-lan (Miss)
 Kao Ting-hsin

Fukien :

Chiang Yung
 Kang Shao-chow
 Wang Shih-ying
 Shih Lei
 Hu Chao-hsiang
 Chen Po-sheng

Shantung :

Fu Ssu-nien
 Fan Yu-sui
 Liu Kung-hsiao
 Kung Ling-tsan
 Li Han-ming
 Ting Chi-shih
 Chin Ho-sheng
 Chao Ta-mou

Kiangsi :

Chang Kuo-tao
 Wang Kuan-ying
 Li Chung-hsiang
 Ho Jen-hao
 Kan Chia-hsing
 Yin Ching-jang
 Wang Yu-yung
 Wu Yu-jui

Honan :

Li Han-chen
 Kuo Chung-wei
 Wang Kung-mieh
 Chang Chih-chen
 Li Ming-chang
 Wang Yin-san
 Liu Chien-ching
 Lo Meng-cheh

Hupeh :

Kung Keng
 Li Chien-ting
 Yu Yu-chih
 Chu Li-chin
 Yen Li-san
 Chang Nan-hsien
 Li Lien-fang
 Huang Chien-chung

Szechwan :

Huang Su-fang
 Tsao Shu-shih
 Tan Mao-hsin
 Li Cho-jen
 Chen Chih-hsueh
 Peng Ko-chen
 Liu Ming-yang
 Chu Chih-hung

Yunnan :

Li Pei-yen
 Chao Shu
 Sun Pang-chen (Miss)
 Wang Chi-fu
 Yang Yin-nan
 Lung Ti-yao

Kweichow :

Wang Ya-ming
 Ma Tsung-jung
 Huang Yu-jen
 Chang Ting-hua

Kansu :

Lo Lin-tsao
 Chu Kuan-san
 Chang Tso-mo
 Wang Wei-yung

Chinghai :	Li Chia Chang Chang-jung	Shanghai :	Tao Po-chuan Hsi Yu-shu Chen Ting-jui
Sikang :	Huang Ju-chien Chang Chi	Nanking :	Chen Yu-kuang Lu Chien
Ningsia :	Chow Shih-kuan Yu Kuang-ho	Peiping :	Tao Meng-ho Chen Shih-chuan
Chungking :	Lung Wen-chih Hu Chung-shih Pan Chang-yu	Tientsin :	Chang Po-ling
Chekiang :	Chu Fu-cheng Chen Chi-yeh Hu Chien-chung Liu Po-min Eugene Y. P. Kiang Ho Kwei-lien Yeh Suo-chung Chen Hsi-hao	Tsingtao :	Yang Chen-sheng
		Sian :	Han Fei-hsiao
		Tibet :	Lo-Sang-Cha-Hsi Ting Chieh Hsi-Jao-Chia-Tsuo
Hopei :	Keng Yi Wang Chi-chiang Liu Yao-chang Chang Ai-sung Chang Chih-chiang Wei Yuan-kuang Liang Shih-chiu Ma Hsi-fan	Mongolia :	Li Yung-hsin Chin Chih-chao Ah Fu-shou Su Lu-tai Ti-lu-wa Hutuktu
		Overseas :	Tom Chan B. S. Fong Ho Pao-jen (So Be-yun) Lien Ying-chow Soohoo Meihong Hsu Sheng-li Lim Keng-nien Li Wen-chen
Kiangsu :	Chang Yi-lin Leng Shih Chiang Heng-yuan Chen Yuan Hsueh Ming-chien Ku Chieh-kang Chang Wei-chen (Miss) Hsiao Yi-shan	MEMBERS ELECTED IN ACCORDANCE WITH SECTION D OF ARTICLE III OF THE ORGANIC LAW OF THE PEOPLE'S POLITICAL COUNCIL	
Shansi :	Liang Shang-tung Li Hung-wen Ya Tsun Chang Nai-hsi	Shao Tsung-en	G. Yun Chang
		Yu Pin	Wu Chi-mei (Miss)
		Wang Yun-wu	Teng Chao-ying
		Chang Jen	Liu Heng-ching (Miss)
		Huang Yen-pei	Chen Yi-yun (Miss)
		Wang Hsiao-lai	Tan Ping-shan
		Chang Shih-chao	Chen Shao-yu
		Li Huang	Lu Yun-chang (Miss)
		Chen Pao-yin	Teng Ying-chao
		Chang Tung	(Mrs. Chow En-lai)
		Tseng Chi	Ma Cheng-feng
		Chow Tao-kang	Hsu Ping-chang
		James Y. C. Yen	Tung Pi-wu
		Chiu Ao	Yu Chia-chu
		Pi Tsung-shih	Chen Shih
		Fan Jui	Chen Chi-tien
		Hsu Hsiao-yen	Hu Chiu-yuan
		Mao Tseh-tung	Hsu Teh-heng
		Lin Tsu-han	Cheng Hsi-meng
		Chow Lan	Chang Hsi-jo
		Peng Yuan-yi	Sa Meng-wu
		Yang Tuan-lu	Hsieh Ping-hsin
		Cheng Sheh-ngo	(Miss)
		Chang Yi-shu	Lo Heng (Miss)
		Chin Pang-hsien	Li Li-chow
		Chang Chun-mai	Ta Pu-sheng
		Chien Tuan-sheng	Hu Lin
		Wu Yi-fang (Miss)	Tang Kuo-chen (Miss)
		Chien Yung-ming	Ha Ti-erh
		Tao Hsuan (Miss)	Hsu Wen-hsiang
		Chow Ping-lin	An-Wang-Chien-Tsan
Heilungkiang :	Ma Yi Wang Shou-chang		
Jehol :	Tan Wen-pin Mao Shao-ching		

RESIDENT MEMBERS

Kung Keng	Kuo Chung-wei
Chu Fu-cheng	Lin Hu
Li Chung-hsiang	An-Wang-Chien-Tsao
Wang Yun-wu	Leng Shih
Teng Fei-huang	Huang Yen-pei
Chen Po-sheng	Yu Pin
Hsu Hsiao-yen	Lo Heng
Han Li-wu	Ho Pao-jen
Tao Po-chuan	Tung Pi-wu
Eugene Y. P. Kiang	Chen Chi-tien
Tan Mao-hsin	Hsu Teh-heng
Chiang Yung	Wang Pu-han
Wang Chi-chiang	

CHINESE**DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATIVES IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES****AUSTRALIA**

Hsu Mo, Minister with Ambassadorial Rank
 Tuan Mao-lan, Counsellor
 Hu Ching-yu, First Secretary
 Ke Chu-kwang, Additional First Secretary
 Cheng Kang-chi, Second Secretary
 Li Chin, Third Secretary

BELGIUM

Wunsz King, Minister*

BRAZIL

Tan Shao-hwa, Minister**
 Chang Keng-nien, Counsellor and First Secretary
 Liao Cheng-liu, Second Secretary
 Liu Si-chang, Second Secretary
 Chen Kwang-li, Second Secretary
 Wu Kien-yeh, Third Secretary

BRITAIN

V. K. Wellington Koo, Ambassador
 Chen Wei-cheng, Counsellor
 Shih Chao-kuei, Additional Counsellor
 Tan Pao-shen, Counsellor and First Secretary
 Liang Chun-li, First Secretary
 Chien Tsun-tien, Additional First Secretary
 Fu Kuan-hsiung, Additional First Secretary
 Chai Feng-yang, Second Secretary
 Loh Ming-sin, Additional Third Secretary
 Colonel Tang Pao-huang, Military Attache

CANADA

Liu Shih-shun, Minister
 Li Chao, First Secretary
 Lee Bing-shuey, Second Secretary
 Hwang Ke-lun, Third Secretary

*Tsien Tai appointed Chinese Ambassador to the Belgium Government in London in February, 1943.

**Chen Chieh appointed Chinese Ambassador to Brazil in June, 1943.

CHILE

P. C. Chang, Minister
 Dai Pao-liu, First Secretary
 Wu Ke-wei, Second Secretary
 Chen Shu-shih, Additional Secretary
 Sun Pang-hua, Second Secretary

COLUMBIA

Tan Shao-hwa, Minister

COSTA RICA

Tu Yuen-tan, Minister
 Wang Jung-ti, Second Secretary

CUBA

Li Ti-tsun, Minister
 Yuan Tao-feng, First Secretary
 Hoo Che-shy, Second Secretary

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Wunsz King, Minister

EGYPT

Tang Wu, First Secretary in Charge of Legation Affairs
 Sih Dai-chiang, Third Secretary
 Chen Yuan-ping, Additional Third Secretary

FRANCE

Kou Tse-fan, Counsellor and Charge d'Affaires
 Scie Ton-fa, Counsellor and First Secretary
 Ken Kia-tao, Third Secretary

HONDURAS

Tu Yuen-tan, Minister

INDIA

Shen Shih-hwa, Commissioner
 D. J. Lao, Second Secretary
 Chuang Ching-chi, Third Secretary

IRAN

Li Tieh-tseng, Minister
 Wang Nien-tsou, First Secretary

MEXICO

Ching Tien-ku, Minister
 Chang Tien-yuen, First Secretary
 Chenmu M. Chen, Second Secretary
 Yen Wan-li, Second Secretary
 Chu Yung-shou, Additional Second Secretary

NETHERLANDS

Wunsz King, Ambassador
 Chao Hui-mu, Second Secretary
 Wang Ting-shan, Third Secretary

PANAMA

Tu Yuen-tan, Minister
 P. H. Lee, First Secretary
 Lu Yen-shen, Second Secretary
 Li Ti-chien, Second Secretary

PERU

Li Tchuin, Minister
 Lin Jen-chow, First Secretary
 Chang Shu-hsun, Third Secretary
 Ding Tsung-woo, Third Secretary

POLAND

Wunsz King, Minister

PORTUGAL

Chinglun Frank W. Lee, Minister
 Liu Nai-chun, First Secretary
 Yang Hsien-tsen First Secretary
 Lou Che-ngant, Second Secretary
 Fang Pao-chung, Third Secretary

SWEDEN

Hsieh Wei-lin, Minister
 Hsia Sung-yo, Second Secretary
 Shou Ting, Second Secretary

SWITZERLAND

Jen Ki-sin, First Secretary in Charge of
 Legation Affairs
 Lee Yone-ming, Second Secretary
 Ho Hsiang-ling, Second Secretary

TURKEY

Tsou Shang-yu, Minister
 Yuen Tse-kien, First Secretary
 Ma Fu-liang, First Secretary
 Chiu Tsou-ming, Second Secretary
 Siao King-fang, Second Secretary
 Yoh Lun, Second Secretary
 Yen Yung-son, Third Secretary
 Hsu Fu-yun, Additional Third Secretary

**UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST
REPUBLICS**

P. S. Foo, Ambassador
 Chen Ting, Counsellor
 Chen Tai-chu, First Secretary
 Yang Shu-jen, First Secretary
 Kou Tseng-chi, Second Secretary
 Yin Ken-hu, Second Secretary
 Sia Tze-tun, Third Secretary
 Air Colonel Hsu Huan-sheng, Air Attache

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Wei Tao-ming, Ambassador
 Liu Chieh, Minister
 Siu Kong-sou, Counsellor
 Tsui Tswen-ling, First Secretary
 Peng Wong-yih, Additional First
 Secretary
 Yu Kien-wen, Second Secretary
 Wang Kung-shou, Additional Third
 Secretary
 Hsieh Ching-kien, Third Secretary and
 Additional Attache
 Major-General Chu Shih-ming, Military
 Attache
 Air Major-General P. H. Huang, Air
 Attache

THE VATICAN

Sie Cheou-kang, Minister
 Wang Hsiao-hsi, First Secretary
 Chang Chia-yung, Second Secretary

VENEZUELA

Tan Shao-hwa, Minister

**FOREIGN DIPLOMATIC
REPRESENTATIVES IN
CHUNGKING*****AUSTRALIA**

Sir Frederic William Eggleston, Minister
 J. K. Waller, Second Secretary
 Charles Lee, Third Secretary

BELGIUM

Baron Jules Guillaume, Ambassador
 Jacques Smets, Second Secretary
 Joseph Pieters, Secretary

BRITAIN

Sir Horace James Seymour, Ambassador
 Sir Eric Teichman, Counsellor
 Major-General Gordon E. Grimsdale,
 C.O.C., British Military Mission and
 Military Attache
 Air Commodore J. Warburton, R.A.F.,
 Air Attache
 E. L. Hall-Patch, Financial Commis-
 sioner (Absent)
 W. C. Cassels, Acting Assistant Financial
 Commissioner
 B. E. F. Gage, First Secretary
 G. V. Kitson, Chinese Secretary
 G. Findlay Andrew, First Secretary
 Lt.-Col. W. G. Harmon, First Secretary
 W. V. Blewett, First Secretary (Economic
 Affairs)
 H. E. Watterson, First Secretary
 Stanley Smith, Representative of the
 British Ministry of Information
 E. Williams, Accounting Officer
 Erik Watts, Press Attache

*The first Canadian Minister to China, Major-General Victor Wentworth Odium, arrived in Chungking in May, 1943. His staff includes: Dr. George S. Patterson, Counselor; Major H. F. Wooster, Assistant Military Attache; Ralph E. Collins, Third Secretary.

E. B. Boothby, Second Secretary
 Major E. J. Cowell, Assistant Military
 Attache
 Wing Commander Max Oxford, Assistant
 Air Attache
 J. F. Ford, Assistant Chinese Secretary
 L. C. Smith, Assistant Press Attache
 John Blofeld, Attache (Cultural Relations
 Officer)
 T. J. Fisher, Attache (Assistant for
 Refugees)
 P. C. M. Sedgwick, Attache (Assistant for
 Refugees)
 Major J. H. Monro, Attache
 Major A. L. V. St. Giles, Attache
 A. Veitch, Archiviste
 N. G. Standen, Attache
 Capt. G. R. Dew, Attache
 Capt. C. R. G. Hardinge, Attache
 Capt. A. Grant, Attache
 Capt. I. M. Lightbody, Attache
 Capt. H. R. Finlow, Attache

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Stanislav Minovsky, Minister
 Emanuel Mazac, Secretary

FRANCE

J. Paul-Boncour, First Counsellor
 A. Beaulieux, Counsellor
 Capitaine J. Guillelmaz, Assistant Military
 Attache

INDIA

K. P. S. Menon, Agent-General *
 H. E. Richardson, I.C.S., Secretary

MEXICO

Alfonso Castro Valle, Charge d'Affaires

NETHERLANDS

H. A. Lovink, Ambassador
 Count de Marchant et d'Ansembourg,
 Counsellor
 Jan van den Berg, Counsellor
 R. H. van Gulik, Secretary
 Lieutenant P. F. J. Everard, Assistant
 Military Attache

NORWAY

A. L. F. Hassel, Minister
 T. A. Rustad, Archiviste

POLAND

Count Alfred Poninski, Ambassador
 Miocyslaw Habicht, Attache
 Antoni H. Kokczynski, Attache
 Colonel Aleksander Kedzior, Military
 Attache

TURKEY

A. Mennan Tebelen, Charge d'Affaires
 Osman Derinsu, Secretary

UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS

A. S. Paniushkin, Ambassador
 G. F. Rezanov, Counsellor
 T. F. Skvortsoff, Counsellor
 I. V. Bakulin, Trade Representative
 N. S. Ananiev, First Secretary
 A. A. Petrov, First Secretary
 N. V. Roshchin, Assistant Military Attache
 A. F. Bedniakoff, Assistant Military
 Attache
 L. M. Miklashevsky, Second Secretary
 E. F. Kovaleff, Second Secretary
 N. T. Fedorenko, Third Secretary
 E. I. Shalunov, Chinese Secretary
 A. M. Dorofeev, Attache
 N. I. Ugolkoff, Attache
 A. M. Ledovsky, Attache

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

C. E. Gauss, Ambassador
 George Atcheson, Jr., Counsellor
 Colonel Morris B. De Pass, Jr., Military
 Attache and Military Attache for Air
 Lieutenant-Colonel Charles C. Brown,
 Naval Attache and Naval Attache
 for Air
 J. Barlett Richards, Commercial Attache
 Robert B. Streeper, Second Secretary
 O. Edmund Clubb, Second Secretary
 Robert S. Ward, Second Secretary
 Horace H. Smith, Second Secretary
 Everett F. Drumright, Second Secretary
 James K. Penfield, Second Secretary
 Arthur R. Ringwalt, Second Secretary
 John Davies, Jr., Second Secretary
 Raymond P. Ludden, Second Secretary
 Edward E. Rice, Second Secretary
 John S. Service, Second Secretary
 Lieutenant William J. Grace, Assistant
 Naval Attache
 Lieutenant Frank H. Herrington,
 Assistant Naval Attache
 Lieutenant Henry B. Walker, Assistant
 Military Attache
 Lieutenant Lincoln C. Brownell, Assistant
 Military Attache for Air
 Lieutenant Roy P. McNair, Jr., Assistant
 Military Attache
 Lieutenant Franklin R. Fette, Assistant
 Naval Attache and Assistant Naval
 Attache for Air
 Lieutenant Simon H. Hitch, Assistant
 Naval Attache and Assistant Naval
 Attache for Air
 Carl H. Boehringer, Assistant Commercial
 Attache
 Philip D. Sprouse, Third Secretary
 Richard H. Davis, Third Secretary
 Fulton Freeman, Third Secretary
 Hungerford B. Howard, Third Secretary
 M. Robert Rutherford, Third Secretary

* Expected to arrive in Chungking summer 1948.

CHAPTER XXV

CHINESE WHO'S WHO

Ai, Wei (prefers T. W. Ai)

professor, born in Hupeh, 1891; B.S. St. John's Univ., 1919; M.A. Columbia, 1922; Ph.D. George Washington Univ., 1925; research fellow, Univ. College, London, 1931-32; now professor, National Central Univ.; address, National Central Univ., Chungking.

Ai, T. W. (see Ai, Wei).

Chan, Chak (see Chen, Tzeh).

Chan, Chu-shih

Kuomintang leader, born in Kwangtung, 1895; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1931.

Chang, Carson (see Chang, Chun-mai).

Chang, Chao-yuan

government official, lawyer; born in Chekiang, 1892; B.A. St. John's Univ., 1914; M.A. Columbia, 1916; J.D. Chicago, 1919; vice-minister of finance, 1928-29; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1939; address, Kiang Hai Bank, Chungking.

Chang, Chen

Lieut.-General

army officer, born in Hunan, 1899; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy, 1925; and Sun Yat-sen Univ., Moscow, 1927; deputy commander of gendarmerie, since 1937; dean, Gendarmerie School, since 1940; address, P.O. Box 106, Chungking.

Chang, Cheng

Lieut.-General

military officer, born in Fukien, 1884; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1929; now senior staff officer, National Military Council, and chairman, 4th inspection corps of army discipline in war areas.

Chang, Cheng-lu

government official, born in Liaoning, 1894; graduate, Peking Military Supplies School, 1921; member and finance commissioner, Liaoning Provincial Government, 1928-31; member, economic committee, Hopei Political Council, 1936-37; member, People's Political Council, since 1938; address, 2 Sze Luen Chun, Shan Tung, Chungking.

Chang, Chi

Kuomintang leader, born in Hopei, 1882; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1924; chairman, Hopei branch, Kuomintang Central Political Council, 1928; state councillor, National Government, and vice-president, Judicial Yuan, 1928-31; president, same Yuan, 1932; elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1929; address, Kuomintang Central Headquarters, Chungking.

Chang Chi-yun (prefers G. Yun Chang)

professor, writer, born in Chekiang, 1901; graduate, Nanking Normal College, 1923; former professor of geography, National Central University and Central Political Institute; member, National Resources Commission; head, department of history and geography, National Chekiang Univ., since 1936; author, *History of Chinese Military Operations*, *Great Chinese Educators*; address, National Chekiang Univ., Tsunyi, Kweichow.

Chang, Chia-ao (prefers Chang Kia-ngau)

government official, banker; born in Kiangsu, 1888; graduate, Keio Univ., Tokyo, 1912; vice-governor, Bank of China, 1917-28; managing director and general manager, same bank, 1928-35; deputy governor, Central Bank of China, 1935; minister of railways, 1935-37; minister of communications, 1937-42; adviser, Executive Yuan, since 1942; address, Executive Yuan, Chungking.

Changchia Hutuketu

Mongolian Living Buddha, born in Ching-hai, 1892; elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1926; now special commissioner to Mongolian banners.

Chang, Chiang

Kuomintang leader, born in Chekiang, 1901; graduate, National Peking University; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935; now vice-minister, Kuomintang Organization Board; address, Organization Board, Chungking.

Chang, Chih-chung**General**

army officer, born in Anhwei, 1891; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1916; studied military science in Germany, 1931-32; former commander, 87th division, and commander, 5th army; defended Shanghai area in co-operation with 19th route army in 1932; dean, Central Military Academy, 1932-37; garrison commander, Nanking-Shanghai area, 1937, commanding all Chinese forces fighting Japan in Shanghai-Woosung area, 1937; governor, Hunan Province, 1937-39; aide-de-camp to the Generalissimo, 1940; now minister, political training board, National Military Council, and secretary-general, San Min Chu I Youth Corps; holder of Blue-sky & White-sun Medal and several other decorations; address, Political Training Board, National Military Council, Chungking.

Chang, Chih-cheng

government official, born in Honan, 1894; former member and finance commissioner, Honan Provincial Government; member, People's Political Council, since 1942; address, 4, Yiyung East Street, Loyang, Honan.

Chang, Chih-pen

government official, born in Hupeh, 1881; graduate, Law College, Tokyo; governor, Hupeh Province, 1927-28; vice-chairman, constitution drafting committee, and member, Legislative Yuan, 1933; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1931; president, Administrative Court, since 1943; address, c/o Judicial Yuan, Chungking.

Chang, Chien (prefers Henry K. Chang)

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1889; LL.B. Pennsylvania, 1909; Consul-General at San Francisco, 1929; consul-general at New York, 1931; charge d'affaires at Santiago, 1932; minister to Chile, 1933-42; director, department of American affairs, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, since 1942; address, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Chungking.

Chang, Chih-chiang**General**

(prefers Paul C. C. Chang)
army officer, educator; born in Hopei, 1881; former military governor of Chahar, *tupan* of Northwestern frontier defense, inspector-general for Honan, Shensi and Kansu Provinces; member of State Council and concurrently chairman of national opium-suppression committee, 1928-30; bandit-suppression commissioner

for Kiangsu, 1930-31; counsellor, Military Advisory Council, 1928, 1932, 1942; now president, National Physical Culture Institute, and member, People's Political Council; address, National Physical Culture Institute, Peipei, Chungking.

Chang Chih-kuang

educator, born in Chahar, 1891; graduate, Peiping Normal College, 1918; dean, 1935-40; principal, since 1940; National 4th Middle School member, People's Political Council; since 1941; address, 5, Cho Peng Street, Huang Sha-Chi Chen, Chungking.

Chang, Ching-hai (prefers H. H. Chang)

diplomatic official, born in Chekiang, 1898; B.A. Johns Hopkins, 1919; M.A. (1920) and Ph.D. (1922), Harvard; Minister to Portugal, 1933; minister to Poland, 1934-1937.

Chang, Ching-yu

government official, born in Shantung, 1895; studied at Liverpool; member and reconstruction commissioner, Honan Provincial Government, 1932-38; superintendent of opium suppression, Szechwan and Sikang, 1938-40; director, taxation administration, Ministry of Finance, since 1940; address, Ministry of Finance, Chungking.

Chang, Chun**General**

government official, born in Szechwan, 1888; graduate, Japanese Military Cadets' Academy; chief adviser to Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek and member of National Military Council, 1926-28; director-general, Shanghai Arsenal, 1928; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1928; mayor of Shanghai, 1930-31; governor, Hupeh Province, 1933-35; Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1935-37; secretary-general, Central Political Council, 1937; Vice-President, Executive Yuan, and director, headquarters of president of National Military Council in Szechwan, 1938; secretary-general, Supreme National Defense Council, 1939; director, Chengtu Headquarters of president of National Military Council, and governor of Szechwan Province, since 1940; address, Szechwan Provincial Government, Chengtu.

Chang, Chun-mai (prefers Carson Chang)

jurist, born in Kiangsu, 1886; educated in Japan, Germany and England; member, People's Political Council, since

1938; member of presidium, same council, 1940-42; leader, Chinese National Socialist Party; address, People's Political Council, Chungking.

Chang, Chung-fu

government official, born in Hupeh, 1901; B.A. Michigan, 1925; M.A. Harvard, 1927; Johns Hopkins, 1929; professor of political science, National Peking Univ., 1933-37; member, People's Political Council, 1938-42; counsellor, National Military Council, since 1937; author, *The Anglo-Japanese Alliance, History of Chinese Diplomacy*; address, 4 Yu Shih Street, Chungking.

Chang, Fah-kwei

General

army commander, born in Kwangtung, 1896; graduate, Hupeh Military Academy; former commander, 12th division, 4th army (Ironsides), and 2nd group army; elected member, Central Supervisory Committee of Kuomintang, 1931; toured Europe and America for several years and returned to China in 1935; commander, bandit-suppression forces, Chekiang-Fukien-Anhwei-Kiangsi border area, 1936; commander-in-chief, 4th War Area, since 1939; address, Liuchow, Kwangsi.

Chang, Fang

General

military officer, born in Honan, 1886; reconstruction commissioner, Honan Provincial Government, 1928; acting governor and civil affairs commissioner, Honan Provincial Government, 1930; commander-in-chief, 20th route army, 1930; commander-in-chief, 12th army corps, 1937; commander-in-chief, reserve army, 1938; vice-president, Military Advisory Council, since 1938; address, Military Advisory Council, Chungking.

Chang, Fu-liang

rural worker, born in Shanghai, 1889; graduate, St. John's Univ., 1909; Ph.B. (1913) and M.S. (1915), Yale; made extensive field study of China's rural conditions, 1927-29; now director, Kiangsi Rural Welfare Centers; address, Kiangsi Rural Welfare Centers, Kanhsien, Kiangsi.

Chang, G. Yun (see **Chang, Chi-yun**).

Chang, H. H. (see **Chang, Ching-hai**).

Chang, Heng-sui

novelist, journalist; born in Anhwei, 1897; editor-in-chief, *Wangkiang Pao*, Anhwei, 1919; editor, *Peiping Yi Shih Pao*, 1920; editor, *Peiping World Daily News*, 1924-30; editor, *Li Pao*, Shanghai,

1933; publisher, *Nanking Jen Pao*, 1936-37; now editor, *Sin Min Pao*, Chungking; author of a number of popular novels' two of them more than 1,000,000 words long, the more than 50 novels Mr. Chang wrote in the years 1919-42 total about 30,000,000 words, several of them are "best sellers" and two of them were successfully filmed by Chinese motion picture companies; is the only successful writer who writes in old Chinese style modified by Occidental technique; address, *Sin Min Pao*, Chungking.

Chang, Henry K. (see **Chang, Chien**).

Chang, Hsi (prefers **Tchang Si**)

zoologist, born in Hopei, 1898; B.S. 1927; M.S.; 1928; Lyons Univ., D.Sc. 1931; director, zoological research institute, National Academy of Peiping, since 1932; director, Marine Product Experimental Institute of Yunnan, since 1942; address, National Academy of Peiping, Kunming.

Chang, Hsi-man (prefers **Siman B. Chart**)

government official, professor; born in Hunan, 1895; director, Chinese Institute for Research of National Minorities; member, Legislative Yuan and advisers Mongolian and Tibetan Affair, Commission since 1935; address, Sino-Soviet Cultural Association, Chungking.

Chang, Hsueh-liang

General

retired military officer, born in Liaoning, 1898; graduate, Northeastern Military Academy; attended Japanese autumn maneuvers, 1921; Northeastern Peace Preservation Commander, 1928; state councillor, National Government, and chairman, Northeastern Political Council, 1928; commander-in-chief, Northeastern Frontier Defence, 1929; deputy commander-in-chief, national land, naval, air forces, 1930; Peiping pacification commissioner and acting chairman, Peiping Branch, National Military Council, 1932; toured Europe, 1933-34; deputy commander, bandit-suppression forces in Honan, Hupeh and Anhwei, 1934; deputy commander, bandit-suppression forces in Shensi, 1935-36; leader of Sian Incident, 1936; dismissed from all posts and sentenced to ten years imprisonment but later pardoned; has been in retirement since 1937.

Chang, Hua-fu

Lieut.-General

army officer, born in Hupeh, 1887; graduate, Japanese Staff College, Tokyo, 1916; deputy inspector-general of

military training, 1928-37; chief senior staff officer, military operations board, National Military Council, since 1938; address, Military Operations Board, Chungking.

Chang, Hua-lan

government official, born in Yunnan, 1878; member, Control Yuan, since 1933; 3 Ssu Wei Hsiang, Kuming

Chang, Hui-chang (prefers Chang Wai-jung)

aviator, diplomatic official; born in Kwangtung, 1898; director, aviation administration, Ministry of War, 1930; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1931; minister to Cuba, 1935.

Chang, Hung-yuan

university president, born in Szechwan, 1902; B.S. California Institute of Technology, S.M. and Sc. D. Massachusetts Institute of Technology; professor, National Central Univ., 1931-32; professor, Nankai Univ., 1932-36; professor (Sino-British Indemnity Fund Chair), National Szechwan Univ., 1936-38; dean, College of Science, same Univ., 1938-41; president, Chungking Univ., since 1941; address, Chungking Univ., Chungking.

Chang, I-lin

retired government official, born in Kiangsu, 1865; minister of education, 1915-16; member, People's Political Council, since 1938; address, People's Political Council, Chungking.

Chang, Jen-chieh

Kuomintang leader, born in Chekiang, 1873; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1924; governor, Chekiang Province, 1927-30; elected member, Central Supervisory Committee, 1926; elected state councillor, National Government, 1932; address, National Government, Chungking.

Chang, Jen-ming

Kuomintang leader, born in Kwangsi, 1893; elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1935.

Chang, Kia-ngau (see Chang, Chia-ao).

Chang, Kuang-yu

government official, born in Honan, 1897; graduate, Tsing Hua College, 1917; B.S. Missouri, 1921; member, Honan Provincial Government, 1934-35; reconstruction commissioner and member, Honan Provincial Government, since 1939; address, Honan Provincial Government.

Chang, Li-sheng

government official, born in Hopei, 1901; graduate, Paris Univ., elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1931; secretary-general, Commission for Examination of Party and Government Work, 1941-42; secretary-general, Executive Yuan, since 1942; address, Executive Yuan, Chungking.

Chang, Li-sheng Lieut.-General

government official, born in Chahar, 1887; graduate, Kuomin Univ., Peking; member, Chahar Provincial Government, and reconstruction commissioner, 1935-38; acting governor, Chahar, 1938-39; commander-in-chief, 1st guerilla area 1938-42; member, and reconstruction commissioner, Chahar Provincial Government, since 1939; commander-in-chief, Shansi-Chahar-Suiyuan border area assault army, since 1942; address, Chahar Provincial Government, Loyang.

Chang, Lin-kao (prefers Lincoln Dsang Lin-kao)

educator, born in Szechwan, April, 1890; B.A. West China Union Univ., Chengtu; M.A. Northwestern Univ., U.S.A., B.D. Hon. D.D. Garrett Theological College; Ph.D. Drew Univ., vice-president, West China Union Univ., 1927-32; president, West China Union Univ., since 1933; address, West China Union Univ. Chengtu.

Chang, Loy (see Cheng, Lai).

Chang, Ming-wei

journalist, born in Hupeh, 1903; B.A. Fuhtan Univ., 1926; former manager, *Ta Mei Evening News*, Shanghai; manager, *Central Daily News*, Changsha; manager, *Central Daily News*, Chungking; managing director, *Central Daily News*, Chengtu since 1939; address, *Central Daily News*, Wu Shih Tung Tang Street, Chengtu, Szechwan.

Chang, Mo-chun (Mrs. Shao Yuan-chung)

Kuomintang leader, born in Hunan, 1894; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1929.

Chang, Nai-chi

banker, born in Chekiang, 1897; graduate, Commercial School, Chekiang; assistant manager, Chekiang Industrial Bank, 1930-36; finance commissioner, Anhwei Provincial Government, 1938-39; general manager, Shanghai Industrial Company since 1940; address, Shanghai Industrial Company, Chungking.

Chang, Nai-te (prefers N. D. Chang)

professor, born in Shansi, 1898; graduate, Peking Teachers' College; former professor of history at Yenching, Great China, Honan, Shansi and West China Union universities; professor of history, Cheeloo Univ. since 1942; member, People's Political Council, since 1938; address, 57 Chulin Lane, Chengtu, Szechwan.

Chang, Nai-yen

retired diplomatic official, born in Chekiang, 1894; D. Sc. Univ. of Geneva, 1919; chancellor, National Central Univ., 1927-30; minister to Belgium, 1933-35.

Chang, Paul C. C. (see Chang, Chih-chiang).**Chang, Po-chin**

government official, born in Hupeh, 1901; M.S. (1933) and Ph.D. (1935), Cornell; president, Hupeh Provincial College of Education, 1941-42; member, and commissioner of education, Hupeh Provincial Government, since 1940; address, Department of Education, Enshih, Hupeh.

Chang, Peng-chun

educator, diplomat; born in Tientsin, 1892; B.A. Clark, 1914; M.A. (1916) and Ph.D. (1923), Columbia; dean, National Tsing Hua Univ., 1923-26; visiting professor, Chicago, 1931; and Hawaii, 1933-34; member, People's Political Council, 1938; minister to Turkey, 1940-42; minister to Chile since 1942; address, Chinese Legation, Santiago, Chile.

Chang, Po-ling

educator, university president; born in Tientsin, 1874; graduate, Peiyang Naval Academy, 1893; served on a training ship for two years; went to Japan to study Japanese educational system, 1903; founder and president, Nankai Univ., since 1904; toured America and Europe, 1908; re-visited America, 1917, and studied at Columbia Univ.; Honorary Litt. D. St. John's Univ., 1919; trustee, China Foundation for Promotion of Education and Culture, 1924-25; member, People's Political Council, since 1938; former deputy speaker and now member of presidium, same council; president, Chinese Education Association; president China National Amateur Athletic Association; address, Nankai Univ., Chungking.

Chang, Shan-chun

college president, born in Shensi, 1908; graduate, Nantung Univ., 1931; M.D. Munich Univ., 1939; president, Shensi

Provincial Medical College, and superintendent, College Hospital since 1942; address, Shensi Provincial Medical College, Sian.

Chang, Shun-min (prefers C. M. Chang)

government official, born in Honan, 1904; B.A. (1926) and M.A. (1927), Illinois; Ph.D. Yale 1931; secretary, Executive Yuan, 1938-40; member, Honan Provincial Government, since 1941; address Honan Provincial Government, Lushan, Honan.

Chang, Tao-fan

Kuomintang leader and government official, painter, playwright; born in Kweichow, 1897; graduate, Slade School, University College, London, 1924; served as head of London branch, Kuomintang, while in England; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1929; dean, National Tsingtao Univ., 1930; member and education commissioner, Chekiang Provincial Government, 1931; elected member, Kuomintang CEC, 1935; vice-minister of communications, 1933-35; vice-minister of interior, 1936-37; vice-minister of education, 1938-39; concurrently deputy director, Kuomintang Board of Social Affairs; dean of studies, Central Political Institute, 1939-41; dean of faculty, same institute, 1941; minister of information since 1942; concurrently chairman, Kuomintang Central Culture Committee; author of six well known plays; founder of National Academy of Drama; address, Ministry of Information, Chungking.

Chang, Tao-min

government official, born in Hupeh, 1907; graduate, London Univ., member and finance commissioner, Kwangtung Provincial Government, since 1941; address, Kwangtung Provincial Government, Kukong, Kwangtung.

Chang, Tao-hsing

government official, born in Kiangsu, 1908; LL.B. National Central Univ., 1930; M.A. Northwestern Univ., U.S.A., 1932; Ph.D. Iowa, 1934; senior secretary, ministry of Foreign Affairs, and member, committee on foreign relations, Supreme National Defense Council, since 1940; address, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Chungking.

Chang, Ting-fan Lieut.-General

army officer, born in Kiangsi, 1893; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; mayor, Greater Shanghai, 1927-29; member, Central Political Council, and national defense planning committee, 1931; Administrative Vice-Minister of

Military Affairs, since 1938; reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1935; address, Ministry of Military Affairs, Chungking.

Chang, Tsi

government official, born at Sichang, Sikang, 1894; graduate, Peking Normal College, 1927; member, Sikang Political Committee, and director of education, 1934-35; member, Sikang Kuomintang, Executive Committee, since 1939; member People's Political Council, since 1942; address, Sikang Provincial Tangpu, Sichang, Sikang.

Chang, Tze-li

government official, born in Hunan, 1895; B. Eng. Illinois, 1917; acting director, Chekiang-Kiangsi railway, 1941-42; chief secretary, Ministry of Communications, since 1942; address, Ministry of Communications, Chungking.

Chang, Wai-chang (see **Chang, Hui-chang**).

Chang, Wan-li

journalist, born in Shantung, 1908; graduate, Ping Ming Univ., 1928; managing director, *China Times*, Chungking, since 1939; address, *China Times*, Chungking.

Chang, Wei-cheng (Mrs. Lo, Chia-luen, prefers Wei-Djen Djang Lo)

woman leader; born in Kiangsu, 1898; M.A. Michigan, 1927; Chinese delegate, Pan Pacific Women's Conference, 1934; member, Chinese Goodwill Mission to Burma, 1941; vice-president, Pan Pacific Women's Association, since 1937; member, People's Political Council, since 1941; address, Ting's Garden, Liu Shiu Wan, Hsiaolungkan, Chungking.

Chang, Wei-chun

government official, born in Sikang, 1888; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; member and secretary-general, Sikang Provincial Government, since 1939; address, Sikang Provincial Government, Kangting, Sikang.

Chang, Wei-tze

government official, born in Kiangsu, 1893; B.A. Iowa, 1914; M.A. Princeton, 1915; Ph.D., Iowa, 1917; professor, National Peking Univ., 1917-27; counsellor, ministry of railways, 1931-37; appointed commercial attaché, Chinese Embassy in Washington, 1939; address, c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Chungking.

Ch'ang, Yi (prefers Y. Y. Tsang)

university president, born in Anhwei, 1901; B.A. Fuh Tan Univ., 1922; M.A. Washington Univ., 1926; head, depart-

ment of Education, Fuh Tan Univ. 1927-37; dean, school of arts, and, secretary-general, Anhwei Univ., 1929; dean, Fuh Tan, 1936-37; director, department of general affairs, Ministry of Education, 1938-41; director of secondary education, same ministry, 1941-43; president, National Fuh Tan Univ., since 1943; address, Fuh Tan University, Chungking.

Chang, Yi-chu (prefers **Tchang Yitchou**)

government official, born in Hunan, 1885; graduate, Ecole des Sciences Politiques, Paris; commissioner of foreign affairs for Yunnan, 1912-17; member, People's Political Council, since 1941; address, People's Political Council, Chungking.

Chang, Yi-peng

government official, born in Hunan, 1878; graduate, Japanese Land Survey Institute, 1905; Japanese Military Cadets' Academy, 1907; acting governor of Hunan, 1926; counsellor, Military Advisory Council, since 1929; address, P. O. Box 16, Tungchi, Chikiang, Szechwan.

Chang, Yi-shun **Lieut.-General**

army officer, born in Anhwei, 1895; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1916; commander, 25th division, 1936; commander 48th army, 1937-40; deputy-commander, 21st group army, since 1940; deputy-commander, Honan-Hupeh-Anhwei border area, since 1940; member, Anhwei Provincial Government, since 1938; address, Lihuang, Anhwei.

Chang, Yu-che

astronomer, born in Fukien, 1902; graduate, Tsing Hua College, 1923; B.A. (1926), M.A. (1927) and Ph.D. (1929), Chicago; professor, National Central Univ., 1929-41; director, astronomical research institute, Academia Sinica since 1941; address, Astronomical Research Institute, Kunming.

Chang, Yuan-fu

government official, born at Tihwa, Sinkiang, 1891; native of Antung, Liaoning; graduate, China Univ., Peking; resident representative of Sinkiang Province in Chungking; member, People's Political Council; address, 48, Fuhsing Villa, South Bank, Chungking.

Chao, Hung Wen-kuo (Madame Chao)

woman guerilla leader, known as "Mother of Guerillas," born in Liaoning, 1880; directed her four sons and three daughters

in organizing mass resistance against the Japanese since 1931; helped organizing Northeastern Youth Iron and Blood Army in 1934 and the North China People's Anti-Japanese Army in 1937; visited South Seas Islands preaching the cause of mass resistance in 1938-39; participated in conscription movement in Free China since her return from the South Seas.

Chao, Ming-heng (prefers **Thomas Ming-heng Chao**)

journalist, born in Nanking, 1904; B.J. Missouri, 1925; M.S. Columbia, 1926; correspondent and manager, Nanking bureau, Reuters News Agency, 1928-37; correspondent and manager, Hankow bureau, same agency, 1937-38; correspondent and manager, Chungking bureau, same agency, since 1939; address, Press Hostel, Chungking.

Chao, Heng-ti **General**

retired army officer, born in Hunan, 1880; graduate, Tokyo Military Cadets' Academy; military governor of Hunan, 1922; civil governor of Hunan, 1925-26; president, Hunan Provincial People's Political Council, since 1940; address, Provincial People's Political Council, Leiyang, Hunan.

Chao, Lung-wen

government official, born in Chekiang, 1902; graduate, National Sun Yat-sen Univ., 1927; member and director of social affairs, Kansu Provincial Government, since 1940; address, 48, Ching Erh Street, Lanchow.

Chao, Nai-chuan

government official, born in Chekiang, 1890; B.A. (1921) and M.A. (1922), Columbia; member, Legislative Yuan since 1931; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Chao, Pao-chuan

government official, born in Kiangsu, 1907; B.A. Michigan, 1933; M.A. (1934) and Ph.D. (1936), Cornell; professor, Central Political Institute, 1936-40; director of rural economy, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, since 1940; address, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, Chungking.

Chao, Pei

government official, born in Chinghai, 1907; graduate, Staff College; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1941; address, 6, Chien Se Road, Chungking.

Chao, Pi-lien

government official, born in Shansi, 1883; graduate, Univ. of Shansi; vice-minister of interior, 1928; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1929; vice-chairman, Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission, since 1932; address, Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission, Chungking.

Chao, Sheng

government official, born in Chekiang, 1889; LL.B. Meiji Univ., Tokyo; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1933; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Chao, Shou-yu

government official, born in Shansi, 1880; special commissioner of National Government for transportation of remains of Panchan Lama to Tibet, 1940; now member, Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission, and member, National Relief Commission; address, Tsai Chia Wan, Peipei, Chungking.

Chao, Shu

Kuomintang worker, journalist, born in Yunnan, 1906; M.A. Michigan; secretary-general, Yunnan Provincial Kuomintang Headquarters, since 1938; managing director, *Yunnan Kuomin Daily News*, Kunming member, People's Political Council; address, Yunnan Provincial Tangpu, Kunming, Yunnan.

Chao, Tai-wen

government official, born in Shansi, November, 1867; president, Control Yuan, National Government, 1929; elected member, Central Executive Committee of Kuomintang, 1929; state councillor, National Government, since 1931; governor of Shansi since 1936; address, Shansi Provincial Government

Chao, Thomas Ming-heng (see **Chao, Ming-heng**).

Chao, Ti-hua (prefers **T. L. Chao**)

banker, government official, born in Kiangsu; B.A. Northwestern Univ., U.S.A., Kiangsu finance commissioner, 1933-39; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935; chairman, economic affairs committee, 3rd War Area Headquarters, 1940-42; acting general manager, Bank of Communications, since 1942; address, Bank of Communications, Chungking.

Chao, Tse-chen

professor, born in Chekiang, 1888; B.A. Soochow Univ., 1910; M.A. (1916) and

B.D. (1917), Vanderbilt; D.Litt. Soochow; professor and dean, school of religion, Yen-ching Univ., since 1926; author, *Life of Christ and Present-day Religious Thought and Life in China*; address, Yen-ching Univ., Chengtu.

Chao, Tsu-kang

highway engineer and director, born in Kiangsu, 1900; B.C.E. Tangshan Engineering College, 1922; studied at Cornell, 1930; councillor, Transportation Control Administration, National Military Council, 1942; deputy director, National Highway Administration, since 1943; Chinese delegate to the 7th International Road Congress, Munich, 1934; address, National Highway Administration, Chungking.

Chao, Wen-ping

educator, government official, born in Kansu, 1900; graduate, Sun Yat-sen Univ., Moscow, 1926; former instructor, Central Military Academy; professor, Anhwei Univ.; now member, Legislative Yuan; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Chao, Yuan-jen (prefers Y. R. Chao)

educator, born in Kiangsu, 1892; B.A. Cornell Univ., 1914; Ph.D. Harvard, 1918; instructor in Chinese, Harvard, 1922-23; professor, National Tsing Hua Univ., 1927-28; visiting professor of Chinese, Univ. of Hawaii, 1938-39; visiting professor of Chinese Linguistics, Yale, 1939-41; director, language department, Academia Sinica, since 1928 (on leave); professor, Harvard-Yenching Institute, Harvard Univ., since 1941; member, Linguistic Society of America; participated in the Institute of Pacific Relations, 1939; address, Academia Sinica, Kunming.

Chao, Yun-yi

Kuomintang and government official, born in Suiyuan, 1895; graduate, Chung Kuo Univ., Peiping; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1931; member, 1st Inspection Corps of War Area Military Discipline, National Military Council, since 1941; address, Kuomintang Headquarters, Chungking.

Chau Chi-kong (see Chou, Chi-kang).

Cheer, Sheo-nan (see Chi, Shou-nan).

Chen, Chang-heng

economist, born in Szechwan, 1891; M.A. Harvard; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1928; author, *China's*

Population Problems; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Chen, Cheng

General

army commander, born in Chekiang, 1900; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1929; commander, 11th division, 1932-33; commander, 18th army, 1934; field commander, northern route army, Kiangsi-Kwangtung-Fukien-Hunan-Hupei bandit-suppression forces; director of military organization, Generalissimo's Headquarters at Wuchang and Chungking, 1935-36; vice-minister of war, 1937; garrison commander, Wuhan area and concurrently commander-in-chief, 9th War Area, 1938; minister, political training board, National Military Council, and secretary-general, Kuomintang Youth Corps, 1938-40; governor, Hupei Province, since 1937; concurrently commander-in-chief, 6th War Area; address, Hupei Provincial Government, Enshih, Hupei.

Chen, Chi-cheng

General

army officer, born at Tsingkiang, Kiangsu, 1892; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; former instructor, Whampoa Military Academy; commander, 3rd division, 1929; commander, 1st army, 1931; garrison commander of Loyang, 1932; garrison commander of Wuchang and Hankow, 1935; administrative commissioner, Honan-Hupei-Shensi Border Area, 1936; dean, Central Military Academy, 1938-42; address, Central Military Academy, Chengtu.

Chen, Chi-mai

professor, government official, born in Kwangtung, 1908; B.A. Ohio State, 1929; Ph.D. Columbia, 1933; professor, National Tsing Hua Univ., 1933-37; professor, Central Political Institute, 1937-38; now counsellor, Executive Yuan, author of *Theory of Political Institutions in China*; address, Executive Yuan, Chungking.

Chen, Chi-tang

General

army officer, born in Kwangtung, 1890; graduate, Kwangtung Military Academy, 1928; commander, 4th army, 1929; field commander, 8th route army, 1931-36; elected state councillor, National Government, 1938; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1931; minister of agriculture and forestry, 1940-42; address, Central Kuomintang Headquarters, Chungking.

Chen, Chi-tsai

government official, born in Chekiang, 1879; comptroller-general, National Government, since 1931; address, National Government, Chungking.

Chen, Chi-yeh

civic leader, born in Chekiang, 1870; chairman, union of Chekiang chambers of commerce since 1936; president, Chekiang Pawnshop Bank since 1936; member, People's Political Council, since 1938; address, 284, Kuo Fu Road, Chungking.

Chen, Chieh

diplomatic official, born in Hunan, 1885; studied at Tokyo Imperial and Berlin universities; vice-minister of foreign affairs, 1935-37; ambassador to Germany, 1938-41; now ambassador-at-large to South America.

Chen, Chin-Jen

journalist, born in Szechwan, 1900; graduate, Tsing Hua College; B.J. Missouri, 1924; M.A. Harvard, 1926; editor, *Hankow Herald* (now *National Herald*), since 1936; address, National Herald, Chungking.

Chen, Ching-hsiu

government official, born in Szechwan, 1894; B.A. National Chengtu Normal College, 1918; now member, People's Political Council; address, 67, Tung Te Sheng Sia Chieh, Chengtu.

Chen, Ching-ihieh

government official, born in Chekiang, 1885; graduate, Gendarmes School, Japan; councillor, Ministry of War, 1932-34; member and secretary-general, Kansu Provincial Government since 1942; address, Kansu Provincial Government, Lanchow.

Chen, Ching-yun Air Maj.-General

party leader, born in Kwangtung, 1901; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935; now vice-minister, Overseas Affairs Board, Central Kuomintang and chief councillor, National Aeronautical Affairs Commission; address, Overseas Affairs Board, Chungking.

Chen, Cho**Lieut.-General**

army officer, born in Chekiang, 1892; graduate, Staff College, 1916; director, personnel department, National Military Council, 1932-34; commissioner, Nanking police bureau, 1933-35; director of general affairs, General Staff, 1935-38; director, 3rd department, Military Operations Board, National Military Council, since 1938; address, Board of Military Operations, Chungking.

Chen, Chu-shan

government official, born in Kweichow, 1885; graduate, Waseda Univ., Japan; research fellow, Michigan; now member and secretary-general, Szechwan Provincial Government; address, Szechwan Provincial Government, Chengtu.

Chen, Eugene (see Chen, Yu-jen).**Chen, Fang-hsien**

party and government official, born in Anhwei, 1894; graduate, Meiji Univ., Japan; chairman, Chungking Municipal Kuomintang Headquarters, 1940-42; member, Standing Committee, National Relief Commission, since 1938; address, National Relief Commission, Chungking.

Chen, G. Y. (see Chen, Ku-yuan).**Chen, Heng-che (Mrs. Zen Hung-chun, prefers Sophia H. Chen)**

historian, professor, born in Kiangsu; B.A. Vassar, 1919; M.A. Chicago, 1920; professor of history, National Peking Univ., 1921-23; member Chinese delegation to Institute of Pacific Relations, at Honolulu, 1927; at Kyoto, 1929; at Shanghai, 1931; and at Banff, 1933; address, c/o Zen Hung-chun, China Foundation, Chungking.

Chen, Hsing (prefers Jian H. Chen)

banker, government official, born in Chekiang, 1890; B.S. St. John's, 1917; M.A. Ohio, 1918; deputy governor, Central Bank of China, since 1928; address, Central Bank of China, Chungking.

Chen, Hsiung

government official, born in Kwangsi, 1894; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1917; reconstruction commissioner, Kwangsi Provincial Government, since 1937; address, Kwangsi Provincial Government, Kweilin, Kwangsi.

Chen, Hsun-yu

government official, born in Chekiang, 1907; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1942; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Chen, Hsun-yung Vice-Admiral

naval officer, born in Fukien, 1880; graduate, Naval College, Mamoi; former captain, Gunboat *Chu Tung*, *Yung Chien*, *Pu An*, *Tung Chi*, *Hai Chou*; commander, training squadron; vice-minister of navy, 1934-38.

Chen, Jian H. (see **Chen, Hsing**).

Chen, Ju-hsuan (prefers **Chan Yu Young**)

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1894; B.A. Illinois, 1918; M.A. (1919) and LL.B. (1920), Columbia; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1932; deputy director-general, Yunnan-Burma Railway, since 1931; secretary-general, engineering committee, National Military Council since 1942; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking, or Director-General's Office, Yunnan-Burma Railway, Kunming.

Chen, K. P. (see **Chen, Kuang-pu**).

Chen, Ku-yuan (prefers **G. Y. Chen**)

government official, born in Shensi 1896; LL.D. National Peking Univ., 1923; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1935; author, *History of Chinese Marriage*; address, P. O. Box 99, Peipei, Chungking.

Chen, Kuang-pu (prefers **K. P. Chen**)

banker, government official, born in Kiangsu, 1880; B.C. Pennsylvania, 1909; founder and general manager, Shanghai Commercial and Savings Bank, since 1915; member, National Economic Council, 1933; chairman, Foreign Trade Commission, 1938-41; chairman, Currency Stabilization Board for China, since 1941; address, Currency Stabilization Board for China, Chungking.

Chen, Kuo-chun (prefers **Q. K. Chen**)

government official, born in Hunan, 1895; B.A. and M.A. Illinois; fellow in international law, Carnegie Endowment for International Peace; director, department of administration, Ministry of Communications, since 1942; address, Ministry of Communications, Chungking.

Chen, Kuo-fu

party and government leader; born in Chekiang, 1889; elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1926; vice-president, Control Yuan, 1929-31; elected state councillor, National Government, 1928; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1929; governor, Kiangsu Province, 1933-36; vice-chairman, Hwai River Conservancy Commission, since 1931; dean, Central Political Institute, 1938-42; address, Central Kuomintang Headquarters, Chungking.

Chen, Li-chiang

college president, born in Kiangsi, 1896; M.A. Chicago; director, department of social education, Ministry of Education, 1938-41; president, National College of Social Education, since 1941; address, National College of Social Education, Chungking.

Chen, Li-fu

party and government official, born in Chekiang, 1890; B.S. Peiyang College; M.A. Pittsburgh; secretary-general, Central Kuomintang, 1929-31; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1929; chairman, organization committee, Central Kuomintang, 1932-38; elected state councillor, National Government, 1933; director, social affairs board of Kuomintang, 1938-40; minister of education since 1938; author, *Weishenlun*, a book of philosophy based on Dr. Sun Yat-sen's teaching; address, Ministry of Education, Chungking.

Chen, Liang **Lieut.-General**

army officer, born in Chekiang, 1895; graduate, Japanese Agricultural College, 1921; director of commissariat, Ministry of War, since 1940; address, 26, Tung Hua Kuei Lane, Chungking.

Chen, Ming-shu **General**

retired Government official, born in Kwangtung, 1889; studied at Paoting Military Academy; governor, Kwangtung Province, 1928-31; vice-president, Executive Yuan, and minister of Communications, 1931-32; member of presidium, People's Foreign Relations Association, since 1938; address, People's, Foreign Relations Association, Chungking.

Chen, Ming-te

journalist, born in Szechwan, 1897; graduate, Peking Law College, 1922; managing director, *Hsin Min Pao*, Chungking, since 1939; address, *Hsin Min Pao*, Chung Yi Road, Chungking.

Chen, Pan-ling

Kuomintang and government official, born in Honan, 1890; B.A. National Peking Univ., 1921; member, Central Executive Committee of Kuomintang; councillor, National Water Conservancy Commission and National Relief Commission; address, Central Kuomintang Headquarters, Chungking.

Chen, Ping-chang (prefers **P. T. Chen**)

banker, born in Amoy, 1900; B.A. St. John's Univ., M.A. Princeton; Secretary-

general, Chinese-American Institute of Cultural Relations; address, C/o Economic Research Department, Central Bank of China, Chungking.

Chen, Po-chuang (prefers **Y. S. Chun**)

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1893; Ch.E. Columbia, 1914; deputy secretary-general, Central Planning Board, 1941-42; member, Legislative Yuan, and member, Central Planning Board, since 1942; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Chen, Pu-lei

government official, born in Chekiang, 1890; graduate, Chekiang Provincial College; editor-in-chief, *China Times*, 1928; education commissioner, Chekiang Provincial Government, 1929; vice-minister of education, 1931; acting director, publicity board, Central Kuomintang, 1931; member and education commissioner, Chekiang Provincial Government, 1932-34; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1931; now director, 2nd department, office of aide-de-camp to the Generalissimo; address, c/o Generalissimo's Headquarters, Chungking.

Chen, P. T. (see **Chen, Ping-chang**)

Chen, Q. K. (see **Chen, Kuo-chun**)

Chen, Shao-hsien

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1904; M.A. Columbia, 1932; research student, London School of Economics, 1932-33; member, People's Political Council, since 1942; address, Board of Organization, Chungking.

Chen, Shao-kuan **Admiral**

naval officer, born in Fukien, 1888; captain, training ship *Tung Chi* and training cruiser *Ting Swei*, 1920-23; commander, 2nd squadron, 1926-31; vice-minister of navy, 1929-31; minister of navy, 1932-38; member, National Military Council, and commander-in-Chief, Chinese navy, since 1938; address, Naval Headquarters, Chungking.

Chen, Shih

university president, born in Hupeh, 1890; LL.B. Central Univ., Tokyo; president, Chung Hwa Univ. of Wuchang, since 1917; member, People's Political Council, since 1938; address, Chung Hwa Univ., South Bank, Chungking.

Chen, Shih-chen

government official, born in Kiangsu, 1892; graduate, National Nanking

Normal College, 1917; studied at Oberlin, 1921-22; and at Columbia, 1922-24; acting chancellor, National Northwest Univ., 1940-42; chief counsellor, Ministry of Education, since 1929; address, Ministry of Education, Chungking.

Chen, Shih-chuan

government official, industrialist, born in Kiangsu, 1900; B.S. Univ. of Nanking, 1925; studied in Japan, 1926; member, Central Executive Committee of Kuomintang; founder, Yuan Cheng Industrial Company; address, Yuan Cheng Industrial Company, 576, Lin Sen Road, Chungking.

Chen, Shih-kwei

government official, born in Kiangsi, 1888; graduate, Tokyo Normal College, 1915; M.A. Columbia, 1925; member and education commissioner, Fukien Provincial Government, 1928-32; member and education commissioner, Kiangsi Provincial Government, since 1933; author, *Theory and Practice of the San Min Chu I Education*, 1941; address, Department of Education, Taiho, Kiangsi.

Chen, Shih-yi

college president, born in Kiangsu, 1902; B.S. National Stoutheast Univ.; Ph.D. Wisconsin; president, National Pharmaceutical College, since 1939; address, National Pharmaceutical College; Chungking.

Chen, Shu-jen

government and party official, painter; born in Kwangtung, 1884; graduate, Tokyo Imperial Univ., elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1928; chairman, Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission, Executive Yuan, since 1932; address, Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission, Chungking.

Chen, Sophia H. (see **Chen, Heng-che**)

Chen, Ta (prefers **Ta T. Chen**)

sociologist, professor; born in Chekiang, 1892; graduate, Tsing Hua College, 1911; B.A. Reed College, U.S.A., 1919; M.A. (1920) and Ph.D. (1923), Columbia; visiting professor, Univ. of Hawaii, 1930; professor of sociology, National Tsing Hua Univ., since 1923; author, *Chinese Migrations with Special Reference to Labour Conditions, Chinese Labour Problems, and Population Problems*, address, National Southwest Associated Univ., Kunming.

Chen, Ta-chi

government official, secretary-general, Examination Yuan, 1931-32; chairman, examination commission, Examination Yuan, since 1934; address, Examination Commission, Chungking.

Chen, Tiao-yuan**General**

military officer, born in Hopei, 1885; graduate, Peking Staff College; member, National Military Council, 1928; governor, Anhwei Province, 1930-32; commander, 1st route army, 1933; commander-in-chief, bandit-suppression reserve forces in Kiangsi, Hunan, Kwangtung and Hupeh, 1934; chairman, Military Advisory Council, since 1934; address, Military Advisory Council, Chungking.

Chen, Ting-hsi

government official, born in Kiangsu, June, 1902; graduate, Meiji Univ., Japan; senior secretary, Ministry of Economic Affairs, since 1938; address, Ministry of Economic Affairs.

Chen, Tuan

government official, born in Kiangsu, 1892; B.A. California, 1918; M.A. Columbia, 1919; former member, Kansu Provincial Government, and finance commissioner; tariff commissioner, Hunan-Hupeh district, Ministry of Finance; counsellor and chief inspector, Ministry of Finance, since January, 1940; address, Ministry of Finance, Chungking.

Chen, Tung-yuan

professor, born in Anhwei, 1902; B.A. National Peking Univ., M.A. Columbia, professor and vice-dean of studies, Central Political Institute, author, *History of Education in China* and *Stories of Chinese Women*; address, Central Political Institute, Chungking.

Chen, Tzeh**Vice-Admiral**

(prefers **Chan Chak**)

naval officer, born in Kwangtung, 1894; graduate, Whampoa Naval Academy; sent for inspection trip to Europe and America in 1934 and was adviser to Chinese Delegation to the Disarmament Conference; counsellor, Military Advisory Council, National Military Council, since 1938; member, Central Executive Committee of Kuomintang, since 1940; decorations: Tripot Medal, 3rd Class, 1929; Tripot Medal, 2nd Class, 1931; White Cloud Medal, 2nd Class, 1936; Military Medal, 1st Class, 1935; Revolution Medal, 1936; National Guardian Medal, 1st Class, 1942; K.B.E. (British), 1942; address, 2, Ying Lu, Chungking.

Chen, Wei

government official, born in Chekiang, 1880; graduate, Waseda Univ., Japan; member, standing committee, National Relief Commission, since 1942; address, National Relief Commission Chungking.

Chen, Wen-yuan (prefers W. Y. Chen)

Christian leader, born in Fukien, 1900; B.A. (1928) and M.A. (1929), Syracuse; Ph.D. Duke, 1930; acting president, Fukien Christian Univ., 1931; now secretary-general, National Christian Council, and Bishop, Methodist Church in West China; address, National Christian Council, Chungking.

Chen, Yao-yuan

party leader, born in Kwangtung, 1896; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1929.

Chen, Yen-chun

railway and highway director; born in Kwangtung, 1895; managing director, Peiping-Hankow Railway, 1933; now general manager, China Transport Corporation; address, China Transport Corporation, Chungking.

Chen, Y. G. (see Chen, Yu-Kuang).**Chen, Yi****General**

government official, born in Chekiang, 1883; graduate, Japanese Staff College, 1919; civil governor of Chekiang, 1926; director, Shanghai Arsenal, 1928; vice-minister of war, 1930-33; governor, Fukien province, 1934-42; secretary-general, Executive Yuan, 1942; secretary-general, Commission for the Examination of Party and Government Work, since 1942; address, Commission for the Examination of Party and Government Work, Chungking.

Chen, Yi-yun (Miss)

woman leader, born in Kwangtung, 1905; B.A. National Sun Yat-sen Univ., M.A. Michigan; member, People's Political Council, since 1941; address, 29, Hsia Lo Chia Wan, Chungking.

Chen, Yu-jen (prefers Eugene Chen)

retired diplomatic official, native of Kwangtung, born in Trinidad, South America, 1878; educated in England and admitted to bar in London; publisher and editor, *Peking Gazette*, 1914-16; editor, *Shanghai Gazette*, 1918-19; founder of *Min Pao*, Peiping, 1925; minister of foreign affairs at Canton, 1926; at Hankow, 1927; and at Nanking, 1932.

Chen, Yu-kuang (prefers Y. G. Chen)

university president, born in Chekiang, 1893; B.A. Univ. of Nanking, 1915; M.A. (1918) and Ph.D. (1922), Columbia; dean, college of arts and science, Univ. of Nanking, 1926; president, same institution, since 1927; address, Univ. of Nanking, Chengtu.

Chen, Yu-sung (prefers Ronald Yu-soong Cheng)

educator, born in Hupeh, 1903; Ph.D. Columbia, 1935; professor, National Amoy Univ., 1936-38; professor, National Southwest Associated Univ., 1939-42; president, Hupeh Provincial Education College, 1942; address, Ensihi, Hupeh.

Chen Yu-young (see Chen, Ju-hsuan).**Cheng, Chao-ying**

party and government official, born in Chekiang, 1888; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1926; now supervisory commissioner of Fukien and Chekiang, and chairman, Fukien Kuomintang Headquarters; address, Fukien Kuomintang Hqrs., Yungan, Fukien.

Cheng, Chen-wen

government official, born in Fukien, 1893; B.S. Tokoku Imperial Univ., Japan; member and education commissioner, Fukien Provincial Government, since 1931; author of many books on chemistry and co-editor of many dictionaries and encyclopædiæ; address, Department of Education, Yungan, Fukien.

Cheng, Cheng-yu

government official, born in Honan; director, department of land administration, 1931-40; member and civil affairs commissioner, Kansu Provincial Government, 1940-42; director, National Land Administration, since 1942; address, National Land Administration, Chungking.

Cheng, Chien**General**

military officer, born in Hunan, 1881; graduate, Japanese Military Cadets' Academy; commander, 6th army, 1926; elected member, Central Executive Committee of Kuomintang, 1927; governor, Hunan Province, 1928; chief of general staff, 1935-37; governor, Honan Province, 1939; director, Generalissimo's Headquarters in Northwest, 1939-40; deputy chief of staff of Chinese army, since 1940; address, National Military Council, Chungking.

Cheng, Chung-hung

journalist, government official, born in Kiangsu, 1902; B.A. Fuh Tan Univ.; research fellow, London School of Economics and University College, 1929-31; former editor, *China Times*, Shanghai; dean, school of journalism, Fuh Tan Univ.; professor, National Central Univ.; member, Legislative Yuan; managing director, *Central Daily News*; secretary-general, Control Yuan, since 1940; vice-minister of information since 1942; address, Ministry of Information, Chungking.

Cheng, Feng

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1904; LL.B. National Sun Yat-sen Univ., 1929; member and reconstruction commissioner, Kwangtung Provincial Government, since 1940 and 1941; address, Kwangtung Provincial Government.

Cheng, F. T. (see Cheng, Tien-hsi).**Cheng, Hai-feng**

labor expert, born in Anhwei, 1904; M.A. Stanford, 1927; secretary, International Labor Office, China Branch, 1930-33; adviser to the workers' delegate to 17th and 18th sessions of International Labor Conference, 1933 and 1934; now director, International Labor Office, China Branch; author, *China's Labor Problems*; address, International Labor Office, China Branch, Chungking.

Cheng, Hsi-meng

cultural worker, born in Kiangsi, 1901; M.A. Wisconsin, 1926; Ph.D. London School of Economics, 1933; member, People's Political Council, since 1941; address, People's Political Council, Chungking.

Cheng, Lai (prefers Loy Chang)

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1892; B.A. and M.A. Harvard Univ.; former manager, Canton Branch of Bank of China; director, State Lottery Administration; director, department of bonds, Ministry of Finance; director, Customs Administration, Ministry of Finance, since January, 1935; address, Ministry of Finance, Chungking.

Cheng, Lieh

government official, born in Kirin, 1913; graduate, Central Political Institute; chief secretary, Kirin Provincial Government, since 1942; address, 8, Consular Lane, Chungking.

Cheng, Shao-chiung

veterinary surgeon, born in Szechwan 1900; B.S., D.V.M. Iowa Agriculture

College, 1926; Sc.D. Johns Hopkins, 1930; director of fishery and animal husbandry, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, since 1940; address, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, Chungking.

Cheng, Sheh-wo

journalist, government official, native of Hunan, born 1898; B.A. National Peking Univ., 1921; attended London School of Economics; former publisher of *Shih Chieh Jih Pao* (Peiping), *Min Sheng Pao* (Nanking), *Li Pao* (Shanghai), *Li Pao* (Hongkong); now member, People's Political Council, since 1938; address, People's Political Council, Chungking.

Cheng, Tien-fang

educator, government official, born in Kiangsi, 1899; B.A. (1922) and M.A. (1923), Illinois; Ph.D. Toronto, 1926; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1929; chancellor, National Chekiang Univ., 1932-33; member and secretary-general, Kiangsi Provincial Government, 1933-34; dean, Central Political Institute, 1934-35; ambassador to Germany, 1935-38; chancellor, National Szechwan University, 1938-42; dean, Central Political Institute, since 1943; address, Central Political Institute, Chungking.

Cheng, Tien-hsi (prefers F. T. Cheng)

jurist, born in Kwangtung, 1884; LL.B. London, 1912; called to bar in London, 1913; LL.D. London, 1916; vice-minister of justice, 1932-34; special commissioner to 1935 London International Exhibition of Chinese Art; nominated successor to Dr. Wang Chung-hui as judge on Permanent Court of International Justice, 1936.

Cheng, Tien-ku

diplomatic official, born in Kwangtung, 1890; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1931; now minister to Mexico; address, Chinese Legation, Mexico City.

Cheng, Tung-ho

educator, government official, born in Anhwei, 1898; B.A. Nankai Univ., M.A. Columbia; former professor, Ta Hsia, Kwang Hwa, Fuh Tan, Chi Nan universities; member and education commissioner, Kansu Provincial Government, since November, 1938; executive director, Chinese Education Society; address, Bureau of Education, Lanchow.

Cheng, Yi-tung

party leader, born in Chekiang, 1900; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935.

Cheng, Yu-hsiu (Madame Wei Tao-ming, prefers Soumay Tcheng)

lawyer, born in Kwangtung, 1894; LL.D. Paris, 1926; practised law in Shanghai, 1928-30; address, Chinese Embassy, Washington D.C.

Chi, Cheng-ju

government official, born in Honan, 1885; member of Honan Provincial Government and education commissioner, 1931-35; member, Honan Provincial Government, 1935-41 and since 1941; address, Honan Provincial Government, Loyang, Honan.

Chi, Shou-nan (prefers Sheo-nan Cheer)

physician, born in Chekiang, 1892; B.A. Univ. of Nanking, 1916; M.D. Johns Hopkins, 1920; superintendent, United Hospital of Associated Universities, Chengtu, 1938-41; director, National Central Univ. School of Medicine, since 1935; president, Szechwan General Hospital, Chengtu, since 1941; address, National Central Univ. School of Medicine, Chengtu.

Chia, Lin-ping

educator, born in Shansi, November, 1898; B.A. Yenching Univ., Peiping, 1924; M.A. Oberlin, 1929; Principal, Oberlin-in-China, 1936-40; president, Agricultural-Industrial Vocational School, Oberlin-in-China, Chingtang, since 1940; address, Chingtang, Szechwan.

Chiang, Chi-cheng (prefers C. Z. Chiang)

government official, born in Chekiang, 1896; B.S. National Peking Univ., 1921; research work, Berlin Univ., 1921-23; member and education commissioner, Szechwan Provincial Government, 1936-38; mayor of Chungking, 1938-39; proctor and administrative director, Central Political Institute, 1939-41; director, department of general affairs, Ministry of Education, since 1941; address, Ministry of Education, Chungking.

Chiang, Chu-ou Lieut.-General

army officer, born in Hunan, 1889; commander of railway artillery and garrison commander of Chengchow, 1933-34; senior staff officer, National Military Council, 1935-37; director of communication guards, Ministry of Communications,

since 1937; commander of communication guards and deputy commander of railway transportation, National Military Council, since 1937; address, Communication Police Headquarters, Chungking.

Chiang, Chung-cheng (Chiang, Kai-shek) Generalissimo

born at Fenghua, Chekiang, 1888; attended Paoting Military Academy in 1906 and Japanese Military Cadets' Academy in 1907; participated in 1911 revolution and helped to occupy Shanghai in the revolutionary war; appointed president, Whampoa Military Academy, 1923, when the institution was established, visited U.S.S.R. at the order of Dr. Sun Yat-sen, 1924; appointed commander-in-chief of the Revolutionary Forces in July, 1926, to lead Northern Punitive Expedition which unified China in 1928; elected chairman of National Government in October, 1928; and in that capacity assumed the post of commander-in-chief of land, naval and air forces of China; between 1928 and 1931, he held at certain periods the posts of president of the Executive Yuan and minister of education; he retired in December, 1931, but returned to Nanking in January, 1932; elected chairman, National Military Council, 1932, a post which he has since retained; at certain periods between 1932 to 1937 was chief of general staff, chairman of National Economic Council, member of Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang, of Central Political Council, and of State Council; since the outbreak of the war, his duties have increased enormously; he is the acknowledged leader of the nation and the supreme commander of the country's armed forces; now Tsung Tsai (chief executive) of Kuomintang, chairman of National Military Council, chairman of Supreme National Defense Council, a member of presidium of People's Political Council, and president of Executive Yuan, besides other minor responsibilities; address, National Military Council, Chungking.

Madame Chiang, Kai-shek (Chiang Soong Mei-ling)

woman leader, born at Shanghai; B.A. Wellesley; married Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek in 1927; member, Legislative Yuan, 1929-32; principal, School for the Orphans of the Revolution, 1929-37; secretary-general, National Aeronautical Affairs Commission, 1937-38; director-general, Woman's Advisory Committee of the New Life Movement, since 1938; directs the care of war orphans and

women's wartime service; visited the United States in 1942-43; address, c/o National Military Council, Chungking.

Chiang, Fu-tsung

library expert, born in Chekiang, 1898; B.A. National Peking Univ., 1924; now director, National Central Library; address, National Central Library, Chungking.

Chiang, I-ping (prefers Eugene Y. B. Kiang)

government official, lawyer, born in Chekiang, 1898; B.A. Fuh Tan Univ., 1922; LL.B. Soochow Univ., 1923; vice-president, National Fuh Tan Univ., 1941; member, People's Political Council, since 1942; advisor, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, since 1942; address, 1, Min Chu Road, Chungking.

Chiang, Kai-shek (see Chiang Chung-cheng).

Chiang, Kuang-nai General army commander, born in Kwangtung, 1887; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; commander-in-chief, 19th route army, defending Shanghai against Japanese invasion, 1932; now vice-commander-in-chief, 4th War Area; address, 4th War Area Headquarters, Kukong, Kwangtung.

Chiang, Meng-lin (prefers Monlin Chiang)

university president, born in Chekiang, 1884; B.A. California, 1912; M.A. and Ph.D. Columbia, 1917; education commissioner, Chekiang, 1927; minister of education, 1928-30; chancellor, National Peking Univ., since 1930; member, Executive Council, National Southwest Associated Univ.; president, Chinese Red Cross; director, China Foundation for the Promotion of Education and Culture, and China Branch, Institute of Pacific Relations; address, National Southwest Associated Univ., Kunming.

Chiang, Monlin (see Chiang Meng-lin).

Chiang, Po-cheng Lieut.-General army officer, born in Chekiang, 1890; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935; now councillor Military Advisory Council; address, Military Advisory Council, Chungking.

Chiang Soong Mei-ling (see Madame Chiang Kai-shek).

Chiang, Ting-fu (prefers **T. F. Tsiang**)

professor, diplomat, government official, born in Hunan, December, 1895; B.A. Oberlin College, 1918; Ph.D. Columbia, 1923; professor, Nankai Univ., 1923-29, and National Tsing Hua Univ., 1929-35; director of political affairs department, Executive Yuan, 1935-36; ambassador to U.S.S.R. 1936-38; director, political affairs department, Executive Yuan, since 1938; author of *Select Documents on Chinese Diplomatic History*, and *Modern Chinese History*; address, Executive Yuan, Chungking.

Chiang Ting-wen**General**

army officer, born in Chekiang, 1898; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; commander, 16th division, 1930; commander, 9th army, 1931-32; commander of Yangtze river defenses, 1933; military affairs commissioner, Fukien, 1934-37; director, Generalissimo's Headquarters in Sian, 1937; governor, Shensi Province, 1938-41; commander-in-chief, 1st War Area, since 1942; address, 1st War Area Hqrs., Loyang.

Chiao, I-tang

government official, born in Shensi, 1875; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1927; president, Supreme Court, since 1935; address, Supreme Court, Chungking.

Chiao, Karl H. (see **Chiao, Yi-sheng**)**Chiao, Yi-sheng****General**

(prefers **Karl H. Chiao**)

state councillor, born in Shansi, 1882; studied medicine at Edinburgh, 1900-04; and London, 1908-11; Shansi delegate to Provisional National Congress, 1912; member, Military Advisory Council, since 1942; elected state councillor, 1942; address, 23, Tusuliang, Kwanyingchiao, Kiangpei, Szechwan.

Chien, Chang-chao

government official, born in Kiangsu, 1901; studied at London and Oxford; vice-minister of education, 1931-34; deputy secretary-general, National Defense Planning Council, 1932-34; deputy secretary-general, National Resources Commission, National Military Council, 1934-38; vice-chairman, National Resources Commission, Ministry of Economic Affairs, since 1938; address, National Resources Commission, Chungking.

Chien, Chu-hsiu

government official, writer, born in Chekiang, 1883; graduate, Fuh Tan Univ.,

1911; managing editor, *Eastern Miscellany*, and concurrently principal, Commercial Press Chinese Correspondence School, 1915-30; secretary, 1931-41, chief secretary, 1942, member, since 1942, Control Yuan; address, Control Yuan, Chungking.

Chien, Kuan-san

government official, born in Honan, 1903; graduate, National Wuchang Normal College, 1923; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1942; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Chien, Ta-chun**General**

army officer, born in Kiangsu, 1892; graduate, Tokyo Military Cadets' Academy, 1916; commander, 1st division, 1925; 13th army, 1929; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Committee, 1931; director, National Aeronautical Affairs Commission, 1939-40; vice-minister of war, since 1942; address, Ministry of War, Chungking.

Chien, Tai (prefers **Tsien Tai**)

diplomatic official, born in Chekiang, 1887; docteur en droit, Paris; minister and then ambassador to Belgium, 1933-42; vice-minister of foreign affairs, 1942; ambassador to Belgium, since 1943; address, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Chungking.

Chien, Tien-ho

government official, agriculturist, born in Chekiang, 1895; B.S.A. (1917) and M.S.A. (1918), Cornell; assistant director, National Agricultural Research Bureau, 1933-37; director, department of agriculture and forestry, Ministry of Economic Affairs, 1938-40; vice-minister of agriculture and forestry, since 1940; address, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, Chungking.

Chien, Yu-wen (prefers **Jen, Yu-wen**)

professor, government official, born in Kwangtung, 1896; B.A. Oberlin, 1917; M.A. Chicago, 1920; professor, Yenching Univ., 1923-26; principal, Chiu Shih School, Peiping, 1924-29; member, Kwangtung Provincial Government, and director, Canton Municipal Social Welfare Bureau, 1931-32; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1933; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Chien, Yung-ming

banker, born in Shanghai, 1885; graduate, Kobe Commercial College, Japan, vice-minister of finance, 1927; finance commissioner, Chekiang Provincial Government, 1927-29; chairman board of

directors, Bank of Communications, since 1938; concurrently member, Board of Executive, Joint Board of Four Government Banks; address, Bank of Communications, Chungking.

Chin, Cheng

government official, born in Hunan, 1883; graduate, Waseda Univ., Tokyo; vice-president, Judicial Yuan, since 1932; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1926; address, Judicial Yuan, Chungking.

Chin, Chi-yung

government official, born in Shantung, 1903; graduate, Central Military Academy; now member and reconstruction commissioner, Shantung Provincial Government.

Chin, Fen

government official, born in Kiangsu, 1887; B.A. M.A. Harvard, 1909; vice-minister of finance, 1935; secretary general, National Economic Council, 1933-37; political vice-minister of economic affairs, since 1938; address, Ministry of Economic Affairs, Chungking.

Chin, Pao-shan (prefers P. Z. King)

health director, government official, born in Chekiang, 1892; M.D. China Medical College, Japan, 1918; C.P.H. Johns Hopkins, 1927; former professor, college of medicine, National Peiping Univ., commissioner of health, Hangchow; director, National Epidemic Prevention Bureau; vice-director, Central Field Health Station; senior technical expert, National Health Administration, later deputy director-general; director-general, National Health Administration, since April, 1940; president, Chinese Medical Association; author of *Principles of Local Health Administration during Wartime*, *Health Education in Schools*, etc.; address, National Health Administration, Chungking.

Chin, Teh-shun

General

army officer, government official, born in Shantung, 1893; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1916; Staff College, 1922; participated in Hsifengkow battle, 1933, when he was deputy commander, 3rd Route Army; governor, Chahar Province, 1935; was Peiping mayor and concurrently vice-commander, 29th Army, when Japan launched her North China attack in 1937; member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee; deputy director-general of courts-martial since 1941; address, Directorate-General of Courts-martial, Chungking.

Chin, Tseng-cheng (prefers Kam Tsung Ching)

university president, born at Canton, 1880; graduate, Teachers' College, Japan, 1910; member, Kwangtung Provincial Government, 1928-39, and education commissioner, 1928-31; member, People's Political Council, since 1940; chancellor, National Sun Yat-sen Univ., since 1942; address, National Sun Yat-sen Univ. Lochang, Kwangtung.

Chin, Wen-ssu (prefers Wunsz King)

diplomat, born in Kiangsu, 1892; graduate, Fuh Tan Univ., 1910; LL.B. Peiyang Univ., 1915; LL.M. Columbia, 1919; commissioner of foreign affairs, Shanghai, 1930; vice-minister of foreign affairs, 1931; minister and later ambassador to Holland, since 1933; address, Chinese Embassy to the Netherlands, London.

Chou, Ao

official, born in Hunan, 1879; graduate, Law College, Japan; graduate study, Oxford; civil affairs commissioner, Hunan Province, 1913; political vice-minister, Ministry of Personnel, 1929-33; member, People's Political Council, since 1938; address, 5 Wen Hsin Chao, Changsha, Hunan.

Chiu, Chang-weï

government official, born in Hunan, 1898; B.A. Pomona College, 1923; M.A. (1924); Ph.D. (1928) Columbia; professor; Northeastern Univ., Mukden, 1928-30; secretary-general, Kwangsi Provincial Government, 1935-36; member and education commissioner, Kwangsi Provincial Government, 1936-39; civil affairs commissioner, Kwangsi Provincial Government, 1939-42; secretary-general, Kwangsi Provincial Government, since 1943; address, Kwangsi Provincial Government, Kweilin, Kwangsi.

Chou, Chi-kang (prefers Chau Chi Kong)

party and government official, born in Kwangtung, 1889; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1929; vice-director, Kuomintang Overseas Affairs Board, 1937-38; special overseas affairs commissioner to the South Seas, 1939; vice-chairman, Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission, Executive Yuan, since 1932; address, 590, Lin Sen Road, Chungking.

Chou, Chieh-chun (prefers Jou Jieh-chuen)

government official, born in Hupeh, 1888; member and finance commissioner, Shensi

Provincial Government; chairman, board of directors, Shensi Provincial Bank; chairman, board of directors, Shensi Development Corporation, since 1939; address, Finance Department, Sian, Shensi.

Chou, Chih-jou Air Maj.-General

air officer, born in Chekiang, 1898; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; commander, Central Aviation Academy, Hanchow, 1934; director, National Aeronautical Affairs Commission, since 1941; address, National Aeronautical Affairs Commission, Chungking.

Chou, Chung-yueh

government official, born in Yunnan; acting governor, Yunnan, 1919; secretary-general, Yunnan Provincial Government, 1922; civil affairs commissioner, Yunnan, 1926; member, Yunnan Provincial Government, 1928-38; minister of interior, since 1939; address, Ministry of Interior, Chungking.

Chou, En-lai

communist leader, born in Kiangsu, 1898; attended Waseda (Japan) and later Nankai (Tientsin) universities; went to France in 1920 and later to Germany; joined Communist Youth while in France and joined Communist Party later; led worker's uprisings in Shanghai, 1927; participated in Nanchang uprising, 1927; went to Kiangsi to join communist army there, 1931; held a succession of different posts in Communist Party; after the war broke out, he became liaison officer between Kuomintang and Chinese Communist Party and was vice-minister, political training board, National Military Council, 1938-40; now official representative of the Chinese Communist Party in Chungking.

Chou, Hsiang-hsien (prefers Z. Y. Chow)

government official, born in Chekiang, 1890; B.A. Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1915; former chairman, Yangtze Conservancy Board; director, Lushan Administration Bureau; member, Chekiang Provincial Government; mayor of Hangchow; now secretary-general, Chinese Industrial Co-operatives; address, Chinese Industrial Co-operatives, Chungking.

Chou, I-chih

government official, born in Chekiang, 1904; B.A. China Univ.; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1933; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Chou, I-chun (prefers Y. T. Tsur)

government official, born in Hankow, 1883; B.A. Yale, 1909; M.A. Winsconsin, 1910; Hon. D.Litt. St. John's Univ.; sometime president, Tsing Hua College; executive director, China Foundation for the Promotion of Education and Culture, 1924-28; president, Yenching Univ., 1933-34; vice-minister of industry, 1935-37; now member and finance commissioner, Kweichow Provincial Government; address, Department of Finance, Kweichow, Kweichow.

Chou, Jen

engineer, born at Nanking, 1884; M.M.S. Cornell, 1915; professor, Nanyang Univ., 1921-27; dean, college of engineering, National Central Univ., 1927-28; director, Industrial Research Institute, Academia Sinica, since 1928; address, P. O. Box 59, Kunming.

Chou, Keng-sheng (prefers S. R. Chou)

university professor, born in Hunan, 1888; M.A. Edinburgh; docteur en droit, Paris; dean and professor, department of political science, National Wuhan Univ., since 1933; now in U.S.A.; address, c/o National Wuhan Univ., Loshan, Szechwan.

Chou, Lan

Lieut.-General

army officer and government official, born in Hunan, 1894; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1916; Staff College, 1938; former commander, 17th army and new 8th division; member, Hunan Provincial Government, since 1941; address, Hungchiao, Chiyang, Hunan.

Chou, Po-min

educator, government official, born in Shensi, 1892; member, Control Yuan, 1931; member, Shensi Provincial Government, and educational commissioner, 1937; now president, National Northwest Agricultural College; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935; address, National Northwest Agricultural College, Wukung, Shensi.

Chou, S. R. (see Chou Keng-sheng).

Chou, Tsung-lien

college president, born in Hunan, 1902; B.Eng. Peiyang Univ., 1928; Ph.D. Eng. Manchester, 1936; president, National Polytechnical School of Sikang, since 1942; address, National Polytechnical School, Sichang, Sikang.

Chow Z. Y. (see Chou Hsiang-hsien).

Chu, Chang-keng

health expert, born in Chekiang, 1901; M.D. Peiping Medical Union College, 1929; Ph.D. Yale, 1932; head, department of health education, Central Field Health Station, 1932-39; director, Public Health Personnel Training Institute, National Health Administration, 1938-40; now director, National Institute of Health; address, National Institute of Health, Sinchiao, Chungking.

Chu, Cheng

Kuomintang and government leader, born in Hupeh, 1876; graduate, Tokyo Law College; acting minister of interior, 1912; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1924; president, Judicial Yuan, since 1932; address, Judicial Yuan, Chungking.

Chu, Chi

government official, born in Chekiang, 1906; Ph.D. Beren; professor, Univ. of Nanking, 1932-39; director, department of state monopoly, Ministry of Finance, since 1942; address, Ministry of Finance, Chungking.

Chu, Chi-ching

Kuomintang leader, born in Liaoning; former state councillor. National Government; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1938.

Chu, Chia-hua

Kuomintang and government leader, born in Chekiang, 1893; Ph.D. Berlin; chancellor, National Central Univ., 1941; minister of education, 1932; minister of communications, 1932-35; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1929; chairman, Board of Trustees for the Administration of Boxer Indemnity Fund Remitted by British Government, since 1931; governor, Chekiang Province, 1936-37; secretary-general, Central Kuomintang, 1938-40; minister, Kuomintang Organization Board, since 1941; president, Academia Sinica, since 1942; vice-president, Executive Yuan, since 1942; address, Organization Board, Chungking.

Chu, Ching-nung (prefers **King Chu**)

government official, born in Kiangsu, 1887; B.A. M.A. Columbia, 1919; vice-minister of education, 1931; president, Cheeloo Univ., Tsinan, 1931-33; member, and education commissioner, Hunan Provincial Government, 1932-43; dean, National Central Univ., since 1943.

Chu, Chun-yl (prefers **Jennings P. Chu**)

professor, government official, born in Chekiang, 1892; graduate, National Tsin Hua Univ., 1916; B.A. John Hopkins, 1918; M.A. (1920) and Ph.D. (1922), Columbia; professor, National Southeast, Tsing Hua, and Amoy universities, and Central Political Institute, 1922-37; director, Bureau of Legislative Research, Legislative Yuan, 1932-33; comptroller, National Government, and deputy director, Directorate of Statistics, since 1933; address, Directorate of Statistics, National Government, Chungking.

Chu, Chung-liang

government official, born in Chekiang, 1891; member, Control Yuan, since 1903; address, Control Yuan, Chungking.

Chu Coching (see **Chu Ko-cheng**).**Chu, Fu-ting** (prefers **Venfour F. Tchou**)

government official, born in Kiangsu, 1891; B.A. Peking Univ., 1913; M.A. Paris, 1917; LL.D. Geneva, 1920; civil affairs commissioner, Anhwei Provincial Government, 1938; secretary-general and member, Anhwei Provincial Government, since 1938; address, Lihwang, Anhwei.

Chu, Hsueh-fan

labor leader, born in Chekiang, 1906; LL.B. Shanghai College of Law; Chinese workers' delegate to 20th, 23rd, 24th, 25th and 26th sessions, International Labor Congress; Chinese workers' delegate to International Tripartite Textile Conference, Washington, 1937; and Joint Maritime Commission Meeting, London, 1942; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1933; president, Chinese Association of Labor, since 1939; member, Governing Body, International Labor Office, since 1942; address, Chinese Association of Labor, Chungking.

Chu, Huel-ping **Lieut.-General**

government official, born in Hupeh, 1892; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; member and civil affairs commissioner, Hupeh Provincial Government, since 1940; address, Civil Affairs Department, Enshih, Hupeh.

Chu, Jennings P. (see **Chu Chun-yl**).**Chu, King** (see **Chu, Ching-nung**).**Chu, Ko-cheng** (prefers **Coching Chu**)

university president, scientist, born in Chekiang, 1890; B.S. Illinois, 1913;

Ph.D. Harvard, 1918; director, research institute of meteorology, Academia Sinica, since 1928; chancellor, National Chekiang Univ., since 1936; address, National Chekiang Univ., Tsunyi, Kweichow.

Chu, Kuang-chien (prefers **Chu Kwang-t sien**)

educator, born in Anhwei, 1897; B.A. Hongkong Univ., M.A. Edinburgh; Litt.D. Strasbourg; professor, National Peking Univ., 1933-37; professor and dean, college of arts, National Szechwan Univ., 1937-38; professor and dean of faculty, National Wuhan Univ., since 1938; address, National Wuhan Univ., Loshan, Szechwan.

Chu, Kwang-t sien (see **Chu, Kuang-chien**).

Chu, Li-king

educator, born in Hupeh, 1889; graduate, Peking Railway and Postal Administration School, 1910; School of Agriculture, France, 1917; B.S. Chemical College, France; member, People's Political Council, since 1938; address, People's Political Council, Chungking.

Chu, Min-shan

government official, born in Shantung, 1894; B.A. National Peking Normal College, 1919; director, Mongolian affairs department, Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission, since 1937; address, Ping Chuang, Kuo Fu Road, Chungking.

Chu, Mrs. Nora Hsiung (see **Hsiung, Tze**).

Chu, Shao-liang

General

army officer, born in Kiangsu, 1890; graduate, Japanese Staff College; commander-in-chief, 3rd route army, 1933; governor, Kansu Province, 1933-35; commander-in-chief, Chinese forces in Shanghai area, 1936; now commander-in-chief, 8th War Area; address, 8th War Area Hqrs., Lanchow.

Chu, Shih-ming

Major-General

army officer, born in Hunan, 1902; graduate, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Norwich Military School, Command and General Staff College at Fort Leavenworth, U.S.A.; former dean, Military Communications and Engineering School; commander of Peace Preservation Corps of Chekiang; military attaché, Chinese Embassy in Moscow; director, department of information, Ministry of Foreign Affairs; now military attaché, Chinese Embassy, Washington.

Chu, Shou-kuang

General

army officer, native of Hupeh, born in Fukien, 1886; graduate, Japanese Staff College, 1916; vice-minister of war, 1929; acting minister of war, 1930; deputy director, Suiyuan Mongolian Political Council, 1940-42; address, c/o Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission, Chungking.

Chu, Teh

General

army officer, communist leader, born in Szechwan, 1886; attended Yunnan Military Academy; joined Communist Party in Berlin, 1922; led Nanchang Uprising, 1927; elected commander-in-chief, Chinese Red Army, 1931; after outbreak of war, he was appointed commander-in-chief, 8th route army of Chinese Army; now commander-in-chief, 18th group army.

Chu, Wu

government official, born in Shensi, 1898; graduate, National Peking University, Moscow Sun Yat-sen University, and Soviet Staff College; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1942; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Chu, Ying-kuang

government official, born in Chekiang, 1881; vice-chairman, National Relief Commission, since 1938; address, National Relief Commission, Chungking.

Chu, Yu-yu (prefers **Y. Y. Tsu**)

Christian leader, born in Shanghai, 1887; B.A. St. John's Univ., 1907; M.A. and Ph.D., Columbia; bishop of Yunnan-Kweichow, since 1940; address, Chung Hua Sheng Kung Hui, Kunming.

Chuan, Tseng-ku

writer, government official, born in Chekiang, 1903; B.A. Stanford, 1925; M.A. Harvard, 1926; contributing editor, *China Critic* (English), 1931-35; member, editorial board, *Tien Hsia Monthly* (English), 1935-41; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1942; concurrently professor, National Fuh Tan Univ.; address, National Fuh Tan Univ., Chungking.

Chuang, Chi-huai

electrical engineer, government official, born in Chekiang, 1900; graduate, Chiao Tung Univ., Paris Electrical and Mechanical School; Law School of Paris Univ., director of industrial enterprises, Ministry of Economic Affairs, since 1940; vice-president, Chinese Electrical Engineering Society; address, Ministry of Economic Affairs, Chungking.

Chung, Shih-fan

hospital superintendent, born in Fukien, 1900; M.D. Peiping Union Medical College, Peiping, 1930; superintendent, Central Hospital, Kweiyang, since 1942; address, Central Hospital, Kweiyang, Kweichow.

Dalal Lama, 14th Incarnation (Tanchu)

sovereign pontiff of Tibet, born of peasant family, Sining, Chinghai, in 1934; enthroned at Lhasa, 1940.

Ding, Kieh-shie (see **Ting, Chi-chieh**).**Fan, Cheng-kang** (prefers **Van, Tsing-kong**)

university president, born in Chekiang, 1894; M.A. Columbia; professor and dean of faculty, Univ. of Shanghai, 1926-39; president, Univ. of Shanghai, since 1938.

Fan, Tseng-po

government official, born in Honan, 1900; graduate, Aurora Univ., member, 4th inspecting corps of army discipline in war areas, 1939-42; member, Control Yuan, since 1939; address, Control Yuan, Chungking.

Fan, Tsung-shih

industrialist, born in Szechwan; LL.B., National Peking Univ., general manager, Szechwan Silk Co., since 1937; adviser to Szechwan Provincial Government; address, Szechwan Silk Co., 92, Shensi Street, Chungking.

Fang, Chih

government official, born in Anhwei, 1895; graduate, Tokyo College of Arts and Science; vice-minister of publicity, Kuomintang, 1936; acting minister of publicity, 1937; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1935; address, Kuomintang Hqrs., Chungking.

Fang, Chueh-huei

party leader, born in Hupeh; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee; address, Kuomintang Hqrs., Chungking.

Fang, Shao-yun

government official, born in Kwangtung 1901; B.S. Chung Kuo Univ., Peiping; member, Kwangtung Provincial Government, since 1942; address, Kwangtung Provincial Government, Kukong, Kwangtung.

Fang, Tsueh

government official, born in Chekiang, 1888; graduate, Military College, 1918;

member and civil affairs commissioner, Honan Provincial Government, since 1938; address, Department of Civil Affairs, Lushan, Honan.

Feng, Chao-yi

government official, native of Liaoning; Ph.D. Germany, 1924; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1929; address, Legislative Yuan.

Feng, Chih-an**Lieut.-General**

army commander, born in Hopei, 1896; graduate, Staff College; participated in present Sino-Japanese war since its very beginning when he was governor of Hopei; commander, 37th division, 1931-37; acting commander, 29th army, 1937; chairman, Hopei Provincial Government, 1936-39; commander, 19th army, since 1937; commander-in-chief, 33rd group army, since 1940.

Feng, Chin-tsai**General**

army officer, government official, born in Shansi, 1887; commander, 7th army, 1932; commander-in-chief, 27th route army, 1937; acting commander-in-chief, 14th group army and commander, 98th army, 1939; deputy commander-in-chief, Hopei-Chahar War Area, and governor, Chahar Province, since August, 1941; address, Chahar Provincial Government, Loyang, Honan.

Feng, Tze-kai

artist, born in Chekiang, 1898; graduate, Kawahana Painting School, 1921; professor, National Chekiang Univ., 1939-42; dean, National Fine Arts School, since 1942; address, National Fine Arts School, Shapingah, Chungking.

Feng, Yu-cheng

journalist, born in Kiangsu, 1906; graduate, Hangchow Christian College; managing director, Anhwei Edition, *Central Daily News*; address, 123, Li Li, Tunki, Anhwei.

Feng, Yu-hsiang**General**

army officer, born in Anhwei, 1880; participated in many battles and held many important positions such as military governor of Honan and Shensi and defense commissioner of the Northwest prior to northern punitive campaigns; commander-in-chief, 2nd group army of revolutionary forces, during Northern Punitive Expedition, 1926-27; elected state councillor, National Government, 1928; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1929; vice-president, Executive Yuan, and minister

of war, 1928-29; re-elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1931; re-elected state councillor, 1932; vice-chairman, National Military Council, 1936; now member, National Military Council; address, National Military Council, Chungking.

Feng, Yukon (see **Feng, Yu-kun**).

Feng, Yu-kun (prefers **Yukon Feng**) government official, born in Hunan, 1903; graduate, Tsing Hua Univ., 1927; B.A. Univ. of Washington, 1930; M.A. Michigan, 1931; graduate, Birmingham Police Academy, 1932; director, department of police administration, Ministry of Interior, since 1936; address, Ministry of Interior, Chungking.

Feng, Yu-lan (prefers **Fung Yu-lan**) professor, philosopher, born in Honan, 1890; graduate, National Peking Univ., 1918; Ph.D. Columbia, 1923; professor, National Tsing Hua Univ., 1927-32; dean, college of arts, same institution, since 1933; now professor, National Southwest Associated Univ.; author of many books on Chinese philosophy, including *A History of Chinese Philosophy*, *New Philosophy* (won 1st prize from Ministry of Education, 1942), and *New Way of Life*; address, National Southwest Associated Univ., Kunming.

Fong, B.S. (see **Kuang, Ping-sheng**).

Fu, Ju-ling

government official, born in Heilungkiang, 1901; graduate, National Peking Univ., elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935; Chairman, Yangtze River Conservancy Commission; address, Yangtze River Conservancy Commission, Chungking.

Fu, Ping-chang (prefers **Foo Ping-sheung**)

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1895; graduate, Hongkong Univ., member, Legislative Yuan, and chairman, foreign relations committee, 1928-41 and 1942; appointed Minister to Belgium, 1929; elected member, Central Executive Committee of Kuomintang, 1935; political vice-minister of foreign affairs, 1941-42; ambassador to U.S.S.R., since 1943.

Fu, Ssu-nien

professor, historian, born in Shantung, 1896; graduate, National Peking Univ., 1919; studied at London,

1920-23; Berlin, 1923-26; professor, National Peking Univ., 1926-32; director-general, Academia Sinica, 1940-41; director, historical and lingual research institute, Academia Sinica, since 1928; member, People's Political Council, since 1938; address, P. O. Box 5, Lichuang, Szechwan.

Fu, Tso-yl

General

army commander, government official, born in Shansi, 1895; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1918; participated in many battles during Northern Punitive Expedition and present Sino-Japanese war; garrison commander, Tientsin, 1928-30; commander, 10th army, 1929-30; commander, 35th army, 1930-32; commander-in-chief, 7th army corps, 1933; commander-in-chief, 7th group army, and concurrently commander-in-chief, north route army, 1937-38; chairman, Suiyuan Provincial Government, since 1931; vice-commander-in-chief, 8th War Area, since 1939; holder of Blue-sky White-sun Medal, 1st class National Guidian Medal, 1st class White Cloud Medal, 1st class Tripod Medal; address, Suiyuan Provincial Government, Shenhah, Suiyuan.

Fung, Yu-lan (see **Feng, Yu-lan**).

Han, Ching-chieh

government official, born in Kirin, 1894; graduate, Kirin Law School; member and justice commissioner, Kansu Provincial Government, 1936-37; president, Kansu High Court, 1937-38; member, Control Yuan, since 1938; member of 5th inspecting corps of army discipline in War Areas since 1941; address, Control Yuan, Chungking.

Han, Lh-wu (see **Hang, Li-wu**).

Han, Teh-chin

Lieut.-General

army officer, born in Kiangsu; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; appointed acting governor, Kiangsu Province, 1938, and confirmed in the post, 1939; directs Chinese troops in northern Kiangsu.

Hang, Li-wu (prefers **Han Li-wu**)

government official, born in Anhwei, 1902; B.A. Univ. of Nanking, 1924; research student, London, 1926-28; M.A. Winsconsin, 1928; director, Board of Trustees for the Administration of Indemnity Funds Remitted by British Government, since 1932; member, People's Political Council, since 1938; address, Yu Chwan Villa, LiangLukou, Chungking.

Ho, Cheng-chun

army officer, born in Hupeh, 1882; graduate, Tokyo Military Cadets Academy; aide-de-camp to chairman, National Government, 1928; governor, Hupeh Province, 1929-30; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1929; pacification commissioner, Hupeh, 1932-37; director, Generalissimo's headquarters at Wuhan, and governor, Hupeh Province, 1937; director-general of Courts-Martial, since 1938; address, Directorate-general of Courts-Martial, Chungking.

Ho, Chieh

professor, geologist, born in Kwangtung, 1890; metallurgical engineer, Univ. of Colorado; M.S. Lehigh; appointed by Ministry of Education "Ministry-appointed Professor," 1942; now professor and dean, college of science, National Sun Yat-sen Univ., and director, Kwangtung-Kwangsi Geological Survey; address, National Sun Yat-sen Univ., Pingshih, Kwangtung.

Ho, Chien

government official, born in Hunan, 1886; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; commander, 35th army, 1917-27; commander, 4th route army, 1928-37; governor, Hunan Province, 1929-37; minister of interior, 1937-39; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935; chairman, Awards and Pension Commission, National Military Council, since 1939; author of several books including *Introduction to Chinese Universalism*, Translated into English and published by the Association for International Cultural Co-operation in 1936; address, 8, Ta Chi Villa, Chungking.

Ho, Chung-han

government official, born in Hunan, 1902; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935; now director, labor bureau, Ministry of Social Affairs; address, Labor Bureau, Chungking.

Hoh, Gunsun (see Ho Keng-sheng).**Ho, Franklin L. (see Ho, Lien).****Ho, Jen-hao**

government official, born in Kiangsi, 1904; graduate, Central Political Institute, 1928; member, People's Political Council, since 1942; address, c/o Post Office, Pai Pu Hsu, Hweichang, Kiangsi.

General**Ho, Ke-fu**

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1880; member, Control Yuan, since 1942; address, 15, Shuang Hsiang Tze, Lin Sen Road, Chungking.

Ho, Keng-sheng (prefers Gunsun Hoh)

physical director, born in Kiangsu, 1899; B.P.E. Springfield, 1923; national director of physical education, Ministry of Education, since 1933; secretary-general, Chinese Gliders' Association, since 1941; author, *Physical Education in China*; address, Ministry of Education, Ching Mu Kuan, Chungking.

Ho, Kuo-kuang

army officer, born in Hupeh, 1884; graduate, Staff College; garrison commander, Hankow, 1929; deputy inspector-general of military training, 1929-32; acting director, Generalissimo's headquarters in Szechwan, 1935-38; mayor of Chungking, 1939; secretary-general, Szechwan Provincial Government, 1940-41; air defense commander, Chungking, since 1937; commander of gendarmerie since 1942; address, Gendarmerie Headquarters, Chungking.

Lieut.-General**Ho, Lien (prefers Franklin L. Ho)**

economist, government official, born in Hunan, 1897; B.A. Pomona College, Cal., 1922; Ph.D. Yale, 1926; professor, Nankai Univ., 1926-30; director, Nankai Economic Research Institute, since 1930; director, political affairs department, Executive Yuan, 1937; vice-minister of economic affairs, 1938; director, Agricultural Credit Administration, 1939-41; address, Nankai Economic Research Institute, Chungking.

Ho, Lien-kwei

party worker, born in Chekiang, 1902; B.A. National Peking Univ., 1926; graduate work in London Univ., now secretary, headquarters of Kuomintang Youth Corps; member and concurrently chief secretary, Kuomintang Central Training Committee; member, People's Political Council; address, 7, Mei Shan Street, Chungking.

Ho, Hao-jo

government official, born in Hunan, 1899; B.A. Stanford, M.A., Ph.D. Winsconsin; graduate, Norwich Military College; director, Commodity Administration, 1942; deputy secretary-general, National General Mobilization Council, since 1943; address, National General Mobilization Council, Chungking.

Ho, Pei-heng

government official, born in Szechwan, in 1898; graduate, National Peking Univ., former member and reconstruction commissioner, Szechwan Provincial Government; now director, Szechwan Water Conservancy Bureau; address, Szechwan Water Conservancy Bureau, Chengtu, Szechwan.

Ho, Ping-sung

university president, born in Chekiang, 1890; B.A. Winsconsin, 1915; M.A. Princeton, 1916; president, National China Univ., since 1935; chairman, preparatory committee, National South-east Associated Univ., since 1942; address, c/o Ministry of Education, Chungking.

Ho, Ssu-yuan

government official, born in Shantung, 1899; M.S. Chicago; elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1935; now member and education commissioner, Shantung Provincial Government.

Ho, Sui**Lieut.-General**

government official, born in Fukien, 1887; graduate, Staff College, 1908; holder of D.S.O. (British); chairman, military affairs commission, Legislative Yuan, since 1934; address, Legislative Yuan.

Ho, Tung

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1893; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; member and civil affairs commissioner, Kwangtung Provincial Government; address, Civil Affairs Department, Kukong.

Ho, Yang-ling

government official, born in Kiangsi, 1902; graduate, National Wuchang Normal College, and Waseda Univ., Tokyo; member and director, western Chekiang office, Chekiang Provincial Government, since 1939.

Ho, Yao-tsu**General**

army officer, government official, born in Hunan, 1889; graduate, Tokyo Military Cadets Academy; commander, 3rd army, 1928; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1931; aide-de-camp to chairman of National Government, 1932-34; vice-chief of the general staff, 1932-34; minister to Turkey, 1934-36; governor, Kansu Province, 1937; aide-de-camp to the Generalissimo, 1940-42; secretary-general, economic council, Executive Yuan, 1941-42;

secretary-general, National General Mobilization Council, 1942; mayor of Chungking since 1942; address, Municipal Government, Chungking.

Ho, Yen-chun

professor, born in Kwangtung, 1900; M.S. Lyons, France, 1924; professor and dean, department of mathematics, National Sun Yat-sen Univ., 1926-33; dean, college of science, same institution, 1933-40; dean, college of science, National Yunnan Univ., 1940-42; dean of faculty, same institution, since 1942; address, National Yunnan Univ., Kunming.

Ho, Ying-chin**General**

army officer, born in Kweichow, 1889; graduate, Tokyo Military Cadets' Academy; dean, Whampoa Military Academy, 1924; commander-in-chief, eastern route army, National Revolutionary Army, 1926; governor, Fukien Province, 1926; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1926; chief of staff, National Revolutionary Army, 1927; governor, Chekiang Province, 1928; inspector-general of military training, 1929; minister of war, since 1930; elected state councillor, National Government, 1931; acting president, Peiping Branch, National Military Council, 1933; chief of staff of Chinese army, since 1937; address, National Military Council, Chungking.

Hoo, Victor Chitsai (see **Hu Shih-tseh**).

Hou, Chia-yuan

railway engineer, born in Kiangsu, 1896; graduate, Tangshan Engineering College, 1918; M.S. Cornell, 1919; director, engineering bureau, Hunan-Kweichow Railway, 1936; chief engineer, Kiangsi section, Nanking-Kiangsi Railway, 1937-38; general manager, Hunan-Kwangsi Railway, 1938-40; director and chief engineer, engineering bureau, Kweichow-Kwangsi Railway, since 1939; address, Kiunglungchuang, Ishan, Kwangsi.

Hou, Pao-chang

physician, born in Anhwei, 1895; M.D. Peiping Union Medical College, 1921; studied at Chicago (1927), Berlin (1928-29), and National Hospital for Nervous Diseases, London, 1935; professor (Ministry of Education Chair) of pathology, West China Union Univ., Chengtu, 1938-39; professor and head, pathology department, Cheeloo Univ., since 1938; member of Pathological Society of Great Britain and Ireland;

chairman (1942), West China Border Research Society; address, Cheeloo Univ., Chengtu.

Hou, Teh-feng

geologist, born in Hopei, 1898; graduate, National Peking Univ., 1923; director, Szechwan Geological Survey, since 1942; author, *Power Resources of China*, and *The Mineral Reserve of China*; address, P. O. Box 4, Hsiaolung kang, Chungking.

Hou, Tsung-lien

college president, born in Liaoning, 1900; M.D. Tokyo Imperial Univ., 1924; professor, Medical College, National Peiping Univ., 1931-37; president, Fukien Provincial Medical College, since 1937.

Hsi, Luen

banker, born in Anhwei, 1895; B.A. 1928, M.A. 1921, Harvard; acting general manager, National Industrial Bank of China, since 1942; member, People's Political Council, since 1938; address, National Industrial Bank, Chungking.

Hsi, Te-ping

government official, born in Kiangsu, 1891; B.S. Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1914; commerce diploma, Birmingham Univ., 1915; superintendent of customs, Hankow, 1929-37; director, Central Mint, since 1937, and general manager, Fu Hua Trading Corporation, since, 1942.

Hsi, Tseng-toh

government official, born in Mongolia, 1907; graduate, Catholic Univ., Peiping; member, People's Political Council, since 1938; member, inspecting corps of army discipline in war areas, National Military Council, since 1938; address, People's Political Council, Chungking.

Hsi, Wen-kuan

banker, born in Szechwan, 1895; graduate, Shanghai Commercial College, 1922; manager, Szechwan Salt Bank, Chungking, since 1940; address, Szechwan Salt Bank, Chungking.

Hsiao, Cheng

party and government official, born in Chekiang, 1905; studied in National Peking Univ. and Univ. of Berlin; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935; vice-chairman, technical committee on economic affairs, Supreme National Defense Council, since 1938; director, China Land Administration Research Institute, since 1941;

president, Chinese Association of Land Economics, since 1933; address, China Land Administration Research Institute, South Hot Springs, Chungking.

Hsia, Ching-ling (prefers C. L. Hsia) government official, born in Chekiang, 1896; B.S. Glasgow, 1919; M.A. (1920) and Ph.D. (1922) Edinburgh; 1st secretary, Chinese Legation, London, 1931-33; 1st secretary, Chinese Legation, Washington, 1933; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1934; director, Chinese News Service, New York, since 1942; address, Chinese News Service, New York.

Hsia, Tou-yin

General

army officer, born in Hupeh, 1884; commander-in-chief, 21st route army, and garrison commander, Wuhan area, 1930; governor, Hupeh Province, 1932; now councillor, Military Advisory Council; address, Military Advisory Council, Chungking.

Hsiang, Han-ping

army officer, born in Kwangtung, 1893; elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1931.

Hsiao, Chi-shan

party leader, born in Kwangtung, 1896; graduate, Canton Normal College; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935.

Hsiao, I-shan

(prefers Yi-shan Shaw) historian, professor, born in Kiangsi, 1902; graduate, National Peking Univ., studied at Cambridge; member, People's Political Council, since 1938; dean, college of arts, National Northeast Univ., since 1939; author, *The History of Ching Dynasty*; address, National Northeast Univ., Santai, Szechwan.

Hsiao, Tung-tzu

(prefers T. T. Hsiao) journalist, government official, born in Hunan, 1894; graduate, Hunan First Industrial College, 1917; elected member, Central Executive Committee of Kuomintang, 1932; director, Central News Agency, since 1932; address, Central News Agency, Chung San Road, Chungking.

Hsieh, Cheng-fu

government official, born in Hunan, 1902; docteur es-lettre, Paris, director, department of social welfare, Ministry of Social Affairs, since 1940; address, Ministry of Social Affairs, Chungking.

Hsieh, Chia-sheng (prefers **K. S. Sie**) agriculturist, government official, born in Anhwei, 1887; M. S. College of Agriculture, Michigan, 1916; studied at Cornell, 1918; professor, Nanking Univ., 1918-21; National Southeast Univ., 1922-27; professor and acting dean, college of agriculture, Nanking Univ., 1930-35; director, National Agricultural Research Bureau, since 1935; address, National Agricultural Research Bureau, Chungking.

Hsieh, Chia-yung geologist, born at Shanghai, 1900; M.S. Wisconsin, 1920; former professor in National Peking Tsing Hua and Peiping Normal universities; chief, Mining Survey Section, Geological Survey of China, since 1940; address, Geological Survey of China, Chungking.

Hsieh, Hsun-chu college president, born in Anhwei, 1896; B.A. Illinois, 1921; M.A. Chicago, 1922; dean, school of education, National Chinan Univ., 1927-33; dean of faculty, Anhwei Provincial Univ., 1934-37; president, National Normal College for Women, since 1940; address, National College for Women, Peisha, Szechwan.

Hsieh, Jen-chao (prefers **Jen C. Hsieh**) cultural worker, born in Anhwei, 1905; M.A. American Univ., Washington D.C., 1936; now secretary-general, People's Foreign Relations Association, Chungking; address, People's Foreign Relations Association, Chungking.

Hsieh, Kwan-sheng (prefers **Sie Kuan-sheng**) government official, born in Chekiang, 1897; docteur en droit, Paris, 1924; councillor and sometime secretary-general, Judicial Yuan, 1930-36; vice-minister of justice, 1934; minister of justice, since 1937; address, Ministry of Justice, Chungking.

Hsieh, Ling educator, born in Kiangsu, 1885, B.A. Meiji Univ., Japan, 1910; secretary-general, Central Bank of China, 1934-36; vice-president, Kwanghua Univ., since Jan. 1937; address, Kwanghua Univ., Chengtu.

Hsieh, Pao-chiao government official, born in Kwangtung, 1896; Ph.D. Johns Hopkins; director, bureau of legislative research, Legislative Yuan, since 1933; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Hsieh, Tso-ming party leader, born in Kwangtung, 1898; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935.

Hsieh, Wan-ying (Mrs. **Wu Wen-tsao**) poetess, professor, better known by her pen-name, Ping Hsin; B.A. Yenching Univ., 1923; M.A. Wellesley, 1926; for several years professor of Chinese at Yenching and National Tsing Hua universities; author (in Chinese) of many volumes of poems and novels, including *The Star*, *The Spring Water*, *Letters to Young Readers*, and *Superman*; address, Ko Lo Shan, Chungking.

Hsieh, Wei-lin diplomat, born in Kiangsu, 1893; licence en droit, Paris; first secretary and charge d'affaires, Chinese Legation, Paris, 1931; counsellor, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1937; minister to Sweden and Norway, since 1938.

Hsien, Yin publisher, born in Szechwan, 1885; graduate, Szechwan Military School, 1911; president, *Sin Shu Pao* (New Szechwan Daily); address, Touyuan, Shang Ching Sze, Chungking.

Hsiung, Ching-lai university president, born in Yunnan, 1893; D.Sc. Paris; former dean, department of mathematics, National Tsing Hua Univ., chancellor, National Yunnan Univ., since 1938; address, National Yunnan Univ., Kunming.

Hsiung, Huang educator, government official, born in Kiangsi, November, 1886; B.A. Wisconsin, 1915; M.A. Princeton, 1916; professor, National Peking Univ., 1917-26; controller, National Chiaotung Univ., Shanghai, 1927-29; member, Kiangsi Provincial Government, since January, 1932; address, Kiangsi Provincial Government, Taiho.

Hsiung, Ke-wu party and government leader, born in Szechwan, 1883; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1924; elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1935; now state councillor, National Government.

Hsiung, Ping **Lieut.-General** government official, army officer, born in Hupeh, 1893; graduate, Staff College; vice-minister of war, 1926; director,

aviation department, Ministry of War, 1929; vice-chief of general staff, 1934-37; vice-minister, military operations board, National Military Council, 1938-41; governor, Shensi Province, since 1942; address, Shensi Provincial Government, Sian.

Hsiung, Shih-hui **Lieut.-General**
army officer, born in Kiangsi, 1892; graduate, Paoting Military Academy and Japanese Staff College; commander, 5th division, and garrison commander, Shanghai and Woosung, 1928-31; governor, Kiangsi Province, 1931-42; head, Chinese Military Mission to U.S.A., 1942-43.

Hsiung, Tze (Mrs. Nora Hsiung Chu)
child welfare worker, born in Hunan, 1900; B.A. (1926), M.A. (1927), Columbia; secretary-general, Wartime Child Relief Association, since 1942; address, Wartime Child Welfare Association, Chiu Ching Middle School, Chungking.

Hsu, Chi-chuang
banker, born in Chekiang, 1903; graduate, Tsingtao Univ., deputy director-general, Postal Remittances & Savings Bank, 1937-42; director-general, since 1942; superintendent of Post Office, since 1942; address, Postal Remittances & Savings Bank, Chungking.

Hsu, Ching-tang **Lieut.-General**
army officer, born in Kwangtung, 1895; graduate, Tokyo Military Cadets' Academy; commander, 5th army, 1928-29; member and reconstruction commissioner, Kwangtung Provincial Government, 1937-39; deputy commander, 12th group army, since 1940.

Hsu, Chung-nien (prefers Sung-nien Hsu)
professor, writer, born in Kiangsi, 1904; Litt.D. Lyons, 1930; professor, National Central Univ., since 1932; address, National Central Univ., Chungking.

Hsu, Chung-yuan
government official, born in Hopei, 1896; graduate, National Peking Normal College, 1917; studied at California, Columbia and London; member and education commissioner, Hopei Provincial Government, since 1940; address, Provincial Government, Loyang.

Hsu, En-tseng
government official, born in Chekiang, 1899; B.S. Carnegie; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935; now deputy director, Bureau of Statistics and Investigation, Central Kuomintang, and vice-minister of communications; address, Ministry of Communications, Chungking.

Hsu, Fu
government official, born in Chekiang, 1882; twice member and commissioner of finance, Fukien Provincial Government; twice director, Shanghai Municipal Finance Bureau; member, Chekiang Provincial Government, and director, Chekiang Food Bureau, since 1941; address, Chekiang Food Bureau, Yunho, Chekiang.

Hsu, Hsiao-yen
government official, born in Hunan, 1901; B.A. National Peking Univ., secretary-general, ministry of information, 1938-42; member, People's Political Council, since 1938.

Hsu, Kan
government official, born in Szechwan, 1887; director, currency department, Ministry of Finance, 1928-35; vice-minister of finance, 1935-41; minister of food, since 1941; address, Ministry of Food, Chungking.

Hsu, Mo
diplomatic official, born in Kiangsu, 1892; LL.B. Peiyang Univ., 1916; LL.M. George Washington, 1922; director, international affairs department, ministry of foreign affairs, 1928; director, European-American department, same ministry, 1928-31; director, Asiatic affairs department, 1931; foreign affairs commissioner, Shanghai, 1929; administrative vice-minister of foreign affairs, 1932; political vice-minister of foreign affairs, 1932-41; minister to Australia with ambassadorial rank, since 1941; address, Chinese Legation, Canberra, Australia.

Hsu, Pao-chu
government official, born in Chekiang, 1900; B.A. National Peking Univ., 1920; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1942; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Hsu, Pei-hung (prefers Ju, Pion)
artist, professor, born in Kiangsu, 1894; studied at National School of Fine Arts, Paris, 1919-23; professor of fine arts, National Central Univ., since 1928; author of several books on fine arts and

painter of many well-known pictures; address, National Central Univ., Chungking.

Hsu, Peng-shun

government official, born in Anhwei, 1898; M.Sc. Pittsburgh, Ph.D. Illinois, 1928; director, metallurgical department, National Resources Commission; address, 26, Niu Ko To, Chungking.

Hsu, Ping-chang (prefers **Siu Pingch'ang**)

educator, born in Honan, 1887; studied philosophy at Paris Univ.; former professor and dean, National Peking Univ.; head of China Northwestern Scientific Investigation Mission; president, Peiping Normal Univ.; head, historical research department, National Peiping Academy of Peiping, since 1932; author, *Legendary Period in Chinese History*; address, 10 Huang Kung Tung Street, Kunming, Yunnan.

Hsu, Shih-kung

government official, born in Shansi, 1912; member, Shansi Provincial Government, since 1940; director, economic warfare department, 2nd War Area Headquarters, since 1942; address, Tunglipao, Sanyuan, Shensi.

Hsu, Shih-ta

engineer, born in Chekiang, 1895; B. Eng. National Peiyang Univ., 1917; M.C.E. Cornell, 1920; former professor in Fuh Tan, Chekiang, and Chiao Tung universities, Tangshan and Peiping Engineering Colleges; chief engineer, North China Water Conservancy Commission, since 1935; address, P. O. Box 44, Kanhsien, Kiangsi.

Hsu, Shih-yin

government official, born in Anhwei, 1872; minister of justice, 1910-12; civil governor of Anhwei, 1921; premier, 1925-26; chairman, National Famine Relief Commission, 1928-35; ambassador to Japan, 1936-37; acting chairman, National Relief Commission, since 1938; address, National Relief Commission, Chungking.

Hsu, Shu-hsi

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1892; B.A., Hongkong Univ., 1917; M.A. 1919; Ph.D., 1925, Columbia; professor of political science, Yenching Univ., and for some time, chairman, graduate school, and dean, college of public affairs, same univ., 1925-37; adviser, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and director, council of international affairs, 1937-43; director,

western Asiatic affairs department, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, since 1942; author, *China and Her Political Entity*; address, Waichiaopu Hostel, Fei Lai Sze, Chungking.

Hsu, Sung-nien (see **Hsu Chung-nien**).

Hsu, Tao-ling (prefers **Hsu Dau-lin**)

government official, born in Kiangsu, 1906; LL.D. Berlin; charge d'affairs, Chinese Embassy, Rome, 1938-41; director, department of examination, Ministry of Personnel, since 1942; address, Ministry of Personnel, Chungking.

Hsu, Ting-yao

General

army officer, born in Anhwei, 1890; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; defender of Kupeikow against Japanese invasion, 1933; head, Military Inquiry Mission to Europe and America, 1934-35; now dean, Mechanized Unit School.

Hsu, Tsung-chih

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1889; graduate, Tokyo Military Cadets' Academy; former vice-president, Control Yuan; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1924; elected member, Kuomintang C.S.C., 1931.

Hsu, Yuan-chuan

General

army officer, born in Hupeh, 1885; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935; former commander, 10th army, now councillor, Military Advisory Council; address, Military Advisory Council, Chungking.

Hsu, Yung-chang

General

army officer, born in Shansi, 1892; graduate, Staff College, Peking, 1916; commander, 12th army, 1927; governor, Suiyuan Province, 1928; commander, 32nd army, 1929; governor, Shansi Province, 1931-36; pacification commissioner, Shansi-Honan-Shensi border region, 1936; now minister, military operations board, National Military Council; address, Military Operations Board, Chungking.

Hsueh, Kuang-t sien

government official, born in Kiangsu, 1909; LL.B. Comparative Law School of China, 1933; Ph.D. Royal Univ. of Rome, 1935; deputy director, Highway Transport Administration, 1940-41; director, Szechwan-Hunan-Shensi Waterway and Highway Transportation Administration, since 1942; address, Ministry of Communications, Chungking,

Hsueh, Tu-pi

government official, born in Shansi, 1890; former commissioner of finance, Shensi, vice-minister of interior, vice-minister and acting minister of justice, governor of Kansu, civil affairs commissioner and acting governor of Honan, minister of interior; minister of health, state councillor of National Government; chairman, National Conservancy Commission, Executive Yuan, since 1940; address, Koloshan, Chungking.

Hsueh, Yueh**General**

army officer, born in Kwangtung, 1896; commander, 1st division, 1926; commander, 2nd division, 1928; commander, 6th route army and commander, 5th army, 1933; commander-in-chief, 2nd route army, and pacification commissioner of Kweichow, 1935; now commander-in-chief, 9th War Area, and governor, Hunan Province; address, Changsha, Hunan.

Hu, Chi-chung

college president, born in Sikang; M.Sc. London; president, Shensi Provincial College of Commerce, since 1942; address, Shensi Provincial College of Commerce, Sian.

Hu, Chia-chao

government official, born in Kiangsu, 1885; B.C.E. Kyoto Imperial Univ., Japan, 1919; member and concurrently director of food bureau, Kiangsi Provincial Government, since 1940; address, Food Bureau, Taiho, Kiangsi.

Hu, Chien-chung

journalist, born in Chekiang, 1902; B.A. Fuh Tan Univ., 1924; now managing director, *Southeast Daily*; general manager, Kuo Min Publishing Co., and member, People's Political Council; address, *Southeast Daily*, Nanping, Fukien.

Hu, Chiu-yuan

government official, born in Hupeh, 1910; attended National Wuchang and Waseda (Japan) universities; member, People's Political Council, since 1940; address, 1/206, Chung I Road, Chungking.

Hu, Hsien-hsu (prefers H. H. Hu)

educator, born in Kiangsi, 1894; B.A. California, 1916; M.S. (1924) and S.D. (1925) Harvard; head, biology department, and professor of botany, National Southeast Univ., Nanking, 1918-27; head, botany department, and director, Fan Memorial Institute of Biology, Peiping,

1928; director, Yunnan Botany Institute, 1938; chancellor, National Chung Cheng Univ., since 1940; author of a number of botanical papers published abroad and in China and poetry and literary criticism in Chinese; fellow, Edinburgh Botany Society; vice-president, International Faculty of Sciences; president, Peking Society of Natural History; president, Botanical Society of Chian; King Medalist of Peking Society of Natural History; address, National Chung Cheng Univ., Taiho, Kiangsi.

Hu, H. H. (see Hu, Hsien-hsu).**Hu, Hsuan-ming**

health expert, born in Fukien, 1887; B.A. St. John's Univ., 1910; M.D. Johns Hopkins, 1915; C.P.H., School for Health Officers, 1916; director, Railway Sanitary Administration, Ministry of Railway, 1928-32; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1932; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Hu, Huan-yung

professor, born in Kiangsu, 1901; B.S. National Southeast Univ., 1926; studied at Institute de Geographie, Paris, 1926-28; professor and dean, department of geography, National Central Univ., since 1928; dean of studies, same institution, since 1943; appointed by the Ministry of Education "Ministry-appointed Professor," 1942; president, Natural Science Society of China and Chinese Society of Geographical Education; address, National Central Univ., Chungking.

Hu, Kuang-piao

engineer, industrialist, born in Szechwan, 1897; graduate, M.I.T. 1918; now chief engineer, China Development Corporation; address, China Development Corporation, Chungking.

Hu, Meng-hua

government official, born in Anhwei, 1905; graduate, National Southeast Univ., Nanking; member and secretary-general, Hopei Provincial Government, since April, 1940; address, Hopei Provincial Government, Loyang.

Hu, Min-tsau

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1890; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; now member and director of food bureau, Kwangtung Provincial Government; address, Kwangtung Provincial Government, Kukong.

Hu, Po-han **Lieut.-General**
army officer, born in Hopei, 1899;
graduate Paoting Military Academy,
1922; commander, 196th division, 1938;
deputy commander, 90th army, 1938;
vice-commander, Chungking Air Defense
Headquarters, 1939-41; devised
Chungking's "red ball" air alarm signal;
chief of staff, Chungking Gendarmerie
Headquarters, 1941-42; deputy
commander, 39th group army, since
1942.

Hu, Lin
journalist, born in Szechwan, 1893;
LL.B. Tokyo Imperial Univ., 1911;
editor, *Ta Kung Pao* (L'Impartial),
1917; founder and director, Kuo Wen
News Agency, 1921; now managing
director, *Ta Kung Pao*; address *Ta Kung*
Pao Chungking.

Hu, Schuhua (see **Hu Shu-hua**).

Hu, Shih
professor, diplomat, born in Anhwei,
1891; B.A. Cornell; Ph.D. Columbia;
holder of a number of honorary degrees
from American and British univ.;
leading figure in "literary revolution"
since 1917 and advocate of use of spoken
language in literary writing; professor
of philosophy and then chairman of
department of English literature, National
Peking Univ., 1912-27; president, China
Institute (Woosung), 1928-30; dean,
college of arts and letters, National
Peking Univ., 1930-37; member, People's
Political Council, 1938; Ambassa-
dor to U.S.A., 1938-42; now higher
advisor, Executive Yuan; still in
America, writing books; author of a
number of philosophy, literature, and
political books and articles, including a
History of Chinese Philosophy (Vol. I),
and editor of the *Independent Critic*
before the war.

Hu, Shih-tseh (prefers **Victor Chitsai Hoo**)
diplomatic official, native of Chekiang,
born in Washington, 1894; LL.B. and
LL.D. Paris, 1918; director, Asiatic
affairs department, Ministry of Foreign
Affairs, 1930-31; minister to Switzerland,
1931-42; administrative vice-minister of
foreign affairs, since 1942; address,
Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Chungking.

Hu, Shu-hua (prefers **Schuhua Hu**)
univ. president, born in Hunan, 1886;
engineer's diploma, Technical College,
Berlin-Charlottenburg; president,
National Tungchi Univ., 1929-32;
president, Hunan Provincial Univ., 1932-
35; president, Chungking Univ., 1935-37;

president, National Northwest Univ.,
1938; president, National Hunan Univ.,
since 1941; address, National Hunan
Univ., Chenki, Hunan.

Hsu, Shu-ming,
journalist, born in Anhwei, 1911; B.A.
Fuh Tan Univ., 1931; managing-director,
Wuhan Daily News, 1938-40; member,
National Relief Commission, 1941-42;
general manager, Tungliang Paper Mill;
since 1941; address, 16, Lingkiang Lu,
Chungking.

Hu, Tientshe (see **Hu, Tien-shih**).

Hu, Tien-shih (prefers **Tientshe Hu**)
library expert, born in Kiangsu, 1902;
M.D. Berlin; since 1933 resided in Geneva
and helped in the founding of the
Bibliothèque Sino-Internationale and has
been its director since; address,
Bibliothèque Sino-Internationale, Geneva,
Switzerland.

Hu, Ting-an
health expert, college president, born in
Chekiang, 1898; M.D. Berlin, 1926;
graduate, Academy of Public Health of
Prussia, 1927; president, Kiangsu
Provincial Institute of Medical Science
and Health Administration, 1934-38;
president, National Kiangsu Medical
College, since 1937; president, Associa-
tion of Public Health of China, since
1942; address, National Kiangsu Medical
College, Peipei, Szechwan.

Hu, Tsung-nan **General**
army officer, born in Chekiang, 1902;
graduate, Whampoa Military Academy;
elected member, Kuomintang Central
Supervisory Committee, 1935; now
commander-in-chief, 34th group army;
and director, generalissimo's headquarters
in Northwest, Sian.

Hu, Tze-heng
government official, born in Chahar,
1898; B.A. National Peking Univ.,
1923; member and education commis-
sioner, Chahar Provincial Government,
since 1939; address, Chahar Provincial
Government, Loyang, Honan.

Hu, Tzu-wei
government official, born in Szechwan,
1900; LL.B. Chaoyang Univ., 1924; Meiji
Univ., Japan, 1927; member and civil
affairs commissioner, Hunan Provincial
Government, 1937-38; member and civil
affairs commissioner, Szechwan Provincial

Hu, Wen-tsan
party leader, born in Kwangtung, 1895;
elected reserve member, Kuomintang
Central Supervisory Committee, 1935.

Government, since 1938; author, *Chinese Civil Law*; address, Civil Affairs Department, Chengtu, Szechwan.

Hu, Ying **Lieut.-General**
government official, born in Yunnan, 1879; graduate, Yunnan Military Academy, 1910; member, Yunnan Provincial Government, since 1927; address, Yunnan Provincial Government, Kunming.

Hu, Yuan-yi
professor, born in Hunnan, 1896; LL.B. Tokyo Imperial Univ., 1924; professor and dean, department of law, National Szechwan Univ., since 1939; appointed by Ministry of Education "Ministry-appointed Professor," 1942; address, National Szechwan Univ., Omei, Szechwan.

Hua, Cheng-lin **Lieut.-General**
army officer, graduate, Paoting Military Academy; visited Italy, Germany, France, Great Britain in 1934 to study military communications; director, signal corps, Military Training Board, and commander-in-chief, signal corps, Military Operations Board, National Military Council, since 1938; address, P. O. Box 1, Pishan, Szechwan.

Hua, Lo-keng (prefers **Loo-keng Hua**)
professor, born in Kiangsu, 1911; studied at Tsing Hua and Cambridge univ., professor, National Southwest Associated Univ. and National Tsing Hua Univ., since 1937; fellow, research institute of mathematics, Academia Sinica, since 1941; author, *Additive Primenumber Theory*, for which he won the first prize from Ministry of Education in 1942; address, National Southwest Associated Univ., Kunming.

Hua, Loo-keng (see **Hua, Lo-keng**).

Huang, Chi-ching (prefers **T. K. Huang**)
geologist, born in Szechwan, 1904; B.S. National Peking Univ., 1928; Ph.D. Neuchatel Univ., Switzerland, 1935; head, Geology Section, National Geological Survey of China, 1935-36; assistant director (1937-38) and director (1938-40), National Geological Survey of China; head, geology section, National Geological Survey of China, since 1940; author, *Permian Formations of Southern China*, 1932; attended the 17th International Geological Congress in Moscow, 1937; address, National Geological Survey of China, Peipei, Szechwan.

Huang, Chi-lu
univ. president, party leader, born in Szechwan, 1902; M.A. California; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1931; now chairman, Szechwan Kuomintang Headquarters, and chancellor, National Szechwan Univ.; address, Szechwan Kuomintang Hqs., Chengtu.

Huang, Chien-chung
educator, born in Hupeh, 1889; B.A. National Peking Univ., 1917; studied at Edinburgh Univ., 1923, and Cambridge, 1926; professor and dean, National Chinan Univ., 1927-28; professor, National Chiao Tung Univ., 1928; director of higher education, Ministry of Education and acting administrative vice-minister, 1928-30; member and commissioner of education, Hupeh Provincial Government, 1930-32; dean, school of education, National Central Univ., 1932-34; member, People's Political Council, 1938-40, and since 1942; professor, since 1938, and dean of Normal School, since 1942, National Szechwan Univ., author, *Hsun Tzu's Logical Doctrine and the Theory of Probability* (in English), *Comparative Ethics*; address, c/o People's Political Council, Chungking.

Huang, Lin-shu
government official, born in Kwangtung, 1894; graduate, Central Univ., Tokyo; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935; member and education commissioner, Kwangtung Provincial Government; address, Kwangtung Provincial Government, Kukong.

Huang, Me-han
banker, born in Szechwan, 1892; B.A. Waseda Univ.; acting general manager, Young Brothers' Banking Corporation, since 1940; address, Young Brothers' Banking Corporation, Chungking.

Huang, Po-tu
government official, born in Anhwei, 1890; member, National Relief Commission, and vice-minister of social affairs; address, Ministry of Social Affairs, Chungking.

Huang, Shao-hsiung **General**
government official, born in Kwangsi, 1895; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1916; governor, Kwangsi Province, 1927-31; commander, 15th army, 1932-34; minister of interior, 1934-36; governor of Chekiang, 1935; governor of Hupeh, 1936; governor of Chekiang, since 1937; elected reserve

member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1931; elected member, Kuomintang C.S.C., 1935; address, Chekiang Provincial Government, Chekiang.

Huang, Shao-keng

government official, born in Kwangsi, 1902; member, Anhwei Provincial Government; address, Lihuang, Anhwei.

Huang, Shih

Lieut.-General

army officer, born in Yunnan, 1891; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1926; senior staff officer, National Military Council; address, National Military Council, Chungking.

Huang, Shu-chu

General

government official, born in Kwangsi; graduate, Staff College; governor, Kwangsi Province, since 1931; address, Kwangsi Provincial Government, Kweilin.

Huang, Szu-chi

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1897; graduate, Kwangtung Military Surveying School, 1914; director, land surveying bureau, board of military operations, since 1936; address, P. O. Box 58, Kweiyang, Kweichow.

Huang, T. K. (see Huang, Chi-ching).

Huang, Tien-chio

government official, born in Fukien; B.A. National Amoy Univ.; member, Fukien Provincial Government, since 1942.

Huang, Tien-peng

journalist, born in Kwangtung, 1905; graduate, Institute of Journalism, Tokyo; several times editor-in-chief, *China Times*; professor, Fuh Tan Univ., Shanghai, 1931; now secretary-general, Publication Enterprise Control Committee; address, Central Kuomintang Headquarters, Chungking.

Huang, Wen-shan

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1900; B.A. National Peking Univ., 1921; M.A. Columbia, 1927; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1942; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Huang, Yen-pai

educator, born in Shanghai, 1879; graduate, Nanyang College; twice appointed minister of education by the former Peking government, but did not accept; president, National Association for Vocational Education, since 1918;

member, People's Political Council, since 1938; address, National Association for Vocational Education, Chungking.

Huang, Yu-chang

government official, born in Hunan, 1885; LL.B. College of Law, Japan; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1930; address, P. O. Box 14, Peipei, Chungking.

Hung, Fang

government official, born in Liaoning, 1903; graduate, National Northeast Univ., 1928; chief secretary, Liaoning Provincial Government, since 1941; address, 12, Chuan Yen San Li, Chungking.

Hung, Jui-chao

government official, born in Chekiang, 1904; B.A. National Southeast Univ., 1916; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1940; director of publicity, Central Headquarters of Kuomintang Youth Corps, since 1942; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Hung, Lan-yu

government official, born in Kiangsu, 1900; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, Kuomintang; and vice-minister of social affairs; address, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Chungking.

Hung, Lu-tung

government official, born in Chekiang, 1895; elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1931; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935; now vice-minister of justice; address, Ministry of Justice, Chungking.

Hung, See-lu (see Hung, Shih-lu).

Hung, Sheng

government official, born in Liaoning, 1895; graduate, National Peking Univ., chief secretary, Jehol Provincial Government, since 1941; address, 22, Tsao Pai Tse Hsiang, Tan Tse Shih, Chungking.

Hung, Shih-lu (prefers Hung See-lu)

professor, born in Chekiang, 1894; graduate, National Peking Medical College, 1917; studied at Institut für Schiffs-und Tropenkrankheiten zu Hamburg, 1920; M.D., Kiushiu Imperial Univ., Japan, 1929; now professor, National Kiangsu Medical College; appointed by Ministry of Education "Ministry-appointed Professor," 1942; address, National Kiangsu Medical College, Chungking.

Hung, William (see **Hung, Yeh**).

Hung, Yeh (prefers **William Hung**) historian, professor, born in Fukien, 1893; B.A. Ohio Wesleyan; M.A. Columbia; B.D. N.Y. Theol. Sem.; Hon. D.D. Ohio Wesleyan; professor and dean, department of history, Yenching Univ. since 1927; editor, *Sinological Index Series*.

Jen, Hung-chun (prefers **Zen Hung-chun**)

scientist, educator, born in Szechwan, 1886; B.A. Cornell, 1916; M.A. Columbia, 1917; vice-president, National Southeast Univ., 1924-27; trustee and executive director, China Foundation for the Promotion of Education and Culture, since 1929; president, National Szechwan Univ., 1935-38; member, People's Political Council, since 1938; address, China Foundation for the Promotion of Education and Culture, Chungking.

Jen, Yu-wen (see **Chien, Yu-wen**).

Jou, Jieh-chuen (see **Chou, Chieh-chun**).

Ju Pion (see **Hsu, Pei-kung**).

Kam, Tsung-ching (see **Chin, Tseng-cheng**).

Kan, Chieh-hou

government official, born in Kiangsu, 1897; B.A. Wisconsin, 1922; M.A. (1923) and Ph.D. (1926), Harvard; vice-minister of foreign affairs, 1932; member, People's Political Council, since 1938; address, People's Political Council, Chungking.

Kan, Nai-kuang

government official, born in Kwangsi, 1896; graduate, Lingnan Univ., 1922; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1931; vice-minister of interior, 1932-34; deputy secretary-general, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1938-42; deputy secretary-general, Supreme National Defense Council, since 1942; address, Supreme National Defense Council, Chungking.

Kang, H. J. (see **Kang Pao-shu**).

Kang, Pao-shu (prefers **H. J. Kang**)

banker, born in Shensi, 1890; B.A. Waseda Univ., Japan, 1911; general manager, Szechwan Mei Feng Bank, since 1922; chairman, Chungking Commercial Bankers' Guild, since 1936; address, Mei Feng Bank, Chungking.

Kang, Shao-chou

government official, born in Fukien, 1903; B.A. Peiping Chung Kuo Univ., member, People's Political Council, since 1940; member, National Relief Commission, since 1941; address, 5, Race Course, Foochow, Fukien.

Kang, Shih-cheng

engineer, born in Kiangsu, 1897; B.S. Nanyang Univ., 1919; M.S. Cornell, 1922; director, engineering department, Transportation Control Administration, National Military Council, 1942; member, American Society of Civil Engineers; address, 9, Chungking Villa, Chungking.

Kang, Tseh

Lieut.-General

youth organizer, born in Szechwan, 1906; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy and Moscow Sun Yat-sen Univ.; member, executive committee, and director, department of organization, central headquarters of *San Min Chin* I Youth Corps, since 1938; concurrently dean, special training class, Central Military Academy; address, Central Hqrs., *San Min Chin* I Youth Corps, Chungking.

Kao, Hsin

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1906; German educated; secretary-general, Kwangtung Provincial Government, 1940; director, Kwangtung Land Bureau, since 1937; member, Kwangtung Provincial Government, since 1940; address, Land Bureau, Kukong, Kwangtung.

Kao, I-han

government official, born in Anhwei, 1885; B.A. Meiji Univ., Tokyo; member, Control Yuan, since 1933; supervisory commissioner, Hunan-Hupeh Area, since 1935; address, Office of Supervisory Commissioner, Enshih, Hupeh.

Kao, Kwei-tze

Lieut.-General

army officer, born in Shensi, 1892; commander, 9th division, 1930; commander, 11th division, 1930; commander, 84th division 1931; commander, 17th army, since 1937; concurrently deputy commander, 36th group army, since 1939; and commander-in-chief, Chungtiaoshan Area, since 1942.

Kao, Ling-pai

consular official, born at Kiangyin, Kiangsu, in 1900; B.S. Peiyang Univ., 1922; consul-general at Singapore, 1936-42.

Kao, Ping-fang

government official, born in Shantung, 1891; graduate, Univ. of Nanking; B.S. New York; director, Direct Tax Administration, Ministry of Finance, since 1936; address, Direct Tax Administration, Ministry of Finance, Chungking.

Kao, Ting-tze

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1895; B.A. National Peking Univ., 1921; M.A. (1923); Ph.D. (1926), Columbia; professor, Sun Yat-sen Univ., 1926-32; secretary and director of social education, Ministry of Education, 1932; director of navigation, Ministry of Communications, 1932-35; member, People's Political Council, since 1941; address, Chien Kan Road, Kweilin, Kwangsi.

Kao, Yang

educator, born in Kiangsu, 1892; B.A. Soochow Univ., 1915; M.A. Cornell, 1917; president, Kiangsu Provincial Education College, 1928-41; president of National Kwangsi Univ., 1941-42.

Ke, Chung

Lama, government official, born in Sikang, 1902; now member, Sikang Provincial Government; address, Sikang Provincial Government, Kangting.

Kiang, Eugene Y. B. (see **Chiang, I-ping**).

King, Li-pin (see **Tsing, Li-pin**).

King, P. Z. (see **Chin, Pao-shan**).

King, Wenz (see **Chin, Wen-ssu**).

Koo, T. Z. (see **Ku, Tze-jen**).

Koo, Vi-Kyuln Wellington (see **Ku, Wei-chun**).

Koo, Yee-chun (see **Ku, Yi-chun**).

Ku, Cheng-kang

government official, born in Kweichow; graduate, Berlin Univ., elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1931; vice-minister of industry, 1934-35; minister of social affairs, since 1940; address, Ministry of Social Affairs, Chungking.

Ku, Cheng-luen**General**

army officer, government official, born in Kweichow, 1891; graduate, Japanese Military Cadets' Academy, 1916; Nanking Garrison Commander, 1918; Commander-in-Chief of Gendarmes, 1932; pacification commissioner of the Hupeh Hunan-Szechwan-Kweichow border area and

deputy commander, 6th War Area, 1939; governor, Kansu Province, since 1940; member, Central Executive Committee of Kuomintang; address, Kansu Provincial Government, Lanchow.

Ku, Cheng-ting

party leader, born in Kweichow, 1888; graduate, Moscow Sun Yat-sen Univ., elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935.

Ku, Chieh-kang

historian, professor, born in Kiangsu, 1893; graduate, National Peking Univ., professor of history in several well-known universities; now professor of history, National Central Univ., known for his research on ancient Chinese history; author, *Symposium on Ancient Chinese History* (5 vols.); address, National Central Univ., Chungking.

Ku, Chu-tung**General**

military officer, born in Kiangsu; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; commander, 1st division, member Kiangsu Provincial Government, commander, 2nd division, commander 16th Route Army, commander, 1st division of National Guards; governor, Kiangsu Province, 1931-33; member, Central Executive Committee of Kuomintang, 1931; pacification commissioner of Kiangsi, 1934-35; pacification commissioner of Szechwan, 1936; director, Generalissimo's Provisional Headquarters in Sian, 1936-37; governor, Kiangsu, 1937; now commander, 3rd War Area.

Ku, Jen-fah

government official, born in Hupeh, 1891; graduate, Japanese Military Cadets' Academy; civil affairs commissioner, Kiangsu Provincial Government, 1933; member and secretary-general of Shensi Provincial Government, since 1941; address, Shensi Provincial Government, Sian.

Ku, Meng-yu

government official, born in Hopei, 1888; graduate, Berlin Univ.; director, publicity board, Central Kuomintang, 1927; minister of railways, 1932-35; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1931; chancellor, National Central Univ., 1941-43.

Ku, Tze-jen (prefers **T. Z. Koo**)

student worker, born in Shanghai, 1888; graduate, St. John's Univ., Hon. D.Litt. Colgate; special secretary, World Student Christian Federation, since 1930.

Ku, Wei-chun (prefers **Vi-kyuin Wellington Koo**)

diplomat, born in Shanghai, 1888; B.A. Yale; M.A. and Ph.D. Columbia; holder of a number of honorary degrees; Chinese minister to Mexico and later minister to the United States and Cuba in 1916; Chinese plenipotentiary to Paris Peace Conference, 1919-20; Chinese delegate to International Labor Conference, 1919; chief Chinese delegate to the League of Nations, 1920; minister to Great Britain, 1920; minister of foreign affairs, 1922; acting minister of foreign affairs, 1923; minister of foreign affairs and acting premier, 1924; minister of finance, 1926; minister of foreign affairs and acting premier, 1926; premier and minister of foreign affairs, 1927; minister of foreign affairs, 1931; Chinese Assessor to the League of Nations Manchurian Commission of Inquiry, 1932; minister to France, 1932; ambassador to France, 1935; now ambassador to Great Britain.

Ku, Yi-chun (prefers **Koo, Yee-chun**)

government official, born in Kiangsu, 1901; M.A. Ohio State, 1903; M.B.A. New York, 1924; president, Kwangtung Provincial Bank, 1936-40; member and finance commissioner, Kwangtung Provincial Government, 1939-40; now acting vice-minister of finance, and general manager, Farmers' Bank of China; address, Ministry of Finance, Chungking.

Ku, Yu-chuan

engineer, born in Kiangsu, 1904; B.S. National Chiaotung Univ., M.S. and Ph.D. Cornell; professor, National Central Univ., 1931-41; now director, National Bureau for Industrial Research; address, National Bureau for Industrial Research, Chungking.

Ku, Yu-hsiu

electrical engineer, educator, playwright, born in Kiangsu, 1901; D.Sc., M.I.T., 1928; professor and dean, department of electrical engineering, National Chekiang Univ., 1929-31; dean, college of engineering, National Central Univ., 1931-32; dean, college of engineering, National Tsing Hua Univ., 1932-37; vice-minister of education, since 1938; president, Chinese Electrical Engineering Society; member of American Institute of Electrical Engineers and several Chinese engineering societies; author of several well known plays including *Yueh Fei* and *Kin Ko*; address, Ministry of Education, Chungking.

Kuan, Chi-yu

government official, born in Liaoning, 1899; studied in Berlin Univ.; now director, land tax commission, Ministry of Finance; address, Ministry of Finance.

Kuan, Lin-cheng**Lieut.-General**

army officer, born in Shensi, 1905; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy, 1924; commander, 25th division, 1932; commander, 32nd army corps, 1938; deputy commander, 31st group army, 1938; commander, 15th group army, 1939; commander, 9th group army, since July 1940.

Kuan, Min-chuan

government official, born in Shansi, 1900; member and concurrently reconstruction commissioner, Shansi Provincial Government, since 1940.

Kuang, Ping-sheng (prefers **B. S. Fong**)

overseas Chinese leader, born in Kwangtung, 1897; studied at Stanford; twice chairman of Chinese Chamber of Commerce in San Francisco; president, Ye On & Co., San Francisco; member, People's Political Council, since 1941; address, c/o People's Political Council, Chungking.

Kuang, Tseh-liang

agriculturist, born in Hupeh, 1906; Ph.D. Cornell, 1938; professor, Univ. of Nanking, 1939-41; president, Hupeh Provincial Agricultural College, since July, 1941; address, Hupeh Provincial Agricultural College, Enshih, Hupeh.

Kuei Chih-ting (prefers **Paul Kwei**)

professor, born in Hupeh, 1895; B.A. Yale, 1913; M.S. Cornell, 1920; Ph.D. Princeton, 1925; professor and dean, college of science, National Wuhan Univ., since 1939; address, National Wuhan Univ., Loshan, Szechwan.

Kuei, Chung-shu

journalist, born in Szechwan, 1897; B.A. Lawrence College, 1920; B.J. Wisconsin, 1921; LL.B. Comparative Law School of China, 1933; editor, *China Critic*, 1927-41; editor-in-chief, premier issue, *Chinese Year Book*, 1936.

Kung, Ching-tsung

government official, born in Szechwan, 1898; B.A. National Peking Univ., Ph.D. Univ. of Brussels; former professor, National Central Univ., director, Tibetan Affairs Department, Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission; director, Lhasa Office, Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission, since 1940; address, Lhasa, Tibet.

Kung-Chueh-Chung-ni

Tibetan leader, born in Tibet; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935; now member, Legislative Yuan; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Kung, H. H. (see Kung Hsiang-hsi).

Kung, Hsiang-hsi (prefers **H. H. Kung**) government official, born in Shansi, 1881, and is a direct descendant of Confucius of the 75th generation; B.A. Oberlin, 1906; M.A. Yale, 1907; minister of industry, labor, and commerce, 1927-30; minister of industry, 1930-32; Special Industrial Commissioner of the National Government to Europe and America, 1932-33; appointed Governor, Central Bank of China in 1933; vice-president, Executive Yuan, and minister of finance, 1933; special envoy and chief delegate of the Chinese Government to the coronation of King George VI of Great Britain in 1937; president, Executive Yuan, 1938; vice president, Executive Yuan, since 1939; member of the Central Executive Committee of Kuomintang; chancellor of Yenching Univ., since 1937; address, Executive Yuan, Chungking.

Madame H. H. Kung (prefers Eling Soong Kung)

elder sister of Madames Sun Yat-sen and Chiang Kai-shek, born at Shanghai; B.A. Georgia Wesleyan College; address, Fan Chuang, Chungking.

Kung, Keng

government official, born in Hupeh, 1872; graduate, Japanese Military Cadets' Academy, 1908; member, Hupeh Provincial Government, 1928-29, 1932-33; and reconstruction commissioner, 1928; member, People's Political Council, since 1938; address, 12, Youth Terrace, Shou Pien Street, Chungking.

Kung, Ling-tsan

government official, descendant of Confucius, born in Shantung, 1888; member, People's Political Council, since 1942; address, 8, Ha Ma Shih, Ko Lo Shan, Chungking.

Kuo, Jen-yuan (prefers Z. Y. Kuo)

psychologist, professor, native of Kwangtung, born in Straits Settlements; graduate, Columbia; professor of psychology, National Chekiang Univ., 1930; president, same institution, 1931; now touring England and U.S.A.

Kuo, Mo-jo

poet, archaeologist, government official, born in Szechwan, 1891; M.B. Kiushiu Imperial Univ., Japan, 1922; author of many volumes of poems, plays and novels, and books on archaeology including *Studies in Ancient Chinese Society*; translator of Goethe's *Faust* and *The Sorrows of Young Werther*; director, 3rd department, Political Training Board, National Military Council, 1938-40; chairman, cultural work committee, Political Training Board, since 1940; address, 7, Tien Kwan Fu Street, Chungking.

Kuo, Ping-wen (prefers P. W. Kuo)

government official, born in Shanghai, 1880; Ph.D. Univ. of Wooster, 1911; M.A. (1912) and Ph.D. (1914), Columbia; chancellor, National Southeast Univ., 1918-25; director, China Institute, New York, 1925-30; director, foreign trade bureau, Ministry of Industry, 1931-35; vice-minister of finance, since 1940; now representing the Ministry of Finance in London.

Kung, Soong Eling (see Madame Kung, H. H.).**Kuo, P. W. (see Kuo, Ping-wen).****Kuo, Tai-chi (prefers Quo Tia-chi)**

diplomat, born in Hupeh, 1888; B.A. Pennsylvania, 1911; LL.D. (Hon.) Oxford, 1938; foreign affairs commissioner in Shanghai and concurrently vice-minister of foreign affairs, 1927-28; member, Legislative Yuan, 1928-30; vice minister of foreign affairs, 1932; minister to Great Britain, 1932-35; ambassador to Great Britain, 1935-41; minister of foreign affairs, 1941-42; now chairman, Foreign Affairs Committee, Supreme National Defense Council; address, Supreme National Defense Council, Chungking.

Kuo, Yu-shou

government official, born in Szechwan, 1900; docteur es lettres, Univ. of Paris, 1927; member of Szechwan Provincial Government and education commissioner since 1939; address, 43, Kuang I Road, Hua Hsi Pa, Chengtu, Szechwan.

Kuo, Z. Y. (see Kuo, Jen-yuan).**Kwei, Paul (see Kwei, Chih-ting).**

Lai, Lien

university president, government official, born in Fukien, 1900; B.S.M.E. Illinois, 1923; M.M.E. Cornell, 1926; research fellow, Univ. of Toronto, 1925; former professor, National Central Univ. and Central Political Institute; secretary-general and director, finance bureau, Municipal Government, Nanking; now member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee; chancellor, National Northwest Univ. and National Northwest Engineering College; address, National Northwest Univ., Chengku, Shensi.

Lee, Baen E. (see **Li, Pei-en**).

Lee, J. S. (see **Li, Ssu-kuang**).

Lee, John (see **Lu, Chun**).

Lee, Kun-yeng (see **Li, Keng-yuan**).

Lee, Shison Chinglin (see **Li, Ching-lin**).

Lee, Yong-king (see **Li, Yang-ching**).

Lei, Cheng

government official, born in Chekiang, 1896; LL.B. Tokyo Imperial Univ.; now director, secretariat, People's Political Council; elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1935; address, People's Political Council, Chungking.

Lei, Hai-tsung

historian, professor, born in Hopei, 1902; Ph.B. and Ph.D. Chicago; professor, National Tsing Hua Univ., since 1932; now professor, National Southwest Associated Univ.; address, National Southwest Associated Univ., Kunming.

Lei, Pei-hung (prefers **Binnan J. Louis**)

educator, born in Kwangsi, 1887; B.A. Oberlin, 1919; M.A. Harvard, 1921; Kwangsi education commissioner, 1927, 1929, 1933-36, 1939; president, National Kwangsi Univ., 1940-41; member, People's Political Council, since 1942; address, Liangfeng Laboratory, Kweilin.

Lei, Yin

government official, born in Kwangsi, 1887; graduate, Tokyo Law College, 1911; now vice-minister of interior; address, Ministry of Interior, Chungking.

Leung, S. G. (see **Liang, Hsiao-chu**).

Lew, Timothy Tingfang (see **Liu, Ting-fang**).

Liao, Shih-chen

college president, born in Kiangsu, 1892; graduate, Tsing Hua College; Ph.B. (1917), M.A. (1918), and Ph.D. (1920), Brown Univ.; president, National Normal College, since 1938; address, National Normal College, Lantien, Hunan.

Liao, Wei-fan

government official, born in Hunan, 1898; graduate, National Peking Univ., 1925; member, Hunan Provincial Government; address, Hunan Provincial Government, Leiyang, Hunan.

Li, Chao-huan (prefers **J. Usang Ly**).

university president, born in Kwangtung, 1888; B.C.S. New York; B.S. Haverford College; M.A. Columbia; vice-minister of railways, 1930; chancellor, National Chiao Tung Univ., 1930-41.

Li, Cheng

educator, born in Hopei, 1895; graduate, Peiping Normal College, 1919; M.A. (1924), and Ph.D. (1929), Columbia; president, National Peiping Normal Univ., 1932-39; president, National Northwest Normal College, since 1939; address, National Northwest Normal College, Lanchow.

Li, Chi

archaeologist, born in Hupeh, 1896; graduate, Tsing Hua College, 1918; B.A. (1919), M.A. (1920), Clark Univ.; Ph.D. Harvard, 1923; director of archaeological research, Historical and Lingual Research Institute, Academia Sinica, since 1929; lectured in England at the invitation of British universities, 1936-37; author, *The Formation of the Chinese People*, Harvard University Press, 1928, and honorary fellow, Royal Anthropological Institute of Great Britain and Ireland; address, P.O. Box 3, Li Chuang, Nanchi, Szechwan.

Li, Chi-sheng**General**

army officer, born in Kwangsi, 1886; graduate, Peking Staff College; commander, 4th army, 1924; chief of staff, National Revolutionary Army, 1928; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1927; state councillor, National Government, 1928; inspector-general of military training, 1932-33; member, National Military Council, since 1938; director, Generalissimo's headquarters in Kweilin, since 1941; address, Generalissimo's Headquarters, Kweilin.

Li, Chien-hsun

professor, born in Hopei, 1884; B.S. (1918), M.A. (1919), and Ph.D. (1925),

Columbia ; professor, National Southeast, National Tsing Hua, Yenching, National Peiping Normal universities, 1926-27 ; dean, Graduate School, and head, education department, National Northwest Normal College, since 1939 ; address, National Northwest Normal College, Chengku, Shensi.

Li, Chien-ting

government official, born in Hupeh, 1902 ; graduate, Hupeh Law College ; now member, People's Political Council ; address, Chungking Office, Hupeh Provincial Government, Chungking.

Li, Ching-lin (prefers Shison Chinglin Lee)

government official, born in Anhwei, 1895 ; B.A. Univ. of Nanking, 1920 ; M.S. (1929), and Ph.D. (1933), Illinois ; director, department of land administration, Ministry of Interior, 1940-42 ; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1942 ; author, *A Comparative Study of Chinese and American Farm Tenancy Systems and Land Financial System*, University of Illinois Press ; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Li, Ching-tsay

party leader, born in Honan, 1887 ; D.Sc. Michigan ; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1931.

Li, Chu-yi

government official, born in Shansi, 1887 ; graduate, Univ. of Shansi, 1909 ; member and finance commissioner, Suiyuan Provincial Government, since 1934 ; address, Shenpa, Suiyuan.

Li, Chun-yu

geologist, born in Honan, 1904 ; B.S. National Peking Univ., 1928 ; Ph.D. Berlin, 1937 ; director, Szechwan Geological Survey, 1938-42 ; professor, National Central Univ., 1940-42 ; director, National Geological Survey of China, since 1942 ; address, National Geological Survey of China, Peipei, Szechwan.

Li, Chung-hsiang

educator, graduate, National Chiao Tung Univ., Tangshan, 1920 ; professor, Anhwei Univ., 1928-30 ; member, People's Political Council, since 1942 ; address, Lolu, Kuofulu, Chungking.

Li, Fang-kwei

linguist, born in Shansi, 1902 ; B.A. Michigan, 1926 ; M.A. (1927) and Ph.D. (1928), Chicago ; Fellow, Rockefeller Foundation, 1929-30 ; visiting professor of Chinese linguistics, Yale, 1937-39 ;

now research fellow, Academia Sinica ; author of *Mattole, and Athabaskan Language*, Univ. of Chicago Press, 1930 ; *The Tai Language of Lungchow*, Commercial Press, 1940 ; member, Linguistic Society of America and American Oriental Society ; address, Nanchi, Szechwan.

Li, Fu-lin

General

army officer, born in Kwangtung, 1872 ; commander, 5th army, 1926 ; now member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, and Councillor, Military Advisory Council ; holder of Blue Sky and White Sun Medal ; address, 16, Lissu Shang Lu, Kweilin, Kwangsi.

Li, Han-huen

Lieut.-General

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1895 ; graduate, Paoting Military Academy ; commander, 3rd independent division, 1932 ; commander, 6th division, 1935 ; commander, 155th Division, 1936 ; commander, 64th army, 1937 ; commander, 29th army corps, 1938 ; deputy-commander, 8th group army, 1938 ; commander-in-chief, 35th group army, 1939 ; now governor of Kwangtung ; address, Chinghuchun, Kukong, Kwangtung.

Li, Hsiang-yuan

fishery expert, government official, born in Kwangtung, 1898 ; B.S. National Peking Univ., 1929 ; professor, Peiping Fu Jen Univ., 1930-31 ; professor, National Sun Yat-sen Univ., 1934-36 ; director, Kwangsi Fish Raising Laboratory, 1936-41 ; technical expert, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, and director, fresh water fish raising laboratory, since 1941.

Li, Hung-wen

government official, born in Shansi, 1881 ; graduate, Shansi Univ., and Japanese Law College ; former member, Shansi Provincial Government, and finance commissioner ; member, Hopei Provincial Government, and finance commissioner ; member, People's Political Council, since 1938 ; address, 14, Fei Lan Sze, Chungking.

Li, Jen-jen

party leader, born in Kwangsi, 1889 ; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1931.

Li, Keng-yuan (prefers Lee, Kun-yeng)

government official, born in Yunnan, 1879 ; graduate, Japanese Military Cadets' Academy ; minister of agriculture and

commerce, 1922; premier, 1923; supervisory commissioner of Yunnan and Kweichow since 1939; address, Supervisory Commissioner's Office, Tali, Yunnan.

Li, Kiang

government official, born in Shansi, 1902; graduate, National Peking Univ., 1926; member, Shansi Provincial Government, since 1938.

Li, Kuo-ching

merchant, mining engineer, born in Hunan, 1892; now general manager, Wah Chang Trading Corporation, largest Chinese export and import firm in New York; address, Wah Chang Trading Corporation, New York.

Li, Li-chou (prefers Pek Hie Lie)

government official, born in Fukien, 1901; B.A. Meiji Univ., Japan, 1931; professor, Fukien College; now member, People's Political Council; address, Sheng Li Society, Liencheng, Fukien.

Li, Lien-fang

educator, born in Hupeh, 1879; education commissioner, Honan, 1921-22; dean, Wuchang Normal College, 1923-25; dean of school of arts, Honan Univ., 1929-35; member, People's Political Council, since 1940; address, P.O. Box 5, Ching Mu Kuan, Chungking.

Li, Li-min

government official, born in Anhwei; graduate, Tsing Hua College; secretary-general, Chekiang Provincial Government, since 1937; address, Chekiang Provincial Government, Chekiang.

Li, Lie-chun

General

army officer, born in Kiangsi, 1883; graduate, Japanese Military Cadets' Academy; former military governor of Kiangsi and Anhwei; now state councillor, National Government; and senior councillor, National Military Council; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1924; elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1935.

Li, Meng

journalist, born in Kwangsi, 1906; B.A. Fuh Tan Univ., 1928; Ph.D. Paris Univ., 1936; managing director, *Kwangsi Daily News*, since 1942; address, 5, North Huan Hu Road, Kweilin, Kwangsi.

Li, Ming

banker, born in Chekiang, 1886; graduate, Yamaguchi Commercial College, Japan; some time chairman, board of directors,

Central Bank of China; now chairman, board of directors, and general manager, Chekiang Industrial Bank.

Li, Ming-chung

government official, born in Honan, 1887; member, Honan Provincial Government, since 1939; address, Honan Provincial Government, Lushan, Honan.

Li, Ming Ho

metallurgist, government official, born in Nanking, 1888; C.B. Wisconsin, 1913; former steel refining engineer, Hanyang Steel and Iron Works; director, mining department, Ministry of Industry, and later Ministry of Economic Affairs, since 1938; address, Ministry of Economic Affairs, Chungking.

Li, Pei-chi

government official, born in Hopei, 1888; graduate, Military Academy of the Three Northeastern Provinces; former governor of Hopei, minister of personal registration; now governor, Honan Province; address, Honan Provincial Government, Lushan, Honan.

Li, Pei-en (prefers Baen E. Lee)

college president, born in Chekiang, 1889; M.A. Chicago, 1921; president, Hangchow Christian College, since 1929.

Li, Pei-tien

government official, born in Yunnan, 1893; B.A. Meiji Univ., Tokyo, 1920; now member and civil affairs commissioner, Yunnan Provincial Government, and member, standing committee, National Relief Commission; address, Civil Affairs Department, Kunming.

Li, Pei-yeu

industrialist, born in Yunnan, 1886; founder and president, Kunhua Coal and Iron Company, Kunming Machine Works; member, People's Political Council, since 1938; address, Sih Kia Hsiang, Kunming.

Li, Ping-hsien

General

army officer, government official, born in Kwangtung, 1893; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; commander-in-chief, 12th route army, 1928; defense commissioner, Kwangsi border, 1931-35; now vice-commander-in-chief, 5th War Area, and governor, Anhwei Province.

Li, Shih-chia

Rear Admiral

naval officer, born in Fukien, 1894; vice-minister of navy, 1931; commander, Mawei Forts, 1934-37.

Li, Shih-cheng

police officer, born in Chekiang, 1896; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy, 1925; Japanese Infantry School, 1930; Japanese Police Academy, 1932; dean, Central Police Academy, since 1936; address, Central Police Academy, Chungking.

Li, Shou-houa (see Li, Shu-hua).**Li, Shu-hua (prefers Li, Shou-houa)**

physicist, born in Hopei, 1889; ingénieur agricole, Univ. of Toulouse, 1918; licencié es-sciences (1919) and docteur es-sciences (1922), Paris; vice-minister of education, and acting minister, 1931; acting director, National Academy of Peiping, since 1933; address, National Academy of Peiping, Kunming.

Li, Shu-tien

college president, born in Hopei, 1900; B.S. Peiyang Univ., 1923; Ph.D. Cornell, 1926; president, Tangshan Engineering College, 1930-32; president, Peiyang Engineering College, 1932-37.

Li, Shun-ching

government official, professor; born in Shantung, 1893; B.S. Univ. of Nanking, 1919; M.S. Yale, 1921; Ph.D. Chicago, 1923; president, Anhwei Provincial Univ., 1934-38; professor, National Central Univ., 1938-40; director, department of forestry, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, since 1938; address, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, Chungking.

Li, Siao-ting

government official, retired army commander, born in Honan, 1892; commander, New 14th division, 1930; member, Control Yuan, since 1942; address, Control Yuan, Chungking.

Li, Ssu-kuang (prefers J. S. Lee)

geologist, professor, born in Hupeh; M.S. and D.Sc. Birmingham Univ.; director, geological research institute, Academia Sinica, 1930-33; professor and head, department of geology, National Peking Univ., since 1933; lectured in England under auspices of Universities' China Committee in London, 1935; author of *The Earth's Age*.

Li, Tai-chu

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1905; B.A. Fuh Tan Univ., Ph.D. New York; general manager, China National Tea Corporation, since May, 1941; address, 121, Chung Hua Road, Chungking.

Li, Teh-chao

government official, born in Kiangsi; graduate, Tokyo Imperial Univ.; member, Kiangsi Provincial Government, since 1931, and chairman, board of directors, Yu Ming Bank, Kiangsi, since 1939; address, Kiangsi Provincial Government, Taiho, Kiangsi.

Li, Ti-chun (prefers T. T. Li)

diplomatic official, born in Hupeh, 1901; B.A. and Ph.D. Wisconsin; director, information department, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1933-40; minister to Cuba, since 1940; address, Chinese Legation, Havana, Cuba.

Li, Ting-an

health expert, born in Kwangtung, 1899; M.D. P.U.M.C.; Ph.D. Harvard; director, Public Health Bureau, Greater Shanghai, 1932-37; president, National Institute of Health, 1938-42; now professor of public health, National Central Univ.

Li, Tsu-chung

government official, born in Hopei, 1898; graduate, National Peking Univ., 1923; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1936; now supervisory commissioner, Honan-Shantung Area, Control Yuan; address, Honan-Shantung Supervisory Commissioner's Office, Loyang.

Li, Tzu-ting

journalist, government official, born in Shensi; B.A. National Peking Univ., 1923; member, People's Political Council, since 1940; founder and president, *Siking Daily News*, Sian, since 1937; address, *Siking Daily News*, Sian, Shensi.

Li, Tsu-wen

party leader, born in Kwangtung, 1884; elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1935.

Li, Tsung-huang

government official, born in Yunnan, 1888; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1924; elected member, Kuomintang C. E. C., 1935; now vice-minister of interior; address, Ministry of Interior, Chungking.

Li, Tsung-jen

General
army officer, born in Kwangsi, 1890; graduate, Kweilin Military Academy; commander, 7th army, 1926; member, Military Council, and commander, 3rd route army, 1927; commander-in-chief, 4th group army, 1928; governor, Anhwei Province, 1938; now commander-in-chief, 5th War Area.

Li, T. T. (see **Li, Ti-chun**).

Li, Tu **General**
army officer, born in Liaoning, 1880; one of the volunteer leaders in the north-eastern provinces, since 1932.

Li, Wen-fan
party leader, born in Kwangtung, 1885; graduate, Tokyo Law College; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1929; now state councillor, National Government; address, Central Kuomintang Hqrs. Chungking.

Li, Yang-ching (prefers **Lee, Yong-king**)
government official, born in Kwangtung, 1894; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1919; and National Peking Univ., 1921; now member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee; and civil affairs commissioner, Hunan Provincial Government; address, Department of Civil Affairs, Leiyang, Hunan.

Li, Yi-an
party leader, born in Kwangtung, 1885; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1931.

Li, Yin-lin
university president, born in Kwangtung, 1894; B.A. Oberlin, 1920; Ph.D. (honorary), Oberlin, 1939; vice-president, Lingnan Univ., 1927-30; secretary-general, Canton Y.M.C.A., 1931-34 and 1936-37; president, Lingnan Univ., since 1937; address, Lingnan Univ., Kukong, Kwangtung.

Li, Yu-ying
government and party leader, born in Hopei, 1882; elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1924; director, National Academy of Peiping, since 1929; address, National Academy of Peiping, Kunming.

Liang, Han-chao
government official, born in Kwangtung, 1901; secretary-general, Legislative Yuan, 1933-38; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1931; now vice-minister, political training board, National Military Council; address, Political Training Board, Chungking.

Liang, Hsi
professor, born in Chekiang, 1883; B.S. Tokyo Imperial Univ., 1916; studied forest chemistry in Forstliche Hochschule, Tharandt, Saxony, 1923-28; professor, National Central Univ., since 1934; appointed by the Ministry of

Education "Ministry-appointed Professor," 1942; address, National Central University, Chungking.

Liang, Hsiao-chu (prefers **S. C. Leung**)
Y.M.C.A. leader, born in Kwangtung, 1889; M.A. Vanderbilt; now secretary-general, National Committee, Y.M.C.A.; address, National Committee, Y.M.C.A., Chungking.

Liang, Hubert S. (see **Liang, Shih-chun**).

Liang, Shang-tung
government official, born in Shansi, 1888; graduate, Birmingham, 1912; military delegate to Paris Peace Conference, 1918-19; delegate to League of Nations, Geneva, 1920-22; Mayor of Peiping, 1930; member, People's Political Council, since 1938; address, People's Political Council Chungking.

Liang, Shih-chun (prefers **Hubert S. Liang**)
professor, journalist, born in Kiangsi, 1902; B.A. DePauw Univ., 1925; M.A. Chicago, 1926; chairman, department of journalism, Yenching University, 1935-37; director of promotion, Chinese Industrial Co-operatives, since 1940; address, Koloshan, Chungking.

Liang, Shu-min
professor, social reformer, born in Kwangsi, 1894; professor, National Peking University, 1917-24; founder and professor, Institute of Local Self-government in Honan, 1929-30; founder and president, Shantung Institute of Rural Reconstruction at Tsouping, 1931-1936; address, Mien Jen Middle School, Peipei, Szechwan.

Liang, Ssu-cheng
architect, born in Kwangtung, 1901; B.Arch. Pennsylvania, 1927; M.Arch. Pennsylvania, 1927; Harvard Graduate School (Fine Arts), 1927-28; professor, National Northeastern Univ., 1928-31; professor, National Peking Univ. and National Tsing Hua Univ., 1932-33; research fellow, Institute for Research in Chinese Architecture, since 1931; research fellow, Academia Sinica, since 1941; address, Lichuan, Nanchi, Szechwan.

Liang, Teng-hou
government official, born in Shansi, 1906; graduate, Univ. of Shansi, 1931; member, Shansi Provincial Government, since 1938.

Liang, Tsung-tai

poet, professor, born in Kwangtung, 1904; studied at Geneva, 1924-25; Paris, 1925-29, Berlin and Heidelberg, 1929-30; professor and dean, department of foreign languages, National Fuh Tan Univ., since 1937; author of several volumes of poems and books on poetry; address, National Fuh Tan Univ., Chungking.

Lie, Pek Hie (see **Li, Li-chou**).

Lieu, D. K. (see **Liu, Ta-chun**).

Lieu, O. S. (see **Liu, Hung-sheng**).

Lim, Keng-lian (see **Lin, Ching-lien**).

Lim, Robert K. S. (see **Lin, Ke-sheng**).

Lin, Chi-han

government official, born in Shanghai, 1906; licence en sciences politiques et diplomatiques, Louvain, 1929; licence en droit maritime, Brussels, 1930; docteur en droit, Brussels, 1931; secretary and head of protocol section, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, since 1940; address, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Chungking.

Lin, Ching-jen

university president, born in Fukien, 1898; B.A. Fukien Christian Univ.; M.A. Oberlin and Harvard; president, Fukienn Christiaa Univ., since 1927.

Lin Ching-lien (prefers **Lim Kenglian**)

overseas leader, born in Fukien, 1895; member, People's Political Council, since 1492; address, 34, Wu Shih Road, Cungking.

Lin, Chi-yung

government official, born in Kwangtung; chemical engineer, Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, N. Y., U. S. A., 1924; chairman, committee for the supervision of the removal of factories from Shanghai to the interior, 1937-38; senior expert, Ministry of Economic Affairs, since 1938; director of field work, Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration, since 1938; author, *The Removal of Private Factories to the Interior*, 1942; address, Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration, Chungking.

Lin, D. Y. (see **Lin, Tao-yang**).

Lin, Feng-mien

artist, born in Kwangtung, 1898; graduate, Ecole des Beaux Arts, Paris, 1927; president, National College of Fine Arts, Hangchow, 1928-37.

Lin, Ho-cheng

government official, born in Fukien, 1905; graduate, Nanyang College; M.A. Yale and Columbia, 1927; member, Control Yuan, since 1939; address, Control Yuan.

Lin, Hung-hsun

government official, engineer, born in Kwangtung, 1894; B.S. Nanyang Univ., 1915; studied structural engineering and obtained practical experience in American Bridge Co.; former director and chief engineer, Canton-Hankow Railway; now director, Tien-shih-Paoki Railway Engineering Bureau.

Lin, Ke-sheng (prefers **Robert K. S. Lim**)

surgeon, native of Fukien, born in Singapore; M.B. and Ch.B. (1919), Ph.D. (1920), and D.Sc. (1924), Edinburgh; Goodsir Memorial Fellow (1920), Edinburgh; F.R.S.E. lecturer, Edinburgh, 1919-23; professor and head, department of physiology, Peiping Union Medical College, since 1924; director, Chinese Red Cross Medical Relief Corps, 1937-42; general adviser, Chinese Red Cross Society, since 1943; editor, *Chinese Journal of Physiology*.

Lin, Lei

party leader, born in Kwangtung, 1902; Ph.D. New York; former professor, Univ. of Hawaii; now executive member, Kuomintang Headquarters, U. S. A.; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935.

Lin, Ping

government official, born in Honan, 1894; B.A. Stanford, 1916; M.A. Columbia, 1917; Ph.D. Clark, 1919; minister to Cuba, 1929-35; leader, Chinese Goodwill Mission to Siam, 1936; now secretary-general, barter commission, Foreign Trade Commission; address, Barter Commission Chungking.

Lin, Po-sen**Lieut.-General**

army officer, born in Kwangtung, 1896; graduate, Paoting Military Academy and Tokyo Gunnery and Engineering School; dean, Army Engineers' School, since 1935; address, Lin's Ancestral Temple, Tsiao Ling, Kwangtung.

Lin, Tao-yang (prefers **D. Y. Lin**)

agricultural and forestry expert, born in Kwangtung, 1888; B.S. State College, Massachusetts, 1912; M.F. Yale, 1914; director, Central Forestry Bureau, 1930; China's delegate to 5th Pacific Science

Congress, Vancouver, 1933, and elected chairman, standing committee on forest resources, Pacific Science Congress; now member, Yellow River Conservancy Commission; address, Yellow River Conservancy Commission, Chungking.

Lin, Sen

president, National Government, born in Fukein, 1864; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1924; elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1929; state councillor, National Government, 1928-31; vice-president, then acting president, Legislative Yuan, 1928-31; president, National Government, since 1932; address, National Government, Chungking.

Lin, Tung-chi

professor, born in Fukien, 1906; B.A. Michigan, 1928; M.A. California, 1929; Ph.D. California, 1934; lecturer, Mills College, California, 1930-32; instructor, California, 1932-34; professor, Nankai Univ., 1934-37; dean, college of arts and letters, National Yunnan Univ., since 1937; address, National Yunnan Univ., Kunming, Yunnan.

Lin, Yi-chung

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1892; graduate, Canton Normal College; member and civil affairs commissioner, Kwangtung Provincial Government, 1929-36; vice-minister of agriculture and forestry, 1940-42; member, Control Yuan, since 1942; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1932; address, Central Kuomintang Headquarters, Chungking.

Lin, Yu-tang

author, born at Changchow, Fukien, in 1895; M.A. Harvard, 1921; Dr. Phil. Leipzig, 1923; professor, National Peking Univ., 1923-26; head, English department, National Peking Women's Normal Univ., 1926; dean, college of arts and letters, Amoy Univ., 1926; joined Academia Sinica in 1930; author of American popular sellers: *My Country and My People*, *The Importance of Living*, *Moment in Peking*, etc., left China in 1936 for Europe and America where he stayed and engaged in authorship; resolved to come back to Chungking "to see the war through" in 1940; but returned to America as bombings in Chungking handicapped his work in writing books; address, c/o John Day Company, New York, U.S.A.

Lin, Yueh

government official, born in Honan, 1882; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1935; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Lin, Yung-kai

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1884; M.A. Syracuse; mayor of Canton, 1927; governor of Kwangtung, 1931-36; chairman, Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission, 1937; minister of audit, since 1938; elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1929; address, Ministry of Audit, Chungking.

Liou, Oui-tao (see Liu, Wei-tao).

Liou, Tchen-ngo (see Liu, Shang-ngo).

Liu, Che

government official, born in Kirin, 1888; graduate, Peking Law College; minister of education, 1927-28; president, Harbin Industrial College, 1930-31; member, Peiping Political Council, and then Hopei-Chahar Political Council, 1933-37; now state councillor, National Government; address, National Government, Chungking.

Liu, Cheng-hua

General

retired army officer, born in Honan, 1886; former field commander, 11th route army, and governor of Anhwei; elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1935.

Liu, Chi-wen

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1890; studied at College of Law and Political Economy, Japan, 1915-17; London School of Economics, 1924-25; Cambridge, 1925-26; mayor, Nanking, 1927, 1928-30; superintendent of customs, Shanghai, 1930-31; mayor, Canton, 1932-36; political vice-minister, Ministry of Audit, since 1937; elected member, Central Executive Committee of Kuomintang, 1929; address, 16, Chialing Villa, Chungking.

Liu, Chien-chun

party leader, born in Kweichow, 1904; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935.

Liu, Chien-hsu

General

army officer, born in Hunan, 1891; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; commander-in-chief, 4th route army, 1935; pacification commissioner of Fukien-Chekiang-Kiangsi-Anhwei border area, 1936; now commander-in-chief, 10th group army, and governor, Fukien Province; address, Fukien Provincial Government, Yungan, Fukien.

Liu, Chih-ping

government official, born in Shantung, 1899; graduate, National Peking Engineering College, 1926; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1940; address, Legislative Yuan.

Liu, Hai-shu

artist, born in Kiangsu, 1895; former president, Academy of Fine Arts, Shanghai; commissioned by Executive Yuan to hold Chinese art exhibitions in Europe, 1935; painter of many well-known pictures.

Liu, Han-chung

army officer, born in Liaoning, 1894; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1922, and Field Artillery School, Japan, 1925; commanding officer of artillery, 3rd War Area, 1937; commanding officer of artillery, 9th War Area, 1937; supervisor of artillery, Board of Military Training, National Military Council, since 1938; address, P. O. Box 1, Pishan, Szechwan.

Liu, Hou-wu

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1891; graduate, Liangkwan High Technical School, 1910; member, Control Yuan; supervisory commissioner of Kwangtung and Kwangsi, since 1939; address, Kweilin, Kwangsi.

Liu, Hung-sheng (prefers O. S. Lieu)

government official, industrialist, born in Chekiang, 1888; former general manager, China Merchants Steam Navigation Company; general manager, Match Monopoly Company, Ministry of Finance, since 1942; address, Match Monopoly Company, Lin Sen Road, Chungking.

Liu, J. Heng (see Liu, Jui-heng).**Liu, Jo-wan (prefers John Niu)**

Catholic priest, born in Hopei, 1899; B.A. Fu Jen Univ., Peiping, 1933; former publisher of *Yi Shih Pao*, Chungking; acting vicar apostolic of Vicariate of Hanchung, Shensi, since 1942; address, Catholic Church, Hanchung, Shensi.

Liu, Ju-ming**General**

army officer, born in Hopei; commander, 143rd Division, 1936; governor, Chahar Province, 1936-37; now commander-in-chief of a group army on Hupeh-Honan border.

Liu, Jui-heng (prefers J. Heng Liu)

health expert, born in Hopei, 1890; B.S. (1909) and M.D. (1915), Harvard; vice-minister and then minister of health, 1928-30; director, National Health Administration, 1930-38.

Liu, Ke-chun (prefers Keetsin Liu)

government official, born in Kiangsi, 1894; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1934; address, Legislative Yuan.

Liu, Keetsin (see Liu, Ke-chun).**Liu, Keh-shu**

government official, born in Hunan, 1905; studied at London Univ.; former member and secretary-general, Hupeh Provincial Government; now director, political training department, 6th War area Headquarters.

Liu, Kuan-shun

government official, born in Shansi, 1876; graduate, Peking Imperial College, 1905; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1928; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Liu, Kuang-peí

co-operative director, native of Liaoning, born, 1895; commercial engineer, Cincinnati, 1925; commissioner of civil affairs, Kansu, 1935-37; secretary-general, Chinese Industrial Co-operatives, 1938-40; director of field work, Chinese Industrial Co-operatives, since 1940; address, Koloshan, Chungking.

Liu, Mrs. Herman C. E. (see Wang, Li-ming).**Liu, Pin-ling**

professor, born in Hunan, 1892; LL.B. National Peking Univ., 1917; studied in London School of Economics and Political Science, 1910-12, and Univ. of Berlin, 1913; professor and head, department of economics, and concurrently dean, College of Law, National Wuhan Univ., since 1932; author of *The Development of Chinese Industry from 1860 to 1935*; address, National Wuhan Univ., Loshan, Szechwan.

Liu, Po-min

cultural worker, born in Chekiang, 1900; graduate, College of Law, Japan; now member, People's Political Council, and director, China Cultural Service; address, 39, Tsu Chi Street, Chungking.

Liu, Pu-tung

government official, born in Liaoning, 1906; studied at London School of

Economics and Political Science ; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1942 ; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Liu, Shang-ching

government official, born in Liaoning, 1880 ; graduate, Mukden Law College ; minister of interior, 1931 ; elected state councillor, National Government, 1932 ; governor, Anhwei Province, 1937 ; vice-president, Control Yuan, since 1942 ; address, Control Yuan, Chungking.

Liu, Sheng-ngo (prefers Liou Tchen-ngo)

botanist, born in Shantung, 1898 ; D.Sc. ; director, Botanical Research Institute, National Academy of Peiping, since 1929 ; address, National Academy of Peiping, Kunming.

Liu, Shih

General

army officer, born in Kiangsi, 1893 ; graduate, Paoting Military Academy ; commander, nationalist 1st division, 1927-30 ; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1929 ; governor, Honan Province, 1930-37 ; commander-in-chief, 1st War Area, 1937-39 ; now garrison commander, Chungking area ; address, Chungking Garrison Headquarters, Chungking.

Liu, Shih-shun

diplomat, born in Kiangsi, 1900 ; B.A. Johns Hopkins, 1921 ; M.A. Harvard, 1923 ; Ph.D. Columbia, 1925 ; director, European and American affairs department, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1932-41 ; minister to Canada, since 1941 ; address, Chinese Legation, Ottawa.

Liu, Shih-yi

army officer, born in Kiangsi, 1880 ; commander, 31st army, 1937-38 ; vice-minister, Military Training Board, National Military Council, since 1938 ; address, P.O. Box 171, Chungking.

Liu, Ta-chun (prefers D. K. Lieu)

economist, government official, born in Kiangsu, 1891 ; B.A. Michigan, 1915 ; F.R.A.S. ; now director, Research Institute of Economics, National Military Council ; author, *Foreign Investments in China and China's Industries and Finance*.

Liu, Tao-yuan

government official, born in Shantung, 1903 ; B.A. National Peking Univ., 1933 ; member and educational commissioner, Shantung Provincial Government, since 1942

Liu, Ting-fang

(prefers Timothy Tingfang Lew)

professor, born in Chekiang, 1891 ; B.A. (1914), M.A. (1915) and Ph.D. (1920), Columbia ; B.D. Yale, 1918 ; professor of theology and psychology, Yenching Univ., since 1926.

Liu, Tso-jen

government official, born in Kiangsu, 1906 ; B.A. Univ. of Nanking, 1929 ; member, Kwangtung Provincial Government, since 1940 ; address, Kwangtung Provincial Government, Kukong, Kwangtung.

Liu, To-chuan

General

government official, born in Liaoning, 1896 ; graduate, Paoting Military Academy ; governor of Jehol, since 1942 ; address, 22, Tsao Pa Tse Hsiang, Tan Tse Shih, Chungking.

Liu, Tung

government official, born in Fukien, 1883 ; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1933 ; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Liu, Wei-chih

party official, born in Kwangtung, 1892 ; now minister, overseas affairs board, Kuomintang ; address, Overseas Affairs Board, Chungking.

Liu, Wei-tao (prefers Liou, Oui-tao)

professor, born in Szechwan, 1900 ; licencie d'enseignement es sciences physiques ; docteur detat es sciences physiques, Paris, 1929 ; director, chemical research institute, National Academy of Peiping, since 1930 ; concurrently professor, Sino-French Univ. ; address, National Academy of Peiping, Kunming.

Liu, Wen-hui

General

government official, born in Szechwan ; 1893 ; commander, Nationalist 24th division, 1926 ; commander, Szechwan-Sikang Frontier Defense Force, since 1927 ; governor of Szechwan, 1929 ; chairman, committee for creation of Sikang Province, 1935 ; deputy director, Generalissimo's Chungking Headquarters, 1938 ; governor of Sikang, since 1939 ; address, Sikang Provincial Government, Kangting, Sikang.

Liu, Wen-tao

government official, born in Hupeh, 1894 ; graduate, Paoting Military Academy and Paris Law College ; mayor of Hankow, 1929-31 ; minister to Germany and Austria, 1931-33 ; minister to Italy, 1933-34 ; ambassador to Italy, 1934-37,

elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1929; now member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee.

Liu, Yao-chang

journalist, government official, born in Hopei, 1897; B.A. National Peking Univ., 1922; now member, People's Political Council; address, People's Political Council, Chungking.

Liu, Yin-fu

government official, engineer, born in Hupeh, 1890; ingenieur des mines, Univ. of Liege, Belgium; director, department of industry, Ministry of Industry, 1938; director, Gold Mining Administration, Ministry of Economic Affairs, since 1939; address, Gold Mining Administration, Hsiao lungkan, Chungking.

Liu, Ying-ku

General

army official, born in Chekiang, 1894; commander, 87th army, 1938-39; deputy commander, 19th group army, 1939-42; acting commander-in-chief, 19th group army, since 1942.

Lo, Cheng

government official, born in Honan, 1901; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1923; member and director of peace preservation headquarters, Honan Provincial Government; address, Chan Yin, Lushan, Honan.

Lo, Chia-luen

educator, born in Chekiang, 1896; graduate, National Peking Univ.; studied in Princeton, Columbia, London, Berlin, and Paris universities; president, National Tsing Hua Univ., 1928; dean, Central Political Institute, 1930-33; chancellor, National Central Univ., 1932-41; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1931; now supervisory commissioner of Sinkiang; author of *A New Outlook of Life*, one of the best sellers in 1942; address, C/o Central Kuomintang Headquarters, Chungking.

Lo, Chilin C. (see Lo, Chuen).

Lo, Chuan-hua (prefers Lowe Chuan-hua)

writer, government official, born in Kiangsi, 1902; Ph.B. Chicago, 1923; for some time lecturer on Chinese affairs for Extension Divisions of universities of Wisconsin, Kansas and Minnesota; head, Industrial Department, Y.M.C.A. National Committee of China, 1928-34; director, Shanghai office, China

International Famine Relief Commission, 1934-38; author, *China's Labor Problems, Facing Labor Issues in China, Japan's Economic Offensive in China*, etc.; director, Calcutta Office, Ministry of Information, since 1942; address, 29, Stephen Court, Park Street, Calcutta.

Lo, Hsueh-lien (prefers H. Shelley Lowe)

motion picture producer, born in Kwangtung, 1902; B.A. Yenching Univ.; now director, Central Motion Picture Studio, Ministry of Information; address, Central Motion Picture Studio, Chungking.

Lo, Lung-chi

educator, journalist; born in Kiangsi, 1896; M.A. Wisconsin, 1925; Ph.D. Columbia, 1928; former professor, National Southwest Associated Univ.; editor, *Yi Shih Pao*, Tientsin; managing director, *Peiping Morning Post*; member, People's Political Council, 1938-42; now contributing editor, Ministry of Education; address, 1, Sheng Ping Hsiang, Kunming.

Lo, Mei-huan

government official, born in Chekiang, 1905; B.A. Great China Univ., 1926; M.A. Southern California, 1930; director of land affairs, Hwai River Conservancy Commission, 1935-39; member, Ningsia Provincial Government, and education commissioner, 1939-42; director of education for Mongolia and Tibet, Ministry of Education, since 1942; address, Ministry of Education.

Lo, Mei-lun (prefers Millan L. Loh)

government official, born in Chekiang; B.C.E. National Chiao Tung Univ.; research fellow, Manchester Engineering College; member and director of communications, Sikang Provincial Government; address, Sikang Provincial Government, Kangting.

Lo Shang Chien Chan

Tibetan leader, born in Tibet, 1888; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935.

Lo, Ting

government official, born in Hunan, 1887; LL.B. Tokyo Imperial Univ., 1918; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1928; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Lo, Yi-chun

government official, born in Kwangtung; elected reserve member, Kuomintang

Central Executive Committee, 1935; now member, Kwangtung Provincial Government.

Lo, Yun-yen

government official, born in Kiangsi, 1890; M.A. and Ph.D., Syracuse; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1933; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Loh, Millan L. (see Lo, Mei-lun).

Loo, C. T. (see Lu, Chih-teh).

Louis, Binnan J. (see Lei, Pei-hung).

Lowe, Chuan-hua (see Lo, Chuan-hua).

Lowe, H. Shelley (see Lo, Hsueh-lin).

Lu, Chao

General

army officer, born in Szechwan, 1891; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; aide-de-camp to chairman of National Government, since 1931; address, National Government, Chungking.

Lu, Chi-hsin (prefers David C. H. Lu)

journalist, native of Kwangtung, born in New York, 1906; B.A. Yenching Univ., 1929; M.A. Missouri, 1931; manager, Hongkong office, Central News Agency, 1936-40; Central News Agency correspondent in Washington, since 1941; address, Central News Agency of China, 2800, Woodley Road, Washington, D.C.

Lu, Chien

educator, born in Nanking, 1905; B.A. Southwest Univ., 1926; former professor, National Chunan and Central universities; editor, National Compilation Bureau; member, People's Political Council, since 1938; president, Fukien Music Conservatory, since 1942; author, *The Trumpet of National Resurgence* (poems), translated into English by Miss G. M. Taylor; address, Fukien Music Conservatory, Chishan, Fukien.

Lu, Chih-teh

(prefers C. T. Loo)

army medical director, born in 1900; M.D., P. U. M. C.; director-general, medical department, Board of Transport and Supplies, since 1938; director-general, army medical administration, Ministry of War, since 1939; address, Army Medical Administration, Chungking.

Lu, Chih-wei (prefers C. W. Luh)

college president, psychologist, born in Chekiang, 1894; Ph.D. Chicago; professor, Yenching Univ., since 1927

acting chancellor, same institution, 1934-41.

Lu, Chun (prefers John Lee)

meteorologist, born in Kiangsu, 1902; B.S. National Central Univ., 1928; studied in Berlin, Hamburg, and Frankfurt; A.M., 1930-34; acting director, research institute of meteorology, Academia Sinica, since 1934; address, Research Institute of Meteorology, Peipei, Szechwan.

Lu, Chung-lin

government official, born in Szechwan, 1880; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1928; address, 3, Tze Sheng Miao Street, Kiangtsin, Szechwan.

Lu, Chung-lin

General

government official, born in Hopei, 1883; former garrison commander of Peking, governor of Chahar; minister of war; governor of Hopei; now member, Central Executive Committee of Kuomintang.

Lu, David C. H. (see Lu, Chi-hsin).

Lu, Fu

government official, born in Peiping, 1879; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1942; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Lu, Fu-ting

Lieut.-General

army officer, born in Anhwei, 1890; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; commander, railway transportation headquarters, National Military Council, since 1940; address, Railway Transportation Headquarters, Kuo Fu Road, Chungking.

Lu, Han

General

army officer, born in Yunnan, 1908; graduate, Yunnan Military Academy; former commander, 60th army; commander, 10th army corps; now commander-in-chief, 1st group army; address, Kunming, Yunnan.

Lu, Kuang-mien

co-operative director, born in Liaoning, 1906; B.S. National Peking Univ., 1927; studied at Aberdeen Univ., England, 1927-31; director, Northwest Regional Headquarters, Chinese Industrial Co-operatives, since 1938; address, Northwest Headquarters, Chinese Industrial Co-operatives, Paoki, Shensi.

Lu, Kuei-hsiang

government official, born in Kiangsu, 1900; now member and reconstruction commissioner, Fukien Provincial Government; address, Yungan, Fukien.

Lu, Pei-chang

government official, born in Anhwei, 1893; B.S. Univ. of Nanking, 1919; chief secretary, Ministry of Finance, and member, Foreign Trade Commission; address, Ministry of Finance, Chungking.

Lu, Tang-ping

government official, born in Hunan, 1898; elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1935; member and education commissioner, Honan Provincial Government, since 1936; address, Department of Education, Lushan, Honan.

Lu, Tso-fu

government official, industrialist; born in Szechwan; founder and general manager, Ming Sung Industrial Co., since 1925; vice-minister of Communications, 1938-42; director, National Food Administration, 1940-41; address, Ming Sung Industrial Co., Chungking.

Lu, Tung-sun

professor, government official, born in Chekiang, 1896; M.A. Paris, 1923; former professor in National Central Univ. and Central Political Institute; chairman, foreign affairs committee, Legislative Yuan; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1928, and chairman, economic affairs committee, same Yuan, since 1941; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Lu, Yu-kang

party worker, born in Kwangtung, 1893; B.A. National Peking Univ.; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1935; address, Kien Yi Store, Shuikow, Sunyi, Kwangtung.

Luh, C. W. (see Lu, Chih-wei).**Lung, Yun****General**

army officer, born in Yunnan, 1888; graduate, Yunnan Military Academy; former commander-in-chief, 13th route army, 1927; governor of Yunnan, since 1927; director, generalissimo's headquarters at Kunming, since 1940; address, Yunnan Provincial Government Kunming, Yunnan.

Ly, J. Usang (see Li, Chao-huan).**Ma, Chan-shan****General**

army officer, born in Liaoning, 1887; garrison commander of Heiho, Heilungkiang, 1929; acting governor, Heilungkiang Province, 1931; resisted Japanese invasion with headquarters at Hailun; appointed commander-in-chief,

Northeastern Assault Army after the war broke out, and appointed governor, Heilungkiang Province, in 1941; address, Heilungkiang Provincial Government, Chungking.

Ma, Chao-chun

party leader, born in Kwangtung, 1887; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1931; former mayor, Nanking; now vice-minister, Kuomintang organization board; address, Organization Board, Chungking.

Ma, Cheng-feng

educator, born in Honan, 1906; graduate, Central Military Academy; member, People's Political Council, since 1938; address, 5, Hsiao Kia Street, Loyang, Honan.

Ma, Hsin-yeh

journalist, professor, born in Chekiang; B.J. Missouri, 1934; former professor and dean, department of journalism, Central Political Institute; Far Eastern correspondent, *Journalism Quarterly*, U.S.A.; now director, press department, Ministry of Information; address, Ministry of Information, Chungking.

Ma, Hung-kuei**General**

army officer, government official, born in Kansu, 1892; graduate, Kansu Military Academy; now commander-in-chief, 17th group army, and governor, Ningsia Province; address, Ningsia Provincial Government, Sining.

Ma, Jo-han (prefers John Mo)

physical director, born in Fukien, 1873; B.A. St. John's Univ., 1911; B.P.E. (1920) and M.P.E. (1925), Springfield; professor and physical director, National Tsing Hua Univ., since 1914; concurrently physical director, National Southwest Associated Univ.; address, National Southwest Associated Univ., Kunming.

Ma, John (see Ma, Jo-han).**Ma, Liang (prefers K. L. Maliang)**

government official, born in Liaoning, 1905; graduate, Fu Jen Univ., Peiping; member, National Relief Commission, 1938; member, People's Political Council, and member, opium suppression committee, Ministry of Interior, since 1938; address, 78, Chingtang Chieh, Chu gking.

Ma, Lin**General**

government official, born in Kansu, 1880; governor, Chinghai Province, 1933-38;

state councillor, National Government, since 1938 ; address, c/o National Government, Chungking.

Ma, Lin-fu

government official, born in Shensi, 1884 ; LL.B. Meiji Univ., 1911 ; education commissioner, Shensi, 1924 ; member, Anhwei Provincial Government, and civil affairs commissioner, 1933 ; counsellor, Executive Yuan, 1937 ; member, Shensi Provincial Government, since 1941 ; address, South Main Street, Sian, Shensi.

Ma, Pu-ching

General

army officer, born in Kansu ; former commander, 2nd cavalry division ; commander, 5th cavalry division ; now commander, 5th cavalry army ; reclamation commissioner at Tsaidam, Chinghai, since 1942 ; address, Sining, Chinghai.

Ma, Pu-fang

General

army officer, born in Kansu, 1903 ; former commander, new 9th division ; commander, new 2nd army ; now commander, 82nd army, and governor, Chinghai Province ; address, Sining, Chinghai.

Ma, Tai-chun

government official, born in Hopei, 1880 ; M.A. Harvard, 1910 ; director, salt department, Ministry of Finance, since April, 1937 ; address, Ministry of Finance, Chungking.

Ma, Tsung-yung

government official, born in Kweichow, 1896 ; B.A. Tokyo Imperial Univ., 1929 ; member, People's Political Council, since 1942 ; address, People's Political Council, Chungking.

Ma, Yao-nan

government official, born in Kansu, 1884 ; member, Control Yuan, since 1938 ; address, Control Yuan, Chungking.

Ma, Yin-chu

economist, government official, born in Chekiang, 1884 ; B.A. Yale, 1910 ; M.A. and Ph.D., Columbia ; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1928 ; author of *The New Financial Policy of China* and *Economic Reform of China*.

Mai Ssu Wu Teh (prefers Masud)

Moslem leader, born in Sinkiang, 1888 ; now member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee ; state councillor, National Government ; and member, People's Political Council.

Mallang, K. L. (see Ma, Liang).

Mao, Chien-wu

journalist, born in Kiangsi, 1909 ; publisher, *Ta Kang Pao* and *Ta Kang Wan Pao*, Hengyang ; address, Hengyang.

Mao, Ching-hsiang

government official, born in Chekiang, 1899 ; graduate, National Agricultural College, France ; secretary, generalissimo's headquarters, since 1929 ; chief secretary, confidential secretariat, National Military Council, since 1932 ; deputy-director, technical research department, National Military Council ; address, P. O. Box 149, Chungking.

Mao, Fu-cheng

Lieut.-General

army officer, born in Chengtu, Szechwan 1894 ; graduate, Japanese Military Cadets' Academy, 1919 ; director of communications ; Board of Military Supplies, 1936-37 ; superintendent of engineers, Board of Training, National Military Council, since 1939 ; address, P. O. Box 1, Pishan, Szechwan.

Mao, I-sheng (prefers Thomson Eason Mao)

engineer, born in Kiangsi, 1896 ; graduate, Tangshan Engineering College, 1916 ; M.C.E. Cornell, 1917 ; D.Eng. Carnegie Institute of Technology, 1920 ; president, Tangshan Engineering College, 1924-26 ; president, Peiyang Univ., 1928-32 ; director, engineering bureau for constructions of Chientang river bridge, 1933 ; now director, engineering bureau, Lunghai Railway.

Mao, Thomson Eason (see Mao, I-sheng).

Mao, Tseh-tung

communist leader, born in Hunan, 1893 ; founded Chinese Communist Party in 1921 in Shanghai ; organized Hunan Autumn Corps Uprising in 1927, starting Red Army movement ; now at Yen-an ; address, Yen-an, Shensi.

Mao, Tsu-chuan

government official, born in Kiangsu ; graduate, Tokyo Law College ; president, administrative court, 1933-43 ; secretary-general, Judicial Yuan, since 1943 ; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1931 ; address, Judicial Yuan Chungking.

Mao, Tun (see Shen Yen-ping).

Masud (see Mai, Ssu Wu Teh).

Mei, Ching-chou (prefers K. C. Mui)

consular official, born in Kwangtung, 1895; B.A., Oberlin, 1921; M.A., Chicago; Chinese consul-general, Honolulu, since 1933; address, Chinese Consulate-General Honolulu.

Mei, Ju-ao

government official, born in Kiangsi, 1904; graduate, National Tsing Hua Univ., 1924; B.A. Stanford, 1926; J.D. Chicago, 1928; professor, Nankai Univ., 1930-31, National Wuhan Univ., 1931-33; member, Legislative Yuan, and chief editor, Sun Yat-sen Memorial Education and Cultural Institute, since 1935; address, Peipei, Szechwan.

Mei, Kuang-ti

educator, born in Anhwei, 1901; B.A. Northwestern Univ., U.S.A., 1915; graduate work, Harvard; head, department of English, Nankai Univ., 1920; professor, Teachers' College, Nanking, 1920-23; head, department of western literature, Southeastern Univ., Nanking, 1922-24; lecturer (1924-29); assistant professor (1929-36), Harvard; vice-dean, 1936-39; dean, since 1939, college of arts, and science, National Chekiang Univ.; member, People's Political Council, since 1938; address, National Chekiang University, Tsungyi, Kweichow.

Mei, Kung-jen

party and government official, born in Liaoning, 1895; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935; now member, Control Yuan; address, Control Yuan, Chungking.

Mei, Shu-tseng

government official, born in Szechwan, 1899; graduate, National Peking and Jena (Germany) Univ.; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1934; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Mei, Yi-chi

university president, born in Hopei, 1889; B.A. M.A. and C.E. Cornell; director, Chinese Educational Mission to U. S. A., 1929-31; president, National Tsing Hua Univ., since 1931; member, executive council, National Southwest Associated Univ., since 1938; address, National Southwest Associated Univ., Kunming.

Mei, Yi-lin

physician, born in Hopei, 1896; B.A. Chicago; M.D. Rush College; Ph.D. Johns Hopkins; director, army medica-

administration, Ministry of War, 1933-37; director, bureau of public health, Chungking, 1940-42; superintendent, Central Hospital, Chungking, since 1943.

Mei, Yi-pao

professor, born in Hopei, 1900; B.A. Oberlin, 1924; Ph.D. Chicago, 1927; Cologne Univ., Germany, 1927-28; acting president, Oberlin-in-China, 1934-1936; dean, college of arts and letters, Yenching Univ., 1936-38; director, Kansu Science Education Institute, Lanchow, 1938-40; head of secretariat, Chinese Industrial Co-operatives, 1940-41; acting chancellor, Yenching, since 1942; address, Yenching University, Chengtu, Szechwan.

Men, Ping-yueh**Lieut.-General**

army officer, born in Hopei, 1890; graduate, Staff College, 1919; superintendent of cavalry, Board of Military Training, National Military Council, since 1940; address, Board of Military Training, Chungking.

Miao, Pei-cheng

party and government official, born in Shansi, 1894; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935; now supervisory commissioner, Hunan-Hupeh; address, Supervisory Commissioner's Office, Enshih, Hupeh.

Miao, Pei-nan**Lieut.-General**

army officer, born in Kwangtung, 1889; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935; now chief of staff, 4th war area headquarters.

Mo, Teh-hui

government official, born in Liaoning, 1882; president, Chinese Eastern Railway, 1929; Chinese delegate to Sino-Russian Conference, Moscow, 1930; member, presidium, People's Political Council, since 1942; address, People's Political Council, Chungking.

Mou, Chung-heng**Major-General**

government official, born in Shantung, 1889; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1923; commander, 51st army, 1939-42; governor of Shantung since 1898.

Mui, K. C. (see Mei, Ching-chou).**Nan, Ying-keng**

government official, born in Shansi, 1905; B.A. Syracuse, 1928; M.A. Cornell, 1930; member, National Relief Commission, since 1942; address, National Relief Commission, Chungking.

Ning, Tsao-wu

government official, born in Shansi, 1896; graduate, Kieo Univ., Tokyo, 1926; secretary-general, Shansi Provincial Government, since 1941.

Niu, John (see **Liu, Jo-wan**).**Ny, Tsi-ze** (see **Yen, Chi-tsu**).**Nyien, K. K.** (see **Yen, Chai-chuan**).**Ou, Fang-pu**

party leader, born in Kwangtung, 1892; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1931.

Ou, Tsuin-chen (see **Wu, Chun-sheng**).**Ou, Yuan-huai**

educator, government official, born in Fukien, 1893; B.A. National South-eastern Univ., 1918; M.A. Columbia, 1919; LL.D. Northwestern, 1930; vice-president, Great China Univ., and dean of school of education, 1924-40; member, People's Political Council, 1938-40; member, Kweichow Provincial Government, and education commissioner, since 1940; address, Kweichow Provincial Government, Kweiyang, Kweichow.

Ou-Yang, Lun

(prefers **O'yang Lun**)

mechanical engineer, government official, born in Anhwei, 1898; B.S. National Chiao Tung Univ., 1925; M.C.E. Purdue Univ., 1927; director, department of industry, Ministry of Economic Affairs, since 1939; address, Ministry of Economic Affairs, Chungking.

O'Yang, Lun (see **Ou-Yang Lun**).**Pai, Chung-hsi**

General

army officer, born in Kwangsi, 1893; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; commander, 13th army, and acting chief of staff, Nationalist Forces, 1926; garrison commander, Shanghai and Woosung Area, 1927; now minister, Military Training Board, National Military Council, and deputy chief of staff of Chinese Army; address, Military Training Board, Chungking.

Pai, Pao-ching

government official, born in Chahar, 1909; graduate, National Peking Univ., 1935; member, Chahar Provincial Government, 1939; civil affairs commissioner, Chahar Provincial Government, since 1942; address, Chahar Provincial Government, Loyang, Honan.

Pai, Peng-fei

(prefers **P. F. Peh**)

government official, born in Kwangsi, 1889; LL.B. Tokyo Imperial Univ., Japan, 1922; professor, National Peking Univ., 1922-31; Kwangsi Univ., 1928-29; dean, school of Law, National Peiping Univ., 1931-37; president, National Kwangsi Univ., 1938-39; member, Control Yuan, and member, Army Discipline Corps, since 1940; address, 17, Victory Terrace, Loho Road, Kweilin, Kwangsi.

Pan, Francis K. (see **Pan, Kuang-chun**).**Pan, Koun Bih** (see **Pan Kung-pi**).**Pan, Kuang-chun** (prefers **Francis K. Pan**)

government official, born in Kiangsu, 1907; B.A. Dartmouth, 1926; M.C.S. Amos Tuck School of Administration and Finance, 1927; D.C.S. New York, 1928; chief secretary, Ministry of Railways, 1935-37; director, department of administration and department of personnel, Ministry of Communications, 1937-42; director, National Highway Transportation Administration, 1940-41; counsellor, Ministry of Communications, since 1942; address, 2, Hsin Tsun, Liang Lu Kou, Chungking.

Pan, Kung-chan

party and government official, born in Chekiang, 1895; graduate, St. John's Univ.; editor, *Shun Pao*, Shanghai, 1920; director, social affairs bureau, Shanghai Municipal Government, 1929-31; director, education bureau, same city, 1932-37; vice-minister of information, 1938-42; elected member, standing committee, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1942; address, Central Kuomintang Headquarters, Chungking.

Pan, Kung-pi (prefers **Pan Koun Bih**)

journalist, born in Kiangsu, 1895; graduate, Nanyang College, 1914; manager, 1920-25; editor-in-chief, 1925-27; general manager, 1927-30; editor-in-chief, 1930-37, *China Times*; editor in-chief, *Shun Pao*, Shanghai, 1938-41; editor-in-chief, *Singapore Daily News*, Singapore, 1941-42; department director, Central Kuomintang Headquarters, since 1942; address, 4, Kincheng Villa, Chungking.

Pan, Shu-uen

accountant, born in Kiangsu, 1895; B.A. St. John's Univ., 1921; M.A. (1923) and

Ph.D. (1924), Columbia; director, Li Hsin Accounting Office and Accounting School; address, Li Hsin Accounting Office, Chungking.

Pan, Siu-jen

government official, born in Suiyuan, 1893; education commissioner and member, Suiyuan Provincial Government, 1931-34; member, People's Political Council, 1938-40; member, Suiyuan Provincial Government, and education commissioner, since 1940.

Pan, Sti Nien (see **Pan Tze-nien**).

Pan, Tze-nien

(prefers **Sti Nien Pan**)

journalist, born in Kiangsu, 1892; graduate, National Peking Univ.; former professor, Peking, Franco-Chinese and Sino-Russian universities; and Shanghai Law College; managing director, *Sin Hua Jih Pao*, since 1937; address, 208, Minshen Road, Chungking.

Pan, Wen-hua

General

army officer, born in Szechwan, 1888; mayor of Chungking, 1927-35; commander, 23rd army, 1935-38; 28th group army, 1938-42; deputy military affairs commissioner of Szechwan and Sikang, since 1938; military affairs commissioner, Szechwan-Shensi-Hupeh Border Area, 1938.

Pan, Yi-chi

government official, born in Hupeh, studied at Oxford, 1932-34; mayor of Hankow, 1929; member, Hupeh Provincial Government, 1937; secretary-general and director, political affairs department, 5th War Area Headquarters; vice-minister, of economic affairs, since 1939-43; now vice-minister of communication; address minister of communication, Chungking

Pang, Ping-hsun

General

government official, born in Hopei, 1883; graduate, Staff College, 1937; elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1935; commander-in-chief, 3rd army corps 1937; vice commander-in-chief, 2nd group army, 1938-39; commander-in-chief, 24th group army, since 1939; governor, Hopei Province, since 1940; vice commander-in-chief, Hopei-Shantung War Area, since 1939; address, Linhsien, Honan.

Peh, P. F. (see **Pai, Peng-fei**).

Pao, Chun-chien

consular official, born in Kiangsu, 1897; attended Cornell, Columbia, and Harvard;

former Chinese consul-general, Sydney, Australia; now Chinese consul-general, Calcutta, India.

Pao, Kai

Major-General

army officer, born in Hunan, 1894; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; spokesman for National Military Council, since 1941; address, Board of Military Operations, Chungking.

Pei, Tsuyee (see **Pei, Tsu-yi**).

Pei, Tsu-yi

(prefers **Tsuyee Pei**)

banker, born in Kiangsu, 1893; connected with the Bank of China since 1916; general manager, Bank of China, since 1942; member, Chinese Currency Stabilization Board, since 1941; address, Bank of China, Chungking.

Pei, Wen-chung

geologist, palaeontologist, born in Hopei, 1898; graduate, National Peking Univ., discoverer of "Peking Man" in the vicinity of Peiping, 1931; discoverer of palaeolithic implements at same locality, 1933; address, National Geological Survey, Chungking.

Peng, Chao-hsien

government official, born in Shantung, 1899; graduate, Moscow Univ., former consul-general at Habarovsk; director, department of statistics, Ministry of Interior; now member and civil affairs commissioner, Shensi Provincial Government; address, Shensi Provincial Government, Sian, Shensi.

Peng, Hsueh-peí

government official, born in Kiangsi, 1897; graduate, Tokyo Imperial and Brussels univ., vice-minister of interior, 1932; vice-minister of communications, 1937-41; now deputy secretary-general, Central Planning Board; address, Central Planning Board, Chungking.

Peng, Kuo-chun

party leader, born in Hunan, 1879; elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1935.

Peng, Po-chuan

government official-born in Kiangsi, 1895; graduate, Nanking Teachers' College, 1919; B.A. Stanford, 1926; M.A. Columbia, 1927; senior secretary, Ministry of Education, since 1941; address, Ministry of Education, Chungking.

Peng Teh-huai,

General

communist leader, born in Hunan, 1900; graduate, Hunan Military Academy

joined Chinese Communist Party in 1927; deputy commander-in-chief, 8th Route Army, and later deputy commander-in-chief, 18th Group Army, since 1937; address, Yen-an, Shensi.

Pi, Tso Kiung

government official, born in Hunan, 1898; graduate, National Forestry College, France; and Univ. of Forestry and Water Conservancy, France; director, Administration of Central Model Forestry Area, 1936-38; director, Kweichow Agricultural Improvement Administration, 1938-42; technical superintendent, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, since 1942; address, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, Chungking.

Ping, Chih

zoologist, born in Honan, 1889; B.S.A. and Ph.D. Cornell; professor, National Southeast Univ., 1921-27; director, biological laboratory, Science Society of China, since 1922; director, Fan Memorial Institute of Biology, since 1928; author of *The Fossil Insects of China*.

Ping Hsin (see Hsieh, Wan-ying).

Po, Yu-hsiang

government official, born in Shansi, 1904; graduate, National Peiping Normal College, 1920; member and education commissioner, Shansi Provincial Government, since 1942.

Quo, Tai-chi (see Kuo, Tai-chi).

Sah, Adam Pen-tung (see Sah, Pen-tung).

Sah, F. K. (see Sah, Fu-chun).

Sah, Fu-chun (prefers F. K. Sah)

railway director and engineer, born in Fukien, 1886; B.S. Purdue Univ., 1910; chief technical expert, Ministry of Communications, since 1938; concurrently general manager, Szechwan-Yunnan Railway Co., and director, engineering bureau, Suifu-Kunming Railway, since 1942; address, c/o 326, Taiho Street, Kunming.

Sah, Pen-tung (prefers Adam Pen-tung Sah)

university president, born in Fukien, 1902; B.A. Stanford, 1924; E.E. (1925) and D.Sc. (1927), Worcester Polytechnic Institute; professor, National Tsing Hua Univ., 1928-37; now chancellor, National Amoy Univ.; address, National Amoy Univ., Changting, Fukien.

Sha-keh-tu-erh-cha-pu (see Prince Sha).

Prince Sha

(full name **Sha-keh-tu-erh-cha-pu**)

Mongolian leader, born at Chassack Banner, Ikhchao League, in 1875; now chief and garrison commander, Ikhchao League; chairman, Suiyuan Mongolian Autonomous Political Council; state councillor, National Government; address, Chassack League, Southern Suiyuan.

Shang, Cheng

army officer, born in Hopei, 1884; graduate, Staff College; governor, Hopei Province, 1929; governor, Shansi Province, 1931; commander, 32nd army, 1931-37; governor, Honan Province, 1935-37; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1929; now director, main office, National Military Council, and director, foreign affairs bureau, same council; address, National Military Council, Chungking.

Shao, Hua

party leader, born in Anhwei, 1902; elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1935.

Shao, Li-tse

government official, born in Chekiang, 1882; chief secretary, Generalissimo's Headquarters, 1927-31; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1926; governor, Kansu Province, 1932; governor, Shensi Province, 1933-36; minister of publicity, 1937-38; ambassador to U.S.S.R., 1939-42; address, Central Kuomintang Headquarters, Chungking.

Shao, Yu-lin

government official, born in Chekiang, 1907; B.A. Kiuchiu Imperial Univ., Japan; consul-general at Yokohama, 1937-38; secretary, Generalissimo's Headquarters, since 1939; director, information department, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, since 1941; address, Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Shaw, Kinn-wei (see Shou, Chin-wei).

Shaw, Miachen S. (see Shou, Mien-chen).

Shen, Bozin D. Z. (see Shen, Pail-hsien).

Shen, Hsi-jui

government official, born in Kiangsu, in 1905; B.A. M.A. Dartmouth College,

U.S.A.; general-manager, Hunan-Kwangsi Railway, since 1937; deputy director, Postal Remittances and Savings Bank, since 1942; director, equipment and materials bureau, Ministry of Communications, since 1942; address, Ministry of Communications, Chungking.

Shen, Hung-lieh **Admiral**
government official, born in Hupeh, 1881; commander-in-chief, Northeastern Naval Squadron, 1923; mayor of Tsingtao, 1930-37; governor, Shantung Province, 1938-41; minister of agriculture and forestry, since 1942; secretary-general, National General Mobilization Council, since 1943; address, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, Chungking.

Shen, James K. (see **Shen Ke-fei**).

Shen, Ke-fei (prefers **James K. Shen**)
government official, physician; born in Chekiang, 1898; graduate, National Tsing Hua Univ., 1919; M.D. Western Reserve Univ., 1924; Director, Central Hospital, 1936-41; vice-director, National Health Administration, since June, 1940; address, 3, Hsin Tsun, Hsinchiao, Chungking.

Shen, Pai-hsien (prefers **Bozin D. Z. Shen**)
government official, born in Chekiang, 1896; M.S. Iowa, 1925; acting vice-chairman, Hwai River Conservancy Commission, since 1939; president, Hydraulic Engineering Society of China; address, Hwai River Conservancy Commission, Chungking.

Shen, Shih-hua
government official, diplomat, born in Chekiang, 1901; B.A. St. John's Univ., Shanghai; studied at Univ. of Berlin; director, department of administration, Ministry of Communications, 1933; acting director, Rangoon office, Transportation Control Administration, 1942; Chinese commissioner to India since 1942; address, Office of the Commissioner of the Republic of China, Jind House, Lytton Road, New Delhi, India.

Shen, Shih-tsai **General**
military officer, born in Liaoning; now governor and Border Defense Commissioner, Sinkiang; address, Tihwa, Sinkiang.

Shen, Tsung-han
agriculturist, born in Chekiang, 1895; M.A. Georgia State College of Agriculture, 1924; Ph.D. Cornell, 1927; professor, Univ. of Nanking 1926-37; vice-director,

National Agricultural Research Bureau, since 1934; vice-president, International Congress of Genetics, Edinburgh, 1939; address, National Agricultural Research Bureau, Peipei, Szechwan.

Shen, Tze-liang (prefers **William Z. L. Sung**)

university president, born in Chekiang, 1897; B.A. St. John's University; M.A. Columbia; hon. general secretary, China National Amateur Athletic Federation, since 1926; president, St. John's Univ., since 1940.

Shen, Tsung-wen

novelist, born in Hunan, 1905; professor, National Southwest Associated Univ., since 1939; author of about 60 volumes of novels and short stories in modern style; address, National Southwest Associated Univ., Kunming.

Shen, Yen-ping

novelist, better known by his pen name, Mao Tun; born in Chekiang; editor, *Short Story Monthly* (in Chinese), 1921-24; author of many novels, including *Midnight*.

Shen, Yi-mo

government official, born in Chekiang, 1882; B.A. Kyoto Imperial Univ., former professor, National Peking Univ.; president, National Peiping Univ.; chairman, Committee for Administration of Franco-Chinese Boxer Indemnity Funds; member of Hopei Provincial Government and education commissioner; member, Control Yuan, since 1939; address, Control Yuan, Chungking.

Sheng, Hsiao-ching

labor welfare worker, born in Hunan, 1896; graduate, Peiyang Univ., 1921; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1942; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Shih, Chao-chi (prefers **Alfred Sao-ke Sze**)

retired diplomat, born in Kiangsu, April, 1877; B.A. (1901) and M.A. (1902) Cornell; LL.D. Univ. of Toronto, Canada, Columbia, Syracuse and Lafayette College; minister to Great Britain, 1914-21 and 1929-32; minister to United States, 1921-29 and 1933-35; ambassador to United States, 1935-36; Chinese delegate to Paris Peace Conference, 1919-20; chief Chinese delegate to Washington Conference, 1921-22; member, People's Political Council, 1938-42; now holds a position in the United States Government; address, c/o State Department, Washington, D.C., U.S.A.

Shih, Ching-ting

military officer, born in Shantung, 1896; graduate, Staff College; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935; former governor of Shantung; now senior staff officer, National Military Council; address, National Military Council, Chungking.

Shih, Lai (prefers **Louis Stone**)

government official, born in Fukien; B.A. Coe College, Iowa, 1919; M.A. Columbia, 1921; member, National Relief Commission, since 1939; member, People's Political Council, since 1941; address, Fukien Provisional Assembly, Yungan, Fukien.

Shih, Ti-yuan

government official, born in Szechwan, 1890; finance commissioner, Szechwan Provincial Government, and director, Szechwan Land Tax Bureau, since 1942; address, Department of Finance, Szechwan Provincial Government, Chengtu.

Shih, Tze-chou

party leader, born in Tientsin, 1880; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee.

Shih, Wei-huan

government official, born in Kweichow, 1888; graduate, Kyoto Imperial Univ., 1924; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1930; vice-director, Labor Bureau, Ministry of Social Affairs, since 1942; address, Labour Bureau, Chungking.

Shih, Ying

government official, born in Hupeh, 1888; graduate, Toulouse Univ.; mayor of Nanking, 1932-35; minister of personnel, 1935; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1932; address, Enshih, Hupeh.

Shih, Yu-yi

government official, born in Kirin, 1906; graduate, College of Law, Harbin; member, Chahar Provincial Government, since 1941; address, Chahar Provincial Government, Loyang.

Shou, Chin-wei

(prefers **Kinn-wei Shaw**)
government official, born in Chekiang, 1892; Ph.D. Columbia; former manager, China National Tea Corporation; Chinese employers' delegate to International Labor Conference, New York, 1942.

Shou, Mien-chen

(prefers **Miachen S. Shaw**)
co-operative expert, born in Chekiang; M.B.A. Washington State Univ., 1924; head, department of economics, Central Political Institute, 1929-35; director, graduate school of co-operation, Central Political Institute; now director, co-operative bureau, Ministry of Social Affairs; address, Ministry of Social Affairs, Chungking.

Sie, K. S. (see **Hsieh, Chia-sheng**).**Siu, Pingchang** (see **Hsu, Ping-chang**).**Soong, T. V.** (see **Sung Tze-wen**).**Stone, Louis** (see **Shih, Lai**).**Su, Hsi-shun**

government official, born in Kwangsi, in May, 1890; B.A. Paris, 1917; Ph.D. Paris, 1919; former member and secretary-general, Kwangsi Provincial Government; member and education commissioner, Kwangsi Provincial Government, since 1940; address 29, 29, Kwei Hua Chieh, Kweilin.

Su, Ming

government official, born in Hunan, 1904; now member, Anhwei Provincial Government, and director, Anhwei Food Bureau; address, Anhwei Food Bureau, Lihuang.

Sun, Cheng

army officer, born in Szechwan, 1892; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1914; garrison commander, northwestern district, Szechwan, 1933; commander, 41st army, 1937; now commander-in-chief, 23rd army corps; address, Ku Chung Shi Cheih, Chengtu, Szechwan.

Sun, Ching-ya

party leader, born in Kiangsi, 1888; graduate, Fuh Tan Univ.; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1931.

Sun, Chiu-lu

government official, born in Kiangsu, 1898; LL.B. National Peking Univ.; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1942; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Sun, Fo (see **Sun, Ke**).**Sun, Jen-lin**

government official, born in Kwangsi, 1891; graduate, Kwangsi Law College; member, Kwangsi Provincial Government, and director of general administrative bureau, since 1940; address, Kwangsi Provincial Government, Kweilin, Kwangsi.

Sun, Ke (prefers Sun, Fo)

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1891; son of Dr. Sun Yat-sen; B.A. California, 1916; M.A. Columbia, 1917; mayor, Canton, 1921-22, 1923-24, and 1926; minister of finance, 1927-28; minister of railways, 1928-31; president, Executive Yuan, 1932; now president, Legislative Yuan; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Sun, Lien-chung**General**

army officer, born in Hopei, 1893; holder, Blue-sky White-sun Medal; former governor of Chinghai and Kansu; commander-in-chief, 26th route army; vice-commander-in-chief, 1st War Area; now vice-commander-in-chief, 5th War Area, and commander-in-chief, 2nd Group Army.

Sun, Peng-wen

sociologist, born in Kiangsu, 1892; B.A. National Peking Univ., 1918; M.A. Illinois, 1922; Ph.D. New York, 1925; studied at Columbia, 1922-24; at Chicago, 1925-26; professor, and dean of faculty, National Central Univ., 1929-41; director, department of higher education, Ministry of Education, 1930-32; professor and dean of teachers' college, National Central Univ., since 1941; appointed by Ministry of Education "Ministry-appointed Professor," 1942; author, *Principles of Sociology*, 1931, and *Social Problems in Modern China* (4 volumes), 1942; address, National Central Univ., Chungking.

Sun, Soong Ching-ling (see Madame Sun, Yat-sen).**Sun, Tung-hsuan****Lieut.-General**

army officer, born in Hopei, 1895; commander, 20th division, 1931; commander, 12th army, 1937; deputy commander, 3rd group army, 1938; commander-in-chief, 3rd group army, since 1938; address, Chiaoho, Hopei.

Sun, Wei-ju**General**

army officer, born in Shensi, 1894; commander, 38th army, 1932; commander, 31st army corps, 1938; commander, 4th group army, since 1939; address, 5, East Ten Street Lane, Sian, Shensi.

Madame Sun, Yat-sen (Sun, Soong Ching-ling)

Kuomintang leader, born at Shanghai, Kiangsu; B.A. Wesleyan College; married Dr. Sun, Yat-sen in 1915;

member, Central Executive Committee Kuomintang; address, c/o Central Party Hqrs., Chungking.

Sun, Yuan-liang**Lieut.-General**

army officer, born in Szechwan, 1904; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy; attended Japanese Military Cadets' Academy, 1927-29; commander, 88th division, 1933; studied military science and equipment in Europe and America in 1938; now fighting on the south-eastern front.

Sun, Yueh-chi

engineer, born in Chekiang, 1895; graduate, National Peiyang College, Columbia and Stanford Univ.; general manager, Kansu Oil Administration, and member, National Resources Commission; address, P.O. Box 7, Peipei, Szechwan.

Sun, Siu-feng

government official, born in Shensi, 1901; graduate, Shensi Law College; secretary-general, Chahar Provincial Government, since 1942; address, Chahar Provincial Government, Loyang.

Sung, Han-chang

banker, born in Chekiang, 1872; connected with Bank of China since 1912; chairman, board of directors, Bank of China, since 1942; address, Bank of China, Chungking.

Sung, Su-shih

journalist, born at Kunming, Yunnan, in April, 1903; former editor, *Central Daily News*; editor-in-chief, *Wuhan Daily News*; managing director, *Wuhan Daily News*, since 1941; address, *Wuhan Daily News*, Enshih, Hupei.

Sung, Tze-wen (prefers T. V. Soong)

government official, born in Shanghai; B.A. Harvard, 1915; minister of finance, and vice-president, Executive Yuan, 1928-31 and 1932-33; acting president, Executive Yuan, 1932-33; chief delegate, World Economic Conference, London, 1933; chairman, board of directors, Bank of China, 1935-42; acting chairman, National Aeronautical Affairs Commission, 1938; now minister of foreign affairs; address, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Chungking.

Sung, William Z. L. (see Shen, Tze-liang).**Sze, Alfred Sao-ke (see Shih, Chao chi).**

Ta, Pu-sheng (prefers Haji Noor Mohamad Ta-pu-sun)

government official, born in Kiangsu, 1876; graduate, Azhar Univ., Cairo, 1923; counsellor, National Military Council, since 1938; member, People's Political Council, since 1942; address, c/o Kincheng Bank, Sian, Shensi.

Ta-pu-sun Haji Noor Mohamad (see Ta, Pu-sheng).**Tai, Chi-tao (see Tai, Chuan-hsien).****Tai, Chuan-hsien (Tai, Chi-tao)**

government official, born in Szechwan, 1890; studied at Japanese Imperial Univ., Tokyo; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1924; president, National Sun Yat-sen Univ., 1926-30; president, Examination Yuan, since 1928; address, Examination Yuan, Chungking.

Tai, Hsu (Monk)

Buddhist leader, born in Chekiang, 1889; leader, Chinese Buddhist Mission to South Seas, 1941; now president, World Buddhist Institute and Chinese Buddhist Association; address, Han Tsang Yuan, Peipei, Chungking.

Tai, Kuai-sheng (prefers K. S. Tai)

government official, born in Fukien, 1890; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee; former special commissioner of Control Yuan for Kansu, Ningsia and Chinghai; now vice-minister, Board of Overseas Affairs, and member, Control Yuan; address, c/o Board of Overseas Affairs, Chungking.

Tai, K. S. (see Tai, Huai-sheng).**Tan, Ping-hsun**

engineer, government official, born in Shantung, 1907; graduate, National Peiping Univ., 1931; director, Lushan (Kiangsi) Administration, 1936-38; director, Kiangsi Highway Bureau, 1938-42; director, Stage Transportation Administration, Ministry of Communications, since 1942; address, Stage Transportation Administration, Chungking.

Tan, Tao

government official, born in Hupeh, 1881; LL.B. Central Univ., Tokyo; senior secretary, National Government, and secretary-general, preparatory committee, National Institute of History, since 1937; address, National Government, Chungking.

Tan, Wen-ping

government official, born in Jehol, 1894; graduate, Chihli Law College; member, People's Political Council; address, c/o Kia Shih Chang Post Office, Pahsien, Chungking.

Tang, Chi-ho (prefers Edgar C. Tang)

university president, born in Kiangsi, 1902; B.A. Boone College, 1922; B.J. and M.A. Missouri, 1927; M.A. (1929) and Ph.D. (1932), Harvard; president, Cheeloo University, since 1943; address, Cheeloo University, Chengtu.

Tang, Chi-yu

educator, government official; born in Kiangsu, 1894; B.Ag. Univ. of Nanking, 1920; M.A. Georgia, 1921; Ph.D. Cornell, 1924; professor, National Southeastern Univ., 1924-27; professor, National Sun Yat-sen Univ., 1927; professor, Central Political Institute, 1929-37; director, Kiangsi Reclamation Bureau, 1938-40; counsellor, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, since 1941; dean, School of Agriculture, Fuh Tan Univ., since 1941; author, *An Economic Study of Chinese Agriculture* (in English); address, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, Chungking.

Tang, Edgar C. (see Tang, Chi-ho).**Tang, En-po****Lieut.-General**

army officer, born in Chekiang; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; former instructor, Whampoa Military Academy; commander, 13th army; now commander-in-chief, 31st group army.

Tang, Sheng-chih**General**

army officer, born in Hunan, 1885; commander, 5th army, 1929; chairman, Military Advisory Council, 1932-34; inspector-general of military training, 1934; garrison commander of Nanking, 1937; now member, National Military Council; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1931; address, National Military Council, Chungking.

Tang, Shih-tsun**General**

army officer, born in Szechwan, 1886; commander 21st army, 1935; commander, 24th army corps, 1937; commander-in-chief, 23rd group army, since 1938; vice-commander-in-chief, 3rd War Area, since 1938.

Tang, Shou-chien

college president, born in Fukien, 1902; B.A. Morningside College, 1925; M.A.

Columbia, 1927; president, Fukien Provincial Teachers' College, since 1941; address, Nanping, Fukien.

Tang, Tao-yuan **General**
party leader, born in Hunan, 1889; elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1935; now member, Hunan Provincial Government.

Tang, Teh-cheng
journalist, native of Kwangtung; born in 1908; B.A. Yenching Univ., M.A. Missouri; Nanking correspondent, Associated Press, 1934-36; head, English department, Central News Agency, since 1935; address, Central News Agency, Chungking.

Tang, Teng-han
medical engineer, born in Fukien, 1900; D.Sc. Berlin, 1929; chief engineer, Central Pharmaceutical Industries, and British indemnity fund research lecturer, West China Union Univ., since 1939; address, P. O. Box 42, Chengtu.

Tang, Yi
police commissioner, born in Szechwan, 1902; graduate, Szechwan Law College; former police commissioner Chengtu; Chungking police commissioner since 1940; address, Chungking Police Bureau.

Tang Yueh
psychologist, born in Fukien, 1891; B.A. Cornell, 1917; Ph.D. Harvard, 1920; member, academic council, and research fellow, psychological research institute, Academia Sinica, since 1929; address, Psychological Research Institute, Kweilin.

Tao, Feng-shan
government official, born in Kiangsu, 1898; graduate, Chiao Tung Univ., Peiping, 1919; deputy director, 1939; acting director, 1941; director, since 1942; department of tele-communications, Ministry of Communications; and director, Chinese Electrical Engineering Society; address, Ministry of Communications, Chungking.

Tao, Heng-chih (see **Tao, Hsin-chih**).

Tao, Hsin-chih (prefers **Heng Chih Tao**)
educator, born in Anhwei, 1893; B.A. Univ. of Nanking, 1914; M.A. Illinois, 1915; Post Graduate School, Columbia, 1915-17; principal, Hsiao Chuang School, 1927-30; member, People's Political Council, 1938-42; principal, Yu Tsai School, and Hsiao Chuang Research Institute, since 1939; address, Yu Tsai School, Chungking.

Tao, Hsuan
woman leader, born in Chekiang, 1899; graduate, National Peiping Women's Normal College, 1922; member, Legislative Yuan, 1928-35; director girls' department, Kuomintang Youth Corps, 1940-41; member, People's Political Council, since 1938; address, 71, Chang Kia Hua Yuan, Chungking.

Tao, L. K. (see **Tao, Meng-ho**).

Tao, Lu-chien
government official, born in Chekiang, 1889; graduate, Peking Translation College; charge d'affaires, Chinese Legation in Mexico, 1918-21; foreign affairs commissioner for Honan, 1924; counsellor and director of general affairs, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1927-28; foreign affairs commissioner for Kwangtung, 1929; member, Legislative Yuan, 1933-35; administrative vice-minister and acting minister of interior, 1935; political vice-minister of interior, 1935-37; secretary-general and member, Hunan Provincial Government, 1937-38; civil affairs commissioner, 1938-42; member, Hunan Provincial Government, since 1937; address, Hunan Provincial Government, Changsha, Hunan.

Tao, Meng-ho (prefers **L. K. Tao**)
sociologist, professor, born in Hopei, 1888; B.Sc. London Univ., professor, National Peking Univ., 1914-27; dean, same institution, 1919; director, research institute of social sciences, Academia Sinica, since 1936; member, People's Political Council; since 1938; address, P. O. Box 1, Lichuang, Szechwan.

Tchang Si (see **Chang, Hsi**).

Tchang, Yitchou (see **Chang, Yi-chu**).

Tcheng, Soumay (see **Cheng, Yu-hsiu**).

Tchou, Venfour F. (see **Chu, Fu-ting**).

Teng, Chia-yen
party and government leader, born in Kwangsi, 1888; now member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, and state councillor, National Government.

Teng, Ching-yang
party leader, born in Kwangtung, 1888; graduate, Meiji Univ., Tokyo; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1929.

Teng, Chun-kao

government official, born in Chinghai, 1900; B.A. Stanford; M.A. and Ph.D. Chicago; dean, 1929; president, 1929-36; Kansu College; member, Control Yuan, since 1941; address, Control Yuan, Chungking.

Teng, Han-hsiang

government official, born in Kweichow, 1887; former secretary-general, Szechwan Provincial Government; now general manager, Szechwan-Sikang Development Corporation; address, Szechwan-Sikang Development Corporation, Chengtu.

Teng, Hsi-hou**General**

army officer, born in Szechwan, 1889; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; commander, 28th army, 1927; commander, 14th route army, 1928; commander, 4th army corps, 1937; commander-in-chief, 22nd group army, 1938; now military affairs commissioner of Szechwan and Sikang; address, Chengtu, Szechwan.

Teng, Kung-hsien

government official, born in Hunan, 1901; B.A. National Southeast Univ., 1925; M.A. Stanford, 1928; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1932; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Teng, Lung-kuang**Lieut.-General**

army officer, born in Kwangtung, 1895; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; commander-in-chief, 35th group army, since 1940; address, Military P. O. No. 18, Kwangtung.

Teng, Pao-shan**General**

military officer, born in Kansu, 1894; graduate, Ili (Sinkiang) Military School; commander, 7th division, 1924; commander, new 1st army, 1933; commander, 21st army corps, 1937; commander-in-chief, Shansi-Shensi-Suiyuan border area, since 1939; elected member, Central Executive Committee, of Kuomintang, 1939; address, Yulin, Shensi.

Ti, Yin

party leader, born in Kiangsu, 1896; research fellow, Lyons Univ.; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1936; deputy secretary-general, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1942; address, Central Kuomintang Hqrs., Chungking.

Tiao, Min-chien (prefers M. T. Z. Tyau)

journalist, government official; born in Kwangtung, 1888; B.A. St. John's

Univ.; LL.B. and LL.D. London; founder and editor, *Peking Leader*, 1917-20; director, information department, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1929-31; editor, *China Press Weekly*, 1935-37.

Tiao, Pei-jan

government official, born in Szechwan, 1902; B.A. National Southeast Univ., 1926; M.A. Illinois, 1933; director, finance bureau, Chungking Municipality, since 1939; address, Finance Bureau, Chungking.

Tiao, Tso-chien (prefers Philip K. C. Tyau)

diplomat, born in Kwangtung, 1880; B.A. St. John's Univ.; LL.B. and M.A. Cambridge; minister to Cuba, and Panama, 1921-26; managing director, *Peiping Leader*, 1928-33; consul-general at Singapore, 1933-35; foreign affairs commissioner, Kwangtung, 1936-38.

Tien, Chen-nan**Lieut.-General**

army officer, born in Honan, 1889; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1903; vice commander-in-chief, 2nd group army, since 1940.

Tien, Chung-chin

government official, professor; born in Kansu, 1899; M.A. (1927) and Ph.D. (1930), Illinois; professor, National Northeast Univ., 1930; member, Control Yuan, 1931; professor, National Central Univ. and Central Political Institute, 1931; education commissioner, Kansu, 1936; president, Kansu College, 1936; member, Control Yuan, since 1938; address, Control Yuan, Chungking.

Tien, Han

playwright, born in Hunan, 1898; graduate, Tokyo Normal College; author of a number of plays; now section chief, Cultural Work Committee, Political Training Board, National Military Council; address, 14, Tien Kuan Fu Street, Chungking.

Tien, Kun-shan

government official, born in Kansu, 1897; graduate, Chung Kuo Univ., Peiping; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935; now director, food bureau, Kansu.

Ting, Chao-wu

party leader, born in Fukien, 1885; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1931.

Ting, Chi-shih (prefers Kieh-shie Ding)

government official, born in Shantung, 1902; diploma-ingenieur, Technische

Hochschule Breslau, 1938; professor, National Tung Chih Univ., 1938-40; director of public works, Kunming Municipal Government, 1939-41; member, People's Political Council, since 1940; address, 60, You Lung Shan, Chungking.

Ting, Hsieh-lin

physicist, born in Kiangsi, 1892; M.S. Birmingham; director, research institute of physics, Academia Sinica, since 1928; address, Research Institute of Physics, Academia Sinica, Kweilin.

Ting, Shao-chi

government official, born in Hupeh, 1884; first secretary, Chinese embassy in Japan, 1931-33; councillor, same embassy, 1933-36; counsellor, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1936-42; advisor to same ministry since May, 1942; address, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Chungking.

Ting, Shu-peng

government official, born in Anhwei, 1900; member, Hopei Provincial Government, since 1938; address, Hopei Provincial Government, Loyang, Honan.

Ting, Wei-fen

party leader, born in Shantung, 1876; graduate, Meiji Univ., Tokyo; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1924; now member, standing committee, Kuomintang C.E.C.; address, Central Kuomintang Hqrs., Chungking.

Tong, Hollington K. (see Tung, Hsien-kuang).

Tsai, Chiao

physiologist, professor, born in Kwangtung, 1897; B.A. Illinois, 1922; Ph.D. Chicago, 1924; professor, National Central Univ., since 1937; appointed by Ministry of Education "Ministry-appointed Professor," 1942; author, *Physiology*; known for his research in carbohydrate metabolism and anti-hemolytic action of cholesterol, lecithin and serum; address, Medical College, National Central Univ., Chengtu.

Tsai, Kwei (Miss)

Y.W.C.A. worker, born in Chekiang 1902; B.A. Ginling College for Women, 1927; M.A. Columbia, 1936; secretary-general, National Committee, Y.W.C.A., since 1937; address, Y.W.C.A., San Sheng Chieh, Chengtu.

Tsai, Ting-kai

General

army officer, born in Kwangtung, 1890; former commander, 10th division; commander, 60th division; commander, 19th army; commander, 19th route army; now commander, 16th group army.

Tsang, Chi-fang

university president, born in Liaoning, 1894; LL.B. Chung Kuo Univ., 1920; studied at universities of Illinois and California, 1920-23; chancellor, National Northeast Univ., since 1937; address, National Northeast Univ., Santai, Szechwan.

Tsao, Ching-yuan

government official, born in Szechwan, 1891; former counsellor, Executive Yuan, now member and civil affairs commissioner, Kweichow Provincial Government.

Tsao, Chung-chih

government official, born in Shantung, 1904; graduate, Cheeloo Univ., former member and finance commissioner, Honan Provincial Government; now director, sugar monopoly bureau, Ministry of Finance; address, Sugar Monopoly Bureau, Chungking.

Tsao, Fu-lin,

army officer, born in Hopei, 1892; commander, 14th division, 1927-28; commander, 1st army corps, 1929; commander, 14th army, 1929-31; 29th division, 1931-37; 55th army, 1937; deputy-commander, 3rd group army, since 1939.

Tsao, Hao-sen

General

government official, born in Kiangsi, 1887; graduate, Japanese Staff College, 1924; chief of staff, 2nd group army of Nationalist Revolutionary Forces, 1927-28; director, army administration, Ministry of War, 1928-31; vice-minister of war, 1931-42; governor of Kiangsi, since 1942; address, Kiangsi Provincial Government, Kiangsi.

Tsao, Ku-ping

Lieut.-General

journalist, born in Shanghai, 1896; B.A. Berlin Univ., 1927; editor, 1927-31; special correspondent in U.S.S.R., 1931; news editor, 1931-35; Nanking correspondent, 1935-37; manager, Hankow Edition, 1937-38, of the *Ta Kung Pao*; now manager, *Ta Kung Pao*, Chungking. address, *Ta Kung Pao*, Chungking.

Tsen, J. K. (see Tseng, Chi-kuan).

Tseng, Chi-kuan (prefers J. K. Tsen)

college president, born in Szechwan, 1893; B.A. Kagosima School of Agriculture and Forestry, Japan, 1915; president, National Northwest Polytechnical School, since 1939; address, National Northwest Polytechnical School, Lanchow.

Tseng, Hsu-pai

publicity director, writer, journalist; born in Kiangsu, 1894; B.A. St. John's Univ., 1918; managing director and editor, *Ta Wan Pao*, (China Evening News) Shanghai, 1932-36; councillor, National Military Council, 1931-37; director, international department, Ministry of Information, since 1937; author, *ABC of English Literature*, *ABC of American Literature*, and several novels; address, Ministry of Information, Chungking.

Tseng, Kuang-ching

party and government official, born in Szechwan, 1899; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935; now director, Political training department, 8th war area headquarters.

Tseng, T. K. (see Tseng, Yung-fu).**Tseng, Yang-fu**

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1892; graduate, Peiyang and Pittsburgh Univ.; vice-minister of railways, 1935-36; mayor of Canton, 1936-37; director-general, Yunnan-Burma Railway Administration, since 1940; minister of communications, since 1942; director, National Highway Administration, since 1943; address, Ministry of Communications, Chungking.

Tseng, Yen

government official, born in Kwangsi, 1886; graduate, Central Univ., Japan; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1941; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Tseng, Yung-fu (prefers T. K. Tseng)

government official, born in Fukien 1882; studied at Peiyang Univ., King's College and Cambridge; minister to Norway and Sweden, 1926; vice-minister of railways, 1935-38; vice-minister of foreign affairs, 1938-41.

Tsien, Tai (see Chien, Tai).**Tsing, Li-pin (prefers King Li-pin)**

physician; born in Chekiang, 1895; licencie es sciences and docteur es sciences, 1920; docteur en medicine, 1921; director, National Research Institute of Medicine and Pharmacology, since 1942; address, National Research Institute of Medicine and Pharmacology, Kunming.

Tsou, Lin

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1888; graduate, Peking Law College;

vice-minister of finance, 1932-39; member and finance commissioner, Kwangtung Provincial Government, 1940-42; chairman, Foreign Trade Commission, since 1942; address, Foreign Trade Commission, Chungking.

Tsou, Lu

government and Kuomintang leader; born in Kwangtung, 1884; graduate, Waseda Univ., Tokyo; elected state councillor, National Government, 1932; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1926; chancellor, National Sun Yat-sen Univ., 1931-40; address, Central Kuomintang Hqrs., Chungking.

Tsou, Shan-chun

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1903; graduate, Waseda Univ., Tokyo; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1942; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Tsou, Shang-yu

diplomat, born in 1897; graduate, Commercial Institute of Russia, 1918; former consul-general at Novosibirsk, U. S. S. R.; director, west Asiatic affairs department, Ministry of Foreign Affairs; now minister to Turkey; address, Chinese Legation, Ankara, Turkey.

Tsou, Tso-hua**Lieut.-General**

army officer, government official, born in Kirin, 1892; graduate, Japanese Military Cadets' Academy; member, Peiping Military Council, 1933; principal, Artillery School, 1934-39; commander-in-chief of artillery, National Military Council, since 1940; chairman, Kirin Provincial Government, since 1940; address, 40, Fu Hsing Villa, South Bank, Chungking.

Tsu, Y. Y. (see Chu, Yu-yu).**Tsui, Kuang-hsiu**

party leader, born in Kwangtung, 1892; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1931.

Tsur, Y. T. (see Chou, I-chun).**Tu, Chung-yuan**

railway director, and engineer, born in Szechwan, 1890; graduate, Tangshan Engineering College, 1914; M. Eng. Cornell, 1922; deputy superintendent and chief engineer, Yunnan-Burma Railway Administration, since 1941; acting director, Canton-Hankow Railway Administration, since 1942; vice-president, Chinese Engineering Society; address, Canton-Hankow Railway Administration, Hengyang, Hunan.

Tu, Jen-chi

government official, born in Shansi, 1904; now member, Shansi Provincial Government; address, Shansi Provincial Government.

Tu, Yuen-ten (see **Tu, Yun-tang**).

Tu, Yun-tang (prefers **Tu, Yuen-ten**) diplomat, born in Hupeh, 1897; B.A. National Peking Univ.; M.A. and Ph.D. Illinois; former consul-general at Manila; director, treaty department, Ministry of Foreign Affairs; now minister to Panama, Costa Rica, and Honduras; address, Chinese Legation, Panama.

Tu, Yung

banker, industrialist, born in Shanghai, 1887; now chairman, board of directors, China Commercial Bank; address, China Commercial Bank, Chungking.

Tung, Chi-cheng

government official, born in Kirin, 1898; B.A. (1927) and LL.B. (1928), Missouri; dean, college of law, Kirin Provincial Univ., 1928-30; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1933; address, Legislative Yuan.

Tuan, Hsi-peng

government and party official, born in Kiangsi, 1896; B.A. National Peking Univ.; M.A. Columbia; vice-minister of education, 1932; now acting chairman, Kuomintang Central Training Committee; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1931; address, Central Training Committee, Chungking.

Tuan, Mao-lan

diplomatic official, born in Anhwei, 1899; B.A. New York Univ., 1923; M.A. (1924) and Ph.D. (1927), Columbia; professor, Nankai Univ., 1934-37; senior secretary, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1934-41; counsellor, Chinese Legation in Australia, and consul-general at Sydney, since 1941; address, Chinese Consulate-General, Sydney, Australia.

Tung, Hsien-kuang (prefers **Hollington K. Tong**)

journalist, publicity director, born in Chekiang, 1887; B.A. Missouri; Ph.D. (Hon.), Park College; editor and managing director, *China Press*, Shanghai, 1931-35; managing director, *China Times*, *Ta Wan Pao*, and *Shun Shih News Agency*, 1936; managing director, China Publishing Company, Shanghai, 1936; vice-minister of information, since 1938; authorized

biographer of *Chiang Kai-shek*, both in Chinese and English; address, Ministry of Information, Chungking.

Tung, Kuan-hsien

professor, born in Chahar, 1893; B.A. Waseda Univ., Tokyo, 1920; M.A. Columbia, 1923; studied at Berlin and London univ.; vice-minister of audit, 1930; professor and dean, department of economics, National Central Univ., 1933; member, Control Yuan, 1936; dean of faculty, National Central Univ., 1937-43; member, People's Political Council, since 1941; address, National Central Univ., Chungking.

Tung, Shih-chin

agricultural economist, born in Szechwan, 1900; M.S. and Ph.D. Cornell; former head, rural improvement department, China International Famine Relief Commission; professor and dean, college of agriculture, National Peiping Univ.; now director, Kiangsi Provincial Agricultural Institute; address, Kiangsi Provincial Agricultural Institute, Taiho, Kiangsi.

Tung, Tso-ping

archaeologist, born in Honan, 1895; graduate, Graduate School, National Peking Univ.; former professor, National Honan and Sun Yat-sen universities; now research fellow, Academia Sinica; address, P. O. Box 5, Nanchi, Szechwan.

Tyau, M. T. Z. (see **Tiao, Min-chien**).

Tyau, Phillip K. C. (see **Tiao, Tso-chien**).

Van, Tsing-kong (see **Fan, Cheng-kang**).

Wan, Fu-lin

General army officer, born in Kirin, 1880; former governor, Heilungkiang Province; commander, 53rd army; deputy-commander, 1st group army and 20th group army; commander, 26th army corps; commander, 20th group army; governor, Liaoning Province, since 1940; member, National Military Council, since 1942; address, 21, Foo Sheng Villa, South Bank, Chungking.

Wang, Cheng-ting (prefers **Chengting T. Wang**)

diplomat, born in Chekiang, 1882; B.A. Yale, 1910; acting minister of justice and commerce, 1912; vice-president of Senate, first Parliament of the Republic, 1913; general secretary, Y.M.C.A. of China, 1914; director-general, Shantung Rehabilitation Commission, 1922;

minister of foreign affairs, 1922; acting premier, 1922; minister of foreign affairs and minister of finance, 1926; director-general, Lunghai Railway, 1927; minister of foreign affairs, 1928-31; ambassador to United States, 1936-38; now reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee.

Wang, Chi-fu

government official, born in Yunan, 1895; former director, Yunnan Provincial Mint; director, general affairs department, Ministry of Interior; member, People's Political Council, since 1942; address, c/o People's Political Council, Chungking.

Wang, Chia-cheng

diplomatic official, born in Kirin, 1899; B.A. Kieo Univ., Tokyo; vice-minister of foreign affairs, 1930-32; delegate to League of Nations convention, 1931; member, People's Political Council, 1938-42; now advisor, Ministry of Foreign Affairs; address, 28, Fu Hsin Village Hwangchuehya, South Bank, Chungking.

Wang, Chia-chi

biologist, born in Kiangsu, 1899; B.S. National Southeast Univ., 1923; Ph.D. Pennsylvania, 1928; research professor, biological research institute, Science Society of China, 1929-34; director, zoological and botanical research institute, Academia Sinica, since 1934; address, Zoological and Botanical Research, Institute, Academia Sinica, Peipei, Szechwan.

Wang, Chin

professor, born in Chekiang, 1888; Ch.E. Lehigh Univ., 1915; M.S. Minnesota, 1936; dean, college of natural sciences, National Central Univ., 1926-27; dean, normal college, National Chekiang Univ., since 1937; address, National Chekiang Univ., Tsungyi, Kweichow.

Wang, Chin-chun

government official, born in Hopei, 1882; Ph. B. Yale, 1908; M.A. (1909) and Ph.D. (1911), Illinois; inventor of phonetic system for telegraphing Chinese characters; director, Chinese Government railway purchasing commission London, since 1931.

Wang, Ching-hsi (prefers Ging-hsi Wang)

psychologist, born in Shantung, 1897; LL.B. National Peking Univ., 1919; Ph.D. Johns Hopkins, 1923; director, psychological research institute, Academia Sinica, since 1934; address, Psychological Research Institute, Academia Sinica, Kweilin.

Wang, Ching-kuo **Lieut.-General**
army officer, born in Shansi, 1893; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1918; commander, 5th army, 1928; garrison commander of Suiyuan, 1929; commander, 70th division, and garrison commander of western Suiyuan, 1931; commander, 19th army, 1936.

Wang, Chuan-sheng

party leader, born in Fukien, 1888; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935.

Wang, Chung-hui

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1882; D.C.L. Yale, 1904; called to English Bar at Inner Temple, 1907; minister of justice, 1912; president, law codification commission, 1917; chief justice, Supreme Court, 1920; delegate to Washington Conference, 1921-22; minister of justice, 1922; premier, 1922; judge, Permanent Court of International Justice, The Hague, 1923-24; minister of education, 1926; minister of justice, 1927-28; president, Judicial Yuan, 1928-31; judge, Permanent Court of International Justice, The Hague, 1930-35; minister of foreign affairs, 1937-41; now secretary-general, National Supreme Defense Council; address, National Supreme Defense Council Chungking.

Wang, Chung-lien **Lieut.-General**

army officer, born in Kiangsu, 1901; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy, 1923; commander, 89th division, 1934; commander, 85th army, 1937; deputy commander, 31st group army, since 1940; commander, 2nd route assault army, Shantung-Kiangsu-Anhwei-Honan border area, since 1941, address, Taihu, Anhwei.

Wang, Chengting T. (see Wang, Cheng-ting).

Wang, Ging-hsi (see Wang, Ching-hsi).

Wang, Hsiao-lai

merchant, born in Chekiang, 1886; now chairman, Chamber of Commerce of Shanghai, and member, People's Political Council; address, c/o Bank of China, Chungking.

Wang, Hsien-chang

government official, born in Heilungkiang, 1876; graduate, Heilungkiang Law School, 1913; member, Control Yuan, since 1933; address, Control Yuan, Chungking.

Wang, Hsin-kung (prefers **Wang, Sing-kung**)

university president, born in Anhwei, 1888; studied in England, 1908-09; A.R.C.Sc. (Associated of Royal College of Science) and D.I.C. (Diploma of Imperial College); chancellor, National Wuhan Univ., since 1930; author, *Scientific Method and Introduction to Science*; address, National Wuhan Univ., Loshan, Szechwan.

Wang, Hua-cheng

government official, born in Kiangsu, 1903; B.A. Minnesota, 1924; Ph.D. Chicago, 1927; former professor of political science, National Tsing Hua Univ.; counsellor, Supreme National Defense Council, since 1939; director, treaty department, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, since 1942; address, Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Wang, Huai-min

government official, born in Shansi, 1892; LL.M. Northwestern Univ., U. S. A.; member and education commissioner, Shansi Provincial Government, since 1937.

Wang, I-han

government official, born in Fukien, 1896; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1941; address, Legislative Yuan.

Wang, K. Y. Tzu-kan (see **Wang, Kuang-yu**).

Wang, Kuan-ying

government official, born in Kiangsi, 1901; graduate, National Southeast Univ.; M.A. 1928; Ph.D. 1929; member, People's Political Council, since 1938; address, 249, Shensi Street, Chungking.

Wang, Kuang-yu (prefers **K. Y. Tzu-kan Wang**)

physician, born in Kiangsi, 1882; B.A. Oberlin; M.Sc. Chicago; M.D. St. Louis Univ.; former superintendent, Changsha Union Hospital; president, Kiangsi Provincial Medical College; president, Yale-in-China Medical College; now president, National Chung Cheng Medical College.

Wang, Kun-lun

government official, born in Kiangsi, 1902; graduate, National Peking Univ.; now reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee; and member, Legislative Yuan; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Wang, Kung-yu

government official, born in Kiangsu, 1903; graduate, Chung Kuo Univ., 1927; member and civil affairs commissioner, Kiangsu Provincial Government, since 1939.

Wang, Kuo-hua

government official, born in Shensi, 1900; B.A. Colorado College, 1924; M.A. Chicago, 1926; former director, stage transportation administration, Ministry of Communications; now counsellor, Ministry of Communications; address, Ministry of Communications, Chungking.

Wang, Kuo-ying

government official, born in Shansi, 1895; graduate, National Peking Univ., 1919; member and reconstruction commissioner, Suiyuan Provincial Government, 1940-42; member, Suiyuan Provincial Government, and director, Suiyuan commodity control bureau, since 1942; address, Suiyuan Provincial Government, Shenpa, Suiyuan.

Wang, Li-ming (Mrs. Herman C. E. Liu)

social worker, born in Anhwei, 1897; B.A. Northwestern Univ., U.S.A.; secretary-general, Women's Christian Temperance Union; and member, People's Political Council; address, Liu Chuang, Chialing Villa, Chungking.

Wang, Lu-i

Kuomintang and government official, born in Shensi, 1899; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935; now supervisory commissioner of Shansi and Shensi.

Wang, Lucy C. (see **Wang, Shih-ching**).

Wang, Mao-kung **Lieut.-General**

party leader, born in Hunan, 1890; graduate, Moscow Staff College; now reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee.

Wang, Ping

government official, born in Shansi, 1890; secretary-general, Suiyuan Provincial Government, 1928; secretary-general, Hopei Provincial Government, 1929; secretary-general, Shansi Provincial Government, 1931; member, Shansi Provincial Government, and finance commissioner, since 1933; and director, Shansi Provincial Land Tax Bureau, since 1941; address, Shansi Provincial Government.

Wang, Ping-chun

government official, born in Hopei, 1889; elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1935; now member, Control Yuan and National Relief Commission.

Wang, Po-chun

government official, university president; born in Kweichow, 1885; minister of communications, 1928-31; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1929; elected state councillor, National Government, 1932; president, Great China Univ., since 1928; address, Great China Univ., Kweiyang, Kweichow.

Wang, Pu-han

government official, born in Shensi, 1893; B.S. Meiji Univ.; now member, People's Political Council; address, People's Political Council, Chungking.

Wang Shih-ching (Miss, prefers Lucy C. Wang)

college president, born in Fukien, 1899; B.A. Iowa; M.A. Michigan; president, Hua Nan College for Women, since 1930; address, Hua Nan College for Women, Nanping, Fukien.

Wang, Shih-chieh

government official, born in Hupeh, 1891; B.Sc. London; docteur en droit, Paris, 1920; professor, National Peking Univ., 1921-27; director, law codification bureau, 1927-28; member, Permanent Court of Arbitration at The Hague, 1928; member, Legislative Yuan, 1928-30; president, National Wuhan Univ., 1929-34; minister of education, 1933-37; minister of information, 1934-42; now secretary-general, People's Political Council and Central Planning Board, and chief councillor, National Military Council; address, People's Political Council, Chungking.

Wang, Shih-ying

co-operative expert, born in Fukien, 1901; B.A. Fuh Tan Univ., professor 1936-38; dean, 1939; graduate school of co-operation, Central Political Institute, 1936-38; member, People's Political Council, since 1938; address, c/o Liming Book Company, South Hot Springs, Chungking.

Wang, Shu-chang**General**

army officer, born in Liaoning; graduate, Tokyo Military Cadets' Academy; governor, Hopei Province, 1931-32; garrison commander, Peiping and Tientsin, 1933-35; vice-president, Military Advisory Council, since 1937; address, Military Advisory Council, Chungking.

Wang, Shu-han

party and government leader, born in Liaoning, 1879; elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1935; now state councillor, National Government.

Wang, Shu-tseng

government official, born in Kiangsu, 1913; B.A. Hangchow Christian College, 1933; member, Control Yuan, since 1940; address, Control Yuan, Chungking.

Wang, Shun-chih

government official, born in Kwangsi, 1891; member and finance commissioner, Kwangsi Provincial Government, since 1942; address, Finance Department, Kweilin.

Wang, Sing-kung (see Wang, Hsin-kung).**Wang, Su-fang**

government official, born in Kweichow, 1900; graduate, National Southeast Univ., 1925; member and civil affairs commissioner, Kansu Provincial Government, since 1942; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935; address, Civil Affairs Department, Lanchow, Kansu.

Wang, Tsan-shu**General**

military officer, born in Szechwan, 1886; former commander, 44th army; governor Szechwan Province; now commander-in-chief, 29th group army.

Wang, Tsao-shih

professor, born in Kiangsi, 1903; B.A. (1927), M.A. (1928) and Ph.D. (1929), Wisconsin; professor in Shanghai universities, 1930-33; member, People's Political Council, 1938-42; publisher, *Frontline Daily*, since 1939; address, *Frontline Daily*, Kian, Kiangsi.

Wang, Tse-chung

party official, born in Shantung, 1901; graduate, National Peking Univ., elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1935; now secretary-general, Kuomintang C.S.C.; address, Central Kuomintang Hqs., Chungking.

Wang, Tse-ting

government official, born in Shansi, 1904; graduate, National Peking Univ., 1927; secretary, 1931-36; counsellor, 1937-42; member, since 1942; Suiyuan Provincial Government; address, 8, Lin Hua Street, Chungking.

Wang, Tseng-shan (prefers Jelaeddin Wanzinshan)

government official, born in Shantung, 1902; B.A. Yenching Univ., 1925; M.A.

Istanbul Univ., 1930; member Legislative Yuan, since 1932; address, Legislative Yuan.

Wang, Tso-jan

educator, born in Liaoning, 1894; B.A. Peiping Normal College, 1922; M.A. Columbia, 1926; acting chancellor, National Northeast Univ., 1932-37; member, People's Political Council, 1938-42; editor-in-chief, *Chinese Diplomatic Dictionary*, 1937.

Wang, Tso-hsiang

government official, born in Chekiang, 1897; graduate, Peiyang Medical College; studied public health at Johns Hopkins; former director, health bureau, Nanking; director, health bureau, Yunnan-Burma Highway; director, health bureau, Chungking, since 1943; address, Chungking Municipal Government, Chungking.

Wang, Tze-fu

government official, native of Hunan; B.A. Waseda Univ., and research student London Univ.; member and civil affairs commissioner, Kiangsi Provincial Government, since 1936; address, Taiho, Kiangsi.

Wang, Tung

government official, born in Kiangsu; 1889; attended Waseda Univ., Japan; professor, National Central Univ., 1927-37; dean, college of arts, National Central Univ., 1929-37; member, Control Yuan, since 1938; address, Control Yuan, Chungking.

Wang, Tung-yuan Lieut.-General

government official, born in Anhwei, 1898; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; commander, 73rd army, 1937; commander, 34th army corps, 1938; director of training, *San Min Cline I* Youth Corps, 1939; vice-minister, political training board, National Military Council, since 1940; dean, Central Training Corps, since 1940; address, P. O. Box 164, Chungking.

Wang, Yin-san

journalist, party worker, born in Honan, 1910; graduate, Chaoyang Univ., 1936; president, *Honan Kuomin Daily News*, since 1934; member, People's Political Council, since 1938; address, *Kuomin Daily News*, Lushan, Honan.

Wang, Yu-chang

born in Heilungkiang, 1889; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1918; member, People's Political Council.

Wang, Yu-chiao

government official, born in Honan, 1888; former member, People's Political Council, 1938; member, Honan Provincial Government, since 1940; address, Honan Provincial Government, Loyang, Honan.

Wang, Yu-hsiang

government official, born in Hunan, 1888; B.A. Chicago; M.A. New York; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1933; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Wang, Yun-sen

journalist, born in Hopei, 1901; editor-in-chief, *Ta Kung Pao*, author, *Sixty Years of Sino-Japanese Relations*, (seven volumes); address, Ta Kung Pao, Chungking.

Wang, Yun-wu

publisher, educator, writer, born in Kwangtung, 1887; now managing director and editor-in-chief, Commercial Press; editor-in-chief, *Wan Yu Wen Ku* (The Complete Library, consisting of thousands of volumes of standard works in all branches of knowledge, sufficient in itself to constitute a nucleus of a small-sized library); inventor of a system of Chinese lexicography known as the "four-corner numeral system"; address, Commercial Press, Chungking.

Wang, Yung-ping

government official, born in Shansi, 1882; educated in Japan; former minister of justice; vice-chairman, law research committee, Judicial Yuan; chairman, commission for the disciplinary punishment of public functionaries, Judicial Yuan, since 1938; address, Judicial Yuan, Chungking.

Wang, Yung-tsan

government official, born in Shantung, 1891; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1914; member, Chahar Provincial Government, since 1942; address, Chahar Provincial Government, Loyang.

Wanzinshan, Jelaledin (see Wang, Tseng-shang).

Wei, Francis Cho-min (see Wei, Tso-min).

Wei, Huai

government official, born in Fukien, 1882; member, Legislative Yuan, 1928-31; director, civil affairs department, National Government, since 1932; address, National Government, Chungking.

Wei, Li-huang

General
army officer, born in Anhwei, 1897; graduate, Staff College; former commander-in-chief, 14th group army; deputy commander, 2nd War Area; commander, 1st War Area; now member, National Military Council; address, National Military Council, Chungking.

Wei, Tao-ming

diplomat, born in Kiangsu, 1898; docteur en droit, Paris; minister of justice, 1928-29; mayor of Nanking, 1930-31; ambassador to U. S. A., since 1942; address, Chinese Embassy, Washington, D.C.

Wei, Ting-sheng

economist, born in Hupeh, 1891; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1928; professor of economics, National Fuh Tan Univ., since 1940; address Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Wei, Tso-min (prefers Francis Chomin Wei)

college president, born in Kwangtung, 1889; B.A. (1911) and M.A. (1915), Boone Univ.; M.A. Harvard, 1919; Hon. D.C.L. Univ. of the South, U. S. A., 1927; Ph.D. London, 1929; president, Hua Chung College, since 1929; lecturer at Yale, Harvard, Chicago and Columbia, 1934-35; visiting professor of ethics, Yale, 1937-38; member, People's Political Council, 1938-42; address, Hua Chung College, Tali, Yunnan.

Wei, Yi-fu

government official, born in Chekiang, 1887; M.E. Cornell; former professor, Chiao Tung and Railway Univ.; chairman, Railway Technical Committee, president, Eurasia Aviation Company, vice-president, China National Aviation Corporation, superintendent, Peiping-Suiyuan Railway, Peiping-Hankow Railway, superintendent, Post Office; chief technical supervisor, Ministry of Communications, since 1927; address, Ministry of Communications, Chungking.

Wei, Yung-chen

government official, born in Kwangsi, 1906; graduate, Moscow Sun Yat-sen Univ. and Berlin Univ.; member and civil affairs commissioner, Anhwei Provincial Government, since 1940; address, Anhwei Provincial Government, Lihwang, Anhwei.

Wen, Chun

government official, born in Kiangsi, 1885; graduate, Waseda Univ., Tokyo; member and finance commissioner,

Kiangsi Provincial Government, since 1932; address, Department of Finance, Taiho, Kiangs.

Wen, Chun-tien

government official, born in Hupeh, 1910; graduate, National Southeast Univ., 1926, and Nanking School of Fine Arts, 1923; director, department of rites and customs, Ministry of Interior, since 1938; address, Ministry of Interior, Chungking.

Wen, Yi-yu

government official, born in Hupeh, 1900; graduate, National Wuchang Commercial College; elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1935; now director-general of accounting, National Government; address, Directorate of Accounting, National Government, Chungking.

Wen, Yuan-ning

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1900; B.A. M.A. LL.B.; studied at Univ. of London, 1916-18; graduate, Cambridge, 1922; editor-in-chief, *Tien Hsia Monthly*, (English), 1935-41; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1936; representative in India, Ministry of Information, 1942; author, *Imperfect Understanding*, 1935; address, Ministry of Information, Chungking.

Wong, Wen-hao

government official, geologist, born in Chekiang, 1889; D.Sc. Louvain Univ.; Hon. LL.D. Univ. of British Columbia, Canada; Hon. D. Eng. Berlin Engineering College; director, National Geological Survey of China, since 1922; acting president, National Tsing Hua Univ., 1931; general manager, Chung Fu Mining Co., Honan, 1934; secretary-general, Executive Yuan, 1935-36; secretary-general, Chinese special delegation to Coronation of King George VI, 1937; minister of 3rd Board, National Military Council, 1937; minister of economic affairs, since 1938; concurrently chairman, National Resources Commission; president, Chinese Engineering Society, since 1941; author, *Mineral Resources of China, Earthquake Regions in China, and Mountain Ranges of China*; address, Ministry of Economic Affairs, Chungking.

Wu, Chaucer H. (see Wu, Tzeh-hsiang).**Wu, Chi-chang**

professor, born in Chekiang, 1904; professor and dean, department of history,

National Wuhan Univ., since 1940; advisor, preparatory committee, National Archives; address, National Wuhan Univ., Loshan, Szechwan.

Wu, Chi Moy (see **Wu, Chih-mei**).

Wu, Chi-wel **Lieut.-General**
army officer, born in Kwangtung, 1888; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; former commander-in-chief, 9th group army, pacification commissioner of Kwangtung-Kiangsi-Fukien border regions, deputy commander-in-chief of 9th War Area, 1939; now deputy commander-in-chief, 6th War Area, and Upper Yangtze River Defense.

Wu, Chih-mei (prefers **Wu Chi Moy**)
woman physician, party worker, born in Kwangtung, 1897; graduate, Canton Medical College, 1917; post-graduate work in hygiene, Chicago, 1934; member, People's Political Council, since 1939; address, Chinese Girls' Vocational School, Haitangchi, South Bank, Chungking.

Wu, Chin-hsiung (prefers **John C. H. Wu**)
government official, born in Chekiang, 1899; LL.B. Soochow Univ.; Ph.D. Michigan, 1921; research fellow, law college, Univ. of Paris, 1921-22; Univ. of Berlin, 1922-23; professor, Soochow Univ., 1924-27; head, comparative law college, Soochow Univ., 1927-38; now member, Legislative Yuan; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Wu, Ching-chao
government official, born in Anhwei, 1901; B.A. Minnesota; M.A. (1925) and Ph.D. (1928), Chicago; professor, Univ. of Nanking, 1928-31; professor, National Tsing Hua Univ., 1931-35; senior secretary, Executive Yuan, 1937; senior secretary, Ministry of Economic Affairs, since 1938; address, Ministry of Economic Affairs, Chungking.

Wu, Ching-heng
Kuomintang leader, born in Kiangsu, 1864; elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1924; address, Central Kuomintang Hqrs., Chungking.

Wu, Chun-sheng (prefers **Ou Tsuin-chen**)
government official, born in Kiangsu, 1901; B.A. National Southeast Univ., 1925; Litt.D. Paris, 1931; director, department of higher education, Ministry

of Education, since 1938; address, Ministry of Education, Chungking.

Wu, Chung-hsin **General**
government official, born in Anhwei, 1887; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; governor, Anhwei Province, 1929; governor, Kweichow Province, 1935-37; chairman, Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission, since 1938; address, Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission, Chungking.

Wu, D. C. (see **Wu, Ting-chang**).

Wu, Han-tao
(prefers **Herbert H. T. Wu**)
government official, born in Kirin, 1896; LL.B. Tokyo Imperial Univ., 1924; Ph.D. Illinois, 1930; member, Control Yuan, since 1933; concurrently chairman, 1st inspection corps of war areas of the Control Yuan; address, Control Yuan, Chungking.

Wu, Herbert H. T. (see **Wu, Han-tao**).

Wu, Hua-fn
(prefers **William H. F. Woo**)
government official, born in Shanghai, 1905; B.S. Fuh Tan Univ., 1925; M.S. Wisconsin, 1929; C.E. Wisconsin, 1931; engineer, Wisconsin Highway Administration, 1929-32; director and chief engineer, Fukien Provincial Highway Administration, 1935-38; director, public works bureau, Chungking Municipality, since 1938; address, Public Works Bureau, Chungking.

Wu, Huan-chang
government official, born in Heilungkiang, 1901; graduate, College of Law, Peiping, 1927; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1934; address, 78, Chingtang Chieh, Chungking.

Wu, I-feng
party leader, born in Chekiang, 1892; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935; now chairman, Chekiang Kuomintang Hqrs.

Wu, John C. H. (see **Wu, Chin-hsiung**).

Wu, Kuo-cheng
government official, born in Hupeh; graduate, Tsing Hua College, 1921; B.A. Grinnell College, Iowa, 1923; M.A. (1924) and Ph.D. (1926), Princeton; finance commissioner, Hupeh Provincial Government, 1931-32; mayor of Hankow, 1932-38; mayor of Chungking, 1939-42; political vice-minister of foreign affairs, since 1942; address, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Chungking.

Wu, Lei-chuan

retired university chancellor, born in Chekiang, 1870; *Hanlin* scholar in Manchu dynasty; vice-minister of education, 1928-29; chancellor, Yenching Univ., 1926-33.

Wu, Nai-hsien

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1899; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy; former garrison commander of Kukong, and peace preservation commander of Kwangtung; member, Kwangtung Provincial Government, since 1941; address, Kwangtung Provincial Government, Kukong, Kwangtung.

Wu, Nan-hsuan

university president, born in Kiangsu, 1895; B.A. (1922), M.A. (1923), D.Ed. (1927) California; president, National Fuh Tan Univ., 1942-43; president National Ying Shih Univ., since 1943.

Wu, P. N. (see Wu, Yun-chu).**Wu, Pao-feng**

university president, broadcasting director; born in Kiangsu 1900; M.S. Michigan; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935; now chancellor, National Chiaotung Univ., and director, Central Broadcasting Administration; address, National Chiaotung Univ., Chungking.

Wu, Shang-yin

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1892; studied at Oregon State College; director general of posts and navigation, ministry of communications, 1927-28; member and chairman, land law drafting committee, Legislative Yuan, 1929-41; vice-minister of finance, 1931-32; vice-minister of interior, 1932; secretary-general, Legislative Yuan, since 1939; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Wu, Ssu-yu**Lieut.-General**

army officer, born in Chekiang, 1886; graduate, Japanese Military Cadets' Academy; former mayor of Tsingtao; police commissioner, Nanking; now director, personnel department, National Military Council; address, National Military Council, Chungking.

Wu, Ta-chun

government official, born in Fukien, 1903; B.S. M.B.A. Pennsylvania; director-general of statistics, National Government, since 1932; address, National Government, Chungking.

Wu, Tieh-chen**General****(prefers Wu, Te-chen)**

government official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1888; commander, Kwangtung Revolutionary Army, 1920; commander, gendarmes of Kwangtung, and police commissioner of Canton, 1923; commander, 17th division, 1926; reconstruction commissioner, Kwangtung, 1928; member, Legislative Yuan, 1929-1932; mayor of Shanghai, 1932-37; garrison commander of Shanghai and Woosung, 1932-37; governor, Kwangtung Province, 1937-38; minister, Kuomintang Board of Overseas Affairs, 1939; now member and secretary-general, Central Executive Committee of Kuomintang; address, Central Executive Committee of Kuomintang, Chungking.

Wu, Te-chen (see Wu, Tieh-chen).**Wu, Ting-chang (prefers D. C. Wu)**

government official, banker, born in Chekiang, 1884; graduate, Japanese Commercial College, 1909; chairman, Banking Syndicate of Yen Yeh, Kincheng, Continental, and China and South Sea Banks, 1922-35; president, *Ta Kung Pao*, 1926-39; minister of industry, 1935-37; minister of 4th Board, National Military Council, 1937; chairman, Kweichow Provincial Government, since 1937; deputy pacification commissioner of Yunnan and Kweichow, since 1939; address, Kweichow Provincial Government, Kweichow, Kweichow.

Wu, Tseh-hsiang (prefers Chaucer H. Wu)

diplomatic official, born in Szechwan, 1898; studied at Tsing Hua and London Univ.; foreign affairs commissioner for Szechwan, 1936-40; secretary-general, Chungking Municipal Government, 1940-42; foreign affairs commissioner for Sinkiang, since 1942; address, Office of Foreign Affairs Commissioner, Tihwa, Sinkiang.

Wu, William H. F. (see Wu, Hua-fu).**Wu, Yi-fang (Miss)**

college president, born in Hupeh, 1893; B.A. Ginling College for Women; M.A. and Ph.D. Michigan; chairman, National Christian Council, since 1933; Chinese delegate, Institute of Pacific Relations, 1929 and 1933; and to International Congress of Women, Chicago, 1933; president, Ginling College for Women, since 1928; member, People's Political Council, since 1938; member of presidium, P.P.C., since 1940; address, Ginling College for Women, Chengtu.

Wu, Yu-jui **Lieut.-General**
government official, born in Kiangsi, 1884; graduate, Japanese Military Cadets' Academy, 1911; former mayor of Nanchang; senior staff officer, National Military Council, since 1939; member, People's Political Council, since 1942; address, 162, Huichifang, Kwangseh, Kiangsi.

Wu, Yun-chu (prefers **P. N. Woo**)
industrialist, born in Kiangsu, 1891; former general manager, Tien Chu Seasonal Powder Factory; now general manager, Tien Yuan Electrical Plant, and member, National Resources Commission; address, Tien Yuan Electrical Plant, Chungking.

Wu, Yun-peng
government official, born in Right Aokhan Banner, Joude League, northern Jehol, 1904; graduate, National Peking Univ., 1925; lecturer, Frontier Research Institute, General Staff, 1933; now resident representative of Mongolia in Chungking, and member, Legislative Yuan; address, Legislative Yuan.

Yang, Ai-yuen **General**
army commander, born in Shansi, 1890; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1931; former governor of Chahar; now vice commander-in-chief, 2nd war area.

Yang, Chau (see **Yang, Tuan-lu**).

Yang, Chieh **General**
military officer, diplomat; born in Yunnan, 1891; graduate, Japanese Staff College, 1924; former member, National Military Council; president, Central Military Academy; president, Gendarmes School; president, Staff College; Deputy-Chief of Staff; chief, Military Mission to Europe; chief, Military Mission to U. S. S. R.; ambassador to U. S. S. R.; now member, Central Executive Committee, Kuomintang; address, 27, Tsaozewang, Chungking.

Yang, Chang-hsun
engineer, government official born in Hunan, 1896; graduate, National Tsing Hua Univ., 1917; and M.I.T. 1920; former director, Pieping-Hankow, Tientsin-Pukow, Lunghai, Taoching railway administrations; director, department of traffic, Ministry of Communications, since 1938; address, Ministry of Communications, Chungking.

Yang, Cho-an (prefers **Yang, Tsongan**)
government official, born in Fukien, 1899; graduate, Peking French College; now member and reconstruction commissioner, Kwangsi Provincial Government; address, Kiangsi Provincial Government, Taiho.

Yang, Chun-mai
government official, born in Shantung, 1901; graduate, Takushima Normal College, 1924; director, civil affairs department, Ministry of Interiors; since 1942; address, Ministry of Interiors, Chungking.

Yang, Chung-chien
paleontologist, born in Shensi, 1897; graduate, National Peking Univ., 1923; Ph.D. Munich, 1927; expert, National Geological Survey of China, since 1928; author, *A Complete Osteology of Lufengosaurus Hueneiyoung*, a new specimen discovered by the author at Lufeng, Yunan, 1941; address, National Geological Survey of China, Peipei, Szechwan.

Yang, Hsi-chi
party leader, born in Hunan, 1888; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1935.

Yang, Hsuan-chen **Vice-Admiral**
naval officer, born in Hunan, 1889; graduate, Tokyo Naval Gunnery School and Tokyo Torpedo School; now director, 2nd department, Military Operations Board, National Military Council; address, Military Operations Board, Chungking.

Yang, Hu **Lieut.-General**
army officer, born in Anhwei, 1898; garrison commander, Shanghai and Woosung area, 1932-37; elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1931; president, Chinese Seamen's Union.

Yang, Hu-cheng **General**
retired army officer, born in Shensi, 1892; former military affairs commissioner, Shensi; elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1935.

Yang, Ju-mei (prefers **Young, Yu-mei**)
government official, born in Hupeh; graduate, Tokyo Commercial College, Japan; director-general of budgets, since 1931; address, National Government, Chungking.

Yang, Konta (see **Yang, Kung-ta**).

Yang, Kung-ta (prefers **Yang, Konta**) party worker, professor, born in Szechwan, 1907; graduate, Paris Univ.; dean, school of jurisprudence, National Central Univ., 1932; dean of faculty, National Chinan Univ., 1935; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1932; chief secretary, Ministry of Education, 1932-33; secretary, Central Kuomintang Hqrs., 1938-42; chairman, Chungking Kuomintang Hqrs., since 1942; address, Municipal Kuomintang Headquarters, Chungking.

Yang, Liang-kung government official, born in Anhwei, 1896; B.A. National Peking Univ., 1920; M.A. Stanford, 1926; Ph.D. New York, 1927; member, Control Yuan, 1933-38; supervisory commissioner, Anhwei-Kiangsi area, Control Yuan, since 1938; address, Supervisory Commissioner's Office, Taiho, Kiangsi.

Yang, Mo-shih journalist, born in Hopei, 1908; Ph.D. (1929) and M.Th. (1933), Collegio de Propaganda Fide, Rome; managing director, *Yi Shih Pao* (Catholic Daily), since 1939; address, *Yi Shih Pao*, Chungking.

Yang, Sen **General** army officer, born in Szechwan, 1887; former commander, 20th army, Szechwan-Shensi Border Defense Army; and field-commander, 4th route army; vice commander-in-chief, 9th War Area, since 1937.

Yang, Tso-ngan (see **Yang, Cho-an**).

Yang, Tuan-lu (prefers **Chau Yang**) professor, born in Hunan, 1885; studied in Japan, 1906-11; London School of Economics, 1913-20; director, research institute of social sciences, Academia Sinica, 1928-29; professor, National Wuhan Univ., since 1930; member, People's Political Council, since 1937; address, National Wuhan Univ., Loshan, Szechwan.

Yang, Ying-nan government official, born in Yunan, 1887; graduate, Peking Law College, 1916; member, People's Political Council, since 1942; address, 10, Ta Liu Shu Lane, Wei Yuan Street, Kunming, Yunnan.

Yang, Yu-chun government official, born in Hunan, 1901; graduate, Fuh Tan Univ.; member, Legislative Yuan, 1935; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Yang, Yun-chu government official, born in Hopei, 1900; LL.B. Tokyo Imperial Univ.; professor, National Peiping Univ., 1929-30; consul-general, Yokohama, 1936-37; first secretary, Chinese Embassy in Tokyo, 1936-37; charge d'affaires, Chinese Embassy, Tokyo, 1938; director, asiatic affairs department, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1938-40; director, east asiatic affairs department, same ministry, since 1940; address, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Chungking.

Yang, Yung-ching university president, born in Chekiang, 1891; M.A. and LL.B. George Washington; Hon. LL.D. Southern Univ., U.S.A.; president, Soochow Univ., since 1927.

Yang, Yung-nien health expert, government official, born in Hopei, 1901; B.S. Manchurian medical College, 1921; M.D. Kexo Medical College, 1931; director, Northwest Epidemic Prevention Bureau, since 1938; Northwest Health Commissioner, since 1942; address, Siao Si Hu, Lanchow, Kansu

Yao, Ching-tao government official, born in Mongolia, 1887; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935; now member, Control Yuan; address, Control Yuan, Chungking.

Yao, Chung **Lieut.-General** army officer, born in Chekiang, 1890; graduate, Staff College; commander, 1st garrison division, 1927; chief police bureau, Nanking, 1930; acting director, main office, National Military Council, 1937; deputy-director, main office, National Military Council, since 1939; address, National Military Council, Chungking.

Yao, Ta-hai government official, born in Shansi, 1897; B.S. National Peking Univ.; elected member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, 1935; now member and finance commissioner, Chahar Provincial Government.

Yeh, Chi-sun physicist, born in Shanghai, 1898; B.A. Chicago, 1920; Ph.D. Harvard, 1923; professor, National Southeast Univ., Nanking, 1924-25; professor, National Tsing Hua Univ., 1925-41; councillor, Academia Sinica, 1935-40; now secretary-general, Academia Sinica; address, Academia Sinica, Chungking.

Yeh, Chu-tsang

government official, born in Kiangsu, 1883; minister of information, 1928-29; 1935, 1939; governor, Kiangsu Province, 1929-30; secretary-general, Central Executive Committee of Kuomintang, 1939; now vice-president, Legislative Yuan; member, Standing Committee, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Yeh, Kun-chao (prefers George Yeh)

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1904; B.A. Amherst College; M.A. Harvard; research fellow, Cambridge; director of London office, Ministry of Information, since 1942.

Yeh, Siu-feng

government official, born in Kiangsu, 1899; M.A. Pittsburgh; elected member of Central Executive Committee, 1935; address, 282, Kuo Fu Road, Chungking.

Yeh, So-chung

publisher, born in Chekiang, 1902; B.A. Peking Univ., 1925; member, Chekiang Provincial Government, and education commissioner, 1933; secretary, secretariat, National Military Council, 1937-38; member, People's Political Council, since 1940; address, Chengchung Book Company, Chungking.

Yen Chi-tsu (prefers Ny Tsi-ze)

physicist, born in Chekiang, 1900; B.S. National Southeast Univ., 1923; licencié es-sciences, Paris; 1925; docteur es-sciences, 1927; director, research institute of physics, National Academy of Peiping, since 1930; address, National Academy of Peiping, Kunming.

Yen, Chia-kan (prefers K. K. Nylien)

government official, born in Kiangsu, 1905; B.S. St. John's Univ., 1926; member and finance commissioner, Fukien Provincial Government, since 1939; director, Fukien Land Tax Bureau, since 1941; general-manager, Fukien Provincial Bank, since 1942; address, Fukien Provincial Government, Yungan, Fukien.

Yen, Ching-ching

health expert, government official, born in Chekiang, 1906; B.S. Yenching Univ., 1928; M.D. P.U.M.C.; M.D. New York, 1932; M.P.H. Harvard, 1936; professor, College of Medicine, National Peiping Univ.; director, department of health

services, National Health Administration, since 1939; address, National Health Administration, Chungking.

Yen, Chuang

government official, born in Shensi, 1887; B.S. and E.M., Michigan, 1917; member, Control Yuan, since 1932; supervisory commissioner for Kansu, Ningsia and Chinghai, Control Yuan, 1938-40; address, c/o Control Yuan, Chungking.

Yen, Fu-ching

health director, born in Shanghai, 1882; M.D. Yale; D.T.M. Liverpool; C.P.H. Harvard; dean, college of medicine, National Central Univ. in Shanghai, and superintendent, Chinese Red Cross Hospital, Shanghai, 1928-38; director, National Health Administration, 1938-41,

Yen, Hsi-shan

General

military officer, born in Shansi, 1883; graduate, Japanese Military Cadets' Academy; governor of Shansi, 1912-27; commander-in-chief, 3rd group army, 1928; garrison commander of Peiping and Tientsin, 1928; pacification commissioner of Shansi and Suiyuan, 1932; now commander-in-chief, 2nd War Area.

Yen, Hui-ching (prefers W. W. Yen)

diplomat, born in Shanghai, 1877; B.A. Virginia, 1900; Dr. Litt. Peking, 1906; former minister to U.S.A., Germany, Sweden, and Denmark; minister of foreign affairs; premier; chairman, commission for readjustment of finance; minister of agriculture and commerce; minister of interior; ambassador to U.S.S.R.; represented China at a number of international conferences and League of Nations meetings.

Yen, James Y. C. (see Yen, Yang-chu).

Yen, Kuo-fu

government official, born in Shantung, 1901; LL.B. National Peking Univ., 1925; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1942; address, Legislative Yuan, Chungking.

Yen, Li-san

government official, born in Hupeh, 1891; former member and civil affairs commissioner, Hupeh Provincial Government; acting governor of Hupeh; now member, People's Political Council.

Yen, W. W. (see Yen, Hui-ching).

Yen, Wei

government official, born in Suiyuan, 1896; member, Suiyuan Provincial Government, since 1942.

Yen, Yang-chu (prefers James Y. C. Yen)

social worker, educator; born in Szechwan, 1893; B.A. Yale, 1918; M.A. Princeton, 1920; started mass education work in Chinese Labor Corps in France during 1st World War; president, Hopei Provincial Institute of Political and Social Reconstruction, 1934; director, Hunan Provincial School of Public Administration, 1938; now general director, National Association of Mass Education Movement; president, National College of Rural Reconstruction; member, People's Political Council; chairman, National Association for Rural Reconstruction; author, *The Tinghsien Movement in Rural Reconstruction*, 1934; address, National Association of Mass Education Movement, Chungking.

Yin, Ching-jang

journalist, born at Yungsin, Kiangsi, 1900; graduate, Japan Univ., 1935; managing director, *East Kiangsi Kuo Min Jih Pao*, since 1935; member, People's Political Council; address, Post Office, Yungsin, Kiangsi.

Yin, Ernest R. (see Yin, Jen-hien).**Yin, Jen-hien (prefers Ernest R. Yin)**

government official, born in 1890; B.A. Harvard, 1917; finance commissioner, Honan Provincial Government, 1934; finance commissioner, Hunan Provincial Government, 1937; director, loans department, Ministry of Finance, 1940-42; director, bureau for the control of cotton, cotton yarn and piecegoods, since 1943; address, Ministry of Finance.

Yin, Pao-yu

I.P.C. worker, born in Shantung, 1908; B.A. Univ. of Shanghai 1930; Ph.D. Johns Hopkins, 1935; acting director, China Branch, International Peace Campaign and Free World Association, since 1940; address, China Branch, International Peace Campaign, Chungking.

Yin, Tsan-hsun

geologist, born in Hopei, 1902; licencié es sciences (1928) and docteur es sciences (1931), Lyons; expert, National Geological Survey of China, since 1931; director, Kiangsi Geological Survey, 1937-38; deputy director, National Geological Survey of China, since 1940; address,

National Geological Survey of China, Chungking.

Ying, Yao-wu

government official, born in Hopei, 1903; member, Hopei Provincial Government, 1940; address, Hopei Provincial Government Hqrs., Loyang, Honan.

Young, Yu-mei (see Yang Ju-mei).**Yu, C. C. (see Yu, Lan-chiu).****Yu, Chi-chuan**

government official, born in Hunan, 1895; B.C.E. Illinois, 1920; member and concurrently reconstruction commissioner, Hunan Provincial Government, since 1933; address, Hunan Provincial Government, Leiyang, Hunan.

Yu, Chi-shih**Lieut.-General**

army officer, born in Chekiang, 1903; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy; garrison commander, Nanking, 1930; commissioner of public safety, Chekiang, since 1933.

Yu, Ching-sung

astronomist, born in Fukien, 1897; C.E. Lehigh; M.S. Pittsburgh; Ph.D. California; fellow, Royal Astronomical Society; director, astronomical research institute, Academia Sinica, since 1929; address, c/o Academia Sinica, Chungking.

Yu, Ching-tang

government official, born in Kiangsi, 1897; M.A. Iowa; now vice-minister of education; address, Ministry of Education, Chungking.

Yu, Chun-hsien

government official, born in Kwangtung, 1903; graduate, National Sun Yat-sen Univ.; elected reserve member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935; now member of standing committee, and director of overseas education, Overseas Affairs Commission; address, Overseas Affairs Commission, Chungking.

Yu, Han-mou**General**

army officer, born at Kaoyao, Kwangtung, in 1895; commander, 1st Kwangtung army 1935; pacification commissioner of Kwangtung, 1936; now commander-in-chief, 4th War Area.

Yu, Fei-peng**General**

army officer, born in Chekiang, 1889; graduate, Quartermasters' School; former minister of communications; now minister, transport and supplies board,

National Military Council; elected member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1935; address, Transport and Supplies Board, Chungking.

Yu, Hsia-ching (prefers **Yu Ya-ching**) banker, merchant, born in Chekiang, 1865; managing director, San Peh Steam Navigation Company.

Yu, Hsin-ching government official, born in Anhwei, graduate, Columbia; member, standing committee, National Relief Commission, since 1941; address, National Relief Commission, Chungking.

Yu, Hsueh-chung **General** army officer, born in Shantung, 1889; commander, 20th army, 1928; garrison commander, Peiping and Tientsin area, 1930-31; governor, Hopei Province, 1932-35; commander, 51st army, 1932-37; commander, Szechwan-Shensi-Kansu border area, 1935-36; governor, Kansu Province, 1935-36; pacification commissioner of Kiangsu, 1937; now commander-in-chief, Kiangsu-Shantung War Area.

Yu, Hung-chun (prefers **O. K. Yui**) government official, born in Kwangtung, 1896; secretary-general, 1930-37, mayor, 1937, Greater Shanghai; deputy director, Central Trust, 1937-41; political vice-minister of finance, since 1941; address, Ministry of Finance, Chungking.

Yu, Lan-chiu (prefers **C. C. Yu**) educator, born in Hunan, 1897; B.A. Illinois, 1921; president, Hunan Provincial Commercial School, since 1941; address, Hunan Provincial Commercial School, Nanyo, Hunan.

Yu, Ping, Bishop (prefers **Paul Yupin**) Catholic leader, born in Heilungkiang, 1901; Ph.D. St. Thomas' Academy, Rome, 1926; ordained priest in St. John's Basilica, 1928; D.D. Univ. of Propaganda, 1929; sent to Abyssinia in 1929 as member of Pontifical Mission; received D.Sc. from Univ. of Italy, 1933; inspector of Catholic schools in China, 1933-36; appointed bishop of Sozusea, Palestine, and vicar apostolic of Nanking, 1936; member, People's Political Council, since 1938.

Yu, Shang-yuan (prefers **Yui, Shang-yuen**) college president, playwright, born in Hupeh, 1897; B.A. National Peking

Univ., 1921; studied dramatic art in Carnegie Institute of Technology and in Columbia, 1923-25; president, National Academy of Dramatic Arts, since 1935; address, National Academy of Dramatic Arts, Kiangan, Szechwan.

Yu, Sung-yun (prefers **C. Y. Yue**) physician, government official, born in Chekiang, 1898; graduate, National Tung Chi Univ.; M.D. Hamburg, 1936; professor, Kiangsu Medical College; president, Kiangsu High Midwifery School; director, department of medical administration, National Health Administration, since 1940; address, National Health Administration, Chungking.

Yu, Ta-fu (prefers **Yue Daff**) novelist, born in Cheking, 1897; graduate, Tokyo Imperial Univ.; writer of many widely read short stories and novels.

Yu, Tsuen-chi (prefers **Tsunechi Yu**) consular official, born in Hopei, 1899; B.S. and Ph.B. Denison; M.S. and D.Sc. New York; B.A. M.A. and Ph.D. Columbia; consul-general, New York, since 1935; address, Chinese Consulate-General, New York.

Yu, Tsunechi (see **Yu, Tsuen-chi**).

Yu, Ya-ching (see **Yu, Hsia-ching**).

Yu, Yu-jen government official, born in Shensi, 1878; edited *National Herald*, *Min Hu Pao*, *Min Yu Pao*, and *Min Li Pao* successively in Shanghai to propagate revolutionary sentiments; minister of communications, 1911; now president, Control Yuan; member, standing committee, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee; address, Control Yuan, Chungking.

Yuan, Chao-chang **Lieut.-General** army officer, born in Yunnan, 1890; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1908; and Staff College, 1913; commander, 55th division, 1929-33; 57th division, 1933-38, commander, 69th army, 1937-38; superintendent of infantry, Board of Military Training, National Military Council, 1938-39; vice-minister, Military Training Board, 1939-42; dean, Staff College, since 1942; address, Staff College, Chungking.

Yuan, Thomas L. (see Yuan, Tuen-li).

Yuan, Tuen-li (prefers **Thomas L. Yuan**)

physical education expert, born in Hopei, 1895; B.S. Chicago, 1925; C.P.H., Johns Hopkins, 1926; M.A. Columbia, 1927; professor and head, physical education department, National Peiping Normal Univ., 1930-35; dean of faculty and professor, National Peiping Normal Univ., 1935-39; dean of studies and professor, National Northwest Normal College, since 1939; address, National Northwest Normal College, Chengku, Shensi.

Yuan, Tung-li

library expert, born in Hopei, 1895; B.L.S. New York State Library School; director, National Library of Peiping, since 1927; address, National Library of Peiping, Kunming.

Yuan, Yi-chen

government official, born in Chekiang, 1905; licence en droit and Faculte de Droit, Paris, 1920; professor and dean, department of law, Central Political Institute, 1934-37; member and civil affairs commissioner, Chekiang Provincial Government, since 1938; address, Department of Civil Affairs, Yunho, Chekiang.

Yue, C. Y. (see Yu, Sung-yun).

Yue, Daff (see Yu, Ta-fu).

Yui, O. K. (see Yu, Hung-chun).

Yui, Shang-yuan (see Yu, Shang-yuan).

Yun, Cheng

electrical engineer, government official, born in Kiangsu, 1900; graduate, National Chiaotung Univ., 1921; M.M.E. Wisconsin, 1922; director, department of electrical enterprises, National Resources Commission, 1938-41; general manager, Central Electrical Manufacturing Works, since 1937; president, Chinese Mechanical Engineering Society; address, P. O. Box 1000, Kunming.

Yung, Chao

Mongolian leader, born in Suiyuan; graduate, Moscow Chungshan Univ., 1927; Moscow Artillery Academy, 1930; member, People's Political Council, since 1938; address, 7, Ti Hsin Tang, Chungking.

Yung, Chi-yung (prefers **W. W. Yung**)

health expert, government official, born in Kwangtung, 1904; B.S. Yenching Univ., 1927; M.D. P. U. M. C., 1931; M.P.H. Johns Hopkins, 1937; epidemic prevention commissioner, Kwangtung, 1938; director, department of epidemic prevention, National Health Administration, since 1940; address, National Health Administration, Chungking.

Yung, Lu-su

government official, born in Liaoning, 1901; graduate, Northeast Military Academy; chief-secretary, Heilungkiang Provincial Government, since 1941; address, 96th Army Post Office.

Yung, W. W. (see Yung, Chi-yung).

Yupin, Paul (see Yu, Ping).

Zen, Hung-chun (see Jen, Hung-chun).

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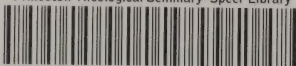
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